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Fairness, Outcomes, Expectations: Exploring Drivers of Individual Reactions to Planned Organisational Change.

Thesis submitted for the degree of Ph.D. in 2006

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Durham, 29th of October 2005.

Abstract

The principal objective of this study is to investigate the link between employees' experience of and reactions to organisational change through the framework of organisational justice. This study differentiates between four dimensions of organisational justice, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, and takes into account both anticipated and perceived fairness. Drawing on a review of extant contributions addressing organisational justice in change contexts, I formulated a chronological research model. Within this research model, a number of questions and hypotheses to guide my empirical investigation have been developed. The hypotheses concern the relationships between anticipated and perceived fairness of change along the four dimensions of organisational justice and the intentions to resist the change or support the change, at different phases of planned change (discovery and aftermath stages).

Longitudinal survey data has been collected to test the hypotheses. The research model has received partial support in the hypothesis tests. In particular, it was found that all four dimensions of organisational justice anticipations had an impact on behavioural intentions to resist and support change in the discovery stage of organisational change. (Up to now, only the impact of anticipations of distributive injustice had been tested). In the aftermath stage of change, only distributive justice perceptions were significantly related to behavioural intentions to support or resist the change. The favourability of expected or experienced change outcomes was a strong predictor for reactions at both points in time. Over time, individual intentions to support or resist change showed a relatively strong stability. The effects over time for fairness judgments were more complex. Fairness anticipations were positively related to later fairness perceptions for most individuals, which has been explained as an assimilation effect. However, for a smaller group of individuals, fairness anticipations were negatively related to their fairness perceptions at later stages, which has been termed a contrast effect.

Semi-structured interviews have been conducted in order to afford a more-in-depth investigation of the phenomena studied, and to gain richer insights into participants' experience of change. Participants' accounts of various reactions to change initiatives were analysed in a content analysis, and different patterns were found for the various behavioural and attitudinal reactions described. A large number of issues described could be identified as pertaining to one of the four dimensions of organisational justice concerns. The interview analyses also identified a number of important issues and sense making activities that would not typically be captured in an organisational justice framework, including organisational concerns, powerlessness, and non-fairness related outcome

concerns. In particular, past experiences, vicarious experiences and expectations were found to be important aspects of individuals' sense making. As a straight interpretation of the justice literature would predict, the description of positive issues regarding distributions, procedures, interpersonal treatment and information were mostly related to positive reactions. However, different patterns were found for past experiences, which sometimes served as contrast. Sometimes negative experiences along one dimension (e.g., outcomes) were outweighed by positive experiences along another dimension (e.g., supervisor treatment). Further, power positions were identified as an important factor to explain in particular the reaction of passive support, or acceptance of change. Participants also mentioned organisational issues, related to work processes, organisational culture, and strategy as reasons for their attitudes and reactions to change. This analysis went beyond the organisational justice framework, and various limitations of the organisational justice framework in explaining individual reactions to change were pointed out.

In an attempt to investigate the links between previous experiences, fairness anticipations and fairness judgments over time in a more controlled environment, I conducted a supplemental scenario study. Under the condition of ambiguous information, it was found that previous change experiences were positively related to anticipations regarding a new change project. This was true for both of the dimensions tested, procedural and interactional justice. In a mixed-motive situation, under ambivalent information, anticipations of fairness were found to be positively related to consequent perceptions of fairness, for distributive, procedural and interactional justice. In both information conditions tested, and both between previous experiences and anticipations and between anticipations and perceptions, assimilation effects were thus found.

The study made contributions directly related to the question of what makes employees resist or support organisational change, concerning the link between individuals' experiences of and reactions to organisational change from an organisational justice perspective. Beyond this, more general contributions were also made regarding the role of time for organisational justice.

Acknowledgements

This research has been supported by a scholarship of the Irish Research Council for the Humanities and Social Sciences, to whom I am grateful for having given me this opportunity to do research. My empirical work would not have been possible without the support of Carol Pemberton, Ciara Coghlan, Michelle Ryan, Catherine Kirwan, Bryan Smith, Rhoda Nolan, Les Graham and many others. I would like to thank them all for their help.

It has been a pleasure to work with my dissertation supervisor, Martin Fellenz, who always looked out for my development and has given me just the right mix of advice and independence to keep me motivated and busy. I am grateful to him for being my mentor, colleague and friend.

I would also like to thank the School of Business Studies of Trinity College Dublin for supporting my research visit to the Stern School, NYU. At Stern, Steven Blader and Batia Wiesenfeld have made an invaluable contribution not only to this research but surely also to my future work by showing me the ropes of more controlled research methods. I am thankful for all the time they have spent with me, and the advice they have given me. Sophie Leroy provided me with a lovely home in Queens and helped me to make sense of the New World across the Atlantic.

My time at Trinity College Dublin would not have been the same without the friendship and support of Valerie McCarthy, who helped me over many minor and major obstacles on the way. My postgrad colleagues in Rooms 3.05 and 3.06 deserve special credit for helping me to keep my sanity, by providing me with lots of distractions from the Ph.D. Special thanks to Elmarie Fryer, Erin Sullivan, Edel Tully, John Loonam, Fabian Armendariz, Justin Keogan, Ruslan Rakhmatullin and Roger Nolan, and thanks to Cal Muckley for making the transition to my new workplace a lot nicer.

I would not have begun the Ph.D. without the encouragement and support of a few very close people. Abt Dr. Thomas Denter deserves credit for having raised my interest in issues of fairness and justice in his inspiring and memorable Greek classes. My best friend Tanja Barton said just the right thing to make me leave the safe haven of a job that just wasn't for me, and to help me decide to embark on my Ph.D. project. My wonderful parents Hanne and Gunnar Lindemanns encouraged and supported me in every possible way on this path – just as I know they would support me on any path I choose in life. The decision to change careers was probably the second best decision in my life so far.

I also received all the support I could have wished for from Pierre-Olivier Fortin, who – and I consider this my best decision so far – is my husband since last year. Besides, I am appreciative of Ryan Air, for helping us to commute between Dublin and London for two years.

And finally, I am grateful to the University of Durham for having the confidence to hire me even before this work was completed.

Table of contents

1 INTRODUCTION 10
1.1 Research Rationale and Focus 10
1.2 Overview of the intended research contributions 11
1.3 Structure of the Thesis 12
1.4 Closing comments for Chapter 1 15
2 A review of literature and research in organisational justice 16
2.1 Introduction 16
2.2 Definition 16
2.3 Roots in Philosophy 17
2.4 History and dimensionality of organisational justice 18
2.4.1 Distributive Justice 19
2.4.2 Procedural Justice 20
2.4.3 Interactional justice 22
2.4.3.1 Interpersonal justice 23
2.4.3.2 Informational justice 23
2.4.4 Other justice categories: 24
2.4.5 The construct discrimination debate 26
2.4.6 Correlation, interaction and substitution effects between the four types of justice 28
2.5 Other variables expected to impact fairness perceptions 30
2.5.1 Previous experiences and previous justice judgments 31
2.5.1.1 Anticipatory Injustice and Persistent Injustice Effect 31
2.5.1.2 Contrast effects 32
2.5.1.3 An integrative view on past experiences: Assimilation and Contrast Effects 33
2.5.2 Motivational Factors and outcome favourability 34
2.5.3 Characteristics of the perceiver 35
2.5.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the perceiver 35
2.5.3.2 Personality 35
2.5.4 Event vs. entity judgments 36
2.5.5 Context 36
2.5.5.1 Culture 37
2.5.5.2 Union membership 38
2.5.5.3 The situation 38
2.5.5.4 Relative power distribution 38
2.5.6 Concluding remark on the stability of fairness antecedents across contexts and cultures 39
2.6 The consequences of perceived (un-) fairness 39
2.6.1 Models explaining the relationship between organisational justice dimensions and behavioural and attitudinal reactions, and evidence 41
2.6.1.1 Distributive dominance 41
2.6.1.2 The two-factor-model 41
2.6.1.3 Agent-system model 42
2.6.1.4 The interaction models 42
2.6.1.5 Conclusion on models 43
2.6.2 Other variables impacting the link between Organisational justice and Reactions 44
2.6.3 Critical outlook on research on reactions to organisational justice 47
2.7 Theories of Organisational Justice 47
2.7.1 Content theories: why people make fairness judgments: 48

2.7.1.1 Instrumental model: 48
2.7.1.2 Relational model: 48
2.7.1.3 Moral virtues model 48
2.7.1.4 Integrated models 49
2.7.2 Process Theories – how people make fairness judgments 49
2.7.2.1 Some "controlled" process theories 50
2.7.2.2 Fairness Heuristics 51
2.7.2.3 Fairness theory 53
2.7.2.4 When does which process theory apply? 53
2.7.3 Integrating different theories 54
2.8 Chapter Summary and Brief Critique of the field of Organisational Justice 55
2.8.1 Research Content 55
2.8.1.1 Focus of empirical investigations 55
2.8.1.2 Questions that remain to be investigated 56
2.8.2 Research Context 56
2.8.3 Research Methods 57
2.8.4 Measures of Organisational Justice 58
2.8.5 Ethical Implications 59
2.9 Closing Comments 61
3 Employee Reactions to Planned Organisational Change 62
3.1 Introduction 62
3.2 Organisational Change 63
3.2.1 Defining Planned Organisational Change 63
3.2.2 Conceptions of Change 64
3.2.3 An Overview of Organisational Change Theories 66
3.3 The individual experiencing Change 69
3.3.1 Cognitive process and sense-making 69
3.3.2 Psychological contracts and entitlements 70
3.3.3 Social information – grapevine, rumours, reputations in change 70
3.3.4 Change and Emotions 71
3.3.5 Stage models of individual change experience, sense-making and emotional reactions. 71
3.4 Resistance to and support for Change 75
3.5 The link between Experience of Change and behavioural intentions to resist or support 79
3.5.1 Cognitive Schemata and the typology of 1st, 2nd, 3rd order change 79
3.5.2 Psychological contracts 80
3.5.3 The dynamics of cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions 82
3.5.4 Hay and Haertel's model 84
3.6 Some Issues and Complications in Change Research 85
3.7 Closing Comments 88
4 Towards a Research Model of Justice Perceptions in Organisational Change 89
4.1 Introduction 89
4.2 The relevance of fairness perceptions and anticipations in the context of organisational changes 89
4.2.1 Why Organisational Justice matters in Planned Change 90
4.2.2 Practitioner interest 93
4.2.3 Theoretical and conceptual interest 94
4.2.4 Ethical interest 95
4.3 General Research Interest of this Study 96
4.4 Research on fairness perceptions of organisational change 96

4.4.1 Conceptual contributions outlining the role of fairness perceptions for the implementation of change 96
4.4.2 Research drawing on organisational justice theory to explain employee reactions in change 98
4.4.3 Research addressing the relative impact of different dimensions of fairness over time in change 100
4.4.4 Qualitative research addressing justice concerns in change 103
4.4.5 Research addressing the role of the expectation of (un)fairness, and temporal-cumulative effects 104
4.4.6 Specific research interest of this study 108
4.5 Research model 108
4.5.1 "Discovery" 110
4.5.1.1 Finding out that a change is going to happen 111
4.5.1.2 Fairness anticipations regarding the impending change are formed 111
4.5.1.3 Anticipation related to attitudes and behavioural intentions 112
4.5.1.4 Hypothesis 1 114
4.5.1.5 The role of the positivity of outcome expectations 115
4.5.2 Implementation and "Aftermath" of the change 116
4.5.2.1 Fairness judgments after experienced change 117
4.5.2.2 Hypothesis 2 118
4.5.2.3 The role of the strength of the justice judgment 119
4.5.2.4 Attitudes and reactions towards the change in aftermath stage 120
4.5.2.5 Hypothesis 3 120
4.5.2.6 The role of outcome favourability 122
4.5.2.7 Long-term effects of anticipation on attitudes and behaviours 122
4.5.2.8 Hypothesis 4 123
4.5.2.9 Impact of anticipatory justices via two mediators onto attitudes at later stages 124
4.5.2.10 Hypothesis 5 126
4.5.2.11 The achievement of change objectives 128
4.5.3 Impact on future change initiatives 128
4.6 Summary of research questions and hypotheses 128
5 Methodology 130
5.1 Introduction and Overview 130
5.1.1 Research Philosophy 130
5.1.2 Multi-Strategy Research 131
5.1.3 Overall design 132
5.1.4 Research Access 133
5.1.5 Study overview 134
5.1.6 Structure of this chapter 135
5.2 INSURANCE's Performance Improvement change Project – research setting No 1 135
5.3 BANK's Coaching Introduction change project – research setting No 2 142
5.3.1 Particular Justice Concerns and Considerations in Research Settings 148
5.3.1.1 Benign Changes 149
5.3.1.2 Performance Management and Coaching as Objects of Justice Perceptions 149
5.3.1.3 Differentiation of the four dimensions of organisational justice? 150
5.3.1.4 The organisation and the manager as sources of (in-)justice 151
5.3.1.5 Culture in Ireland and in INSURANCE and BANK 152
5.3.1.6 Previous changes and overall change agenda in INSURANCE and BANK 153

5.4 Research Design 154
5.4.1 Survey research 154
5.4.1.1 Population 154
5.4.1.2 Sample characteristics and response rates 154
5.4.1.3 Design and Procedure 157
5.4.1.3.1 Overview 157
5.4.1.3.2 Administration of questionnaires 159
5.4.1.2.3.1 T1 - After the change communication – Discovery stage 159
5.4.1.2.3.2 After the official implementation – aftermath stage 160
5.4.1.4 Measures 161
5.4.1.4.1 Organisational Justice – anticipated (T1) and perceived (T2) 161
5.4.1.4.2 Resistance and Support Scale – T1 and T2 166
5.4.1.4.3 Measures of Outcome favourability and Importance of outcome ... 167
5.4.1.4.4 Other variables measured / control measures 168
5.4.1.5 Approach to analysing the survey data 168
5.4.2 Interview Data – Methods 168
5.4.2.1 Respondent selection 169
5.4.2.2 Semi-structured interviews 170
5.4.2.3 Approach to analysing the data 172
5.4.2.4 Content analysis: 172
5.5 Research Rigour 177
5.6 Chapter Summary and methodology overview 178
6 Survey Data Analysis, Results and Discussion 181
6.1 Chapter overview 181
6.2 Survey data analysis 181
6.2.1 Missing values 181
6.2.2 Testing of the hypotheses 181
6.2.2.1 A note on the difficulty of measuring change 182
6.2.2.2 Testing interaction effects 182
6.2.2.3 Multiple regression analyses 184
6.2.2.4 Hypothesis 1 185
6.2.2.4.1 Hypothesis 1A 186
6.2.2.4.2 Hypothesis 1B 187
6.2.2.4.3 Hypothesis 1 C 188
6.2.2.4.4 Hypothesis 1 D 189
6.2.2.5 Hypothesis 2 190
6.2.2.5.1 Hypothesis 2 A 190
6.2.2.5.2 Hypothesis 2 B 190
6.2.2.5.3 Hypothesis 2 C 190
6.2.2.5.4 Hypothesis 2 D 191
6.2.2.6 Hypothesis 3 191
6.2.2.6.1 Hypothesis 3A 192
6.2.2.6.2 Hypothesis 3B 192
6.2.2.6.3 Hypothesis 3 C 194
6.2.2.6.4 Hypothesis 3 D 194
6.2.2.7 Hypothesis 4 195
6.2.2.7.1 Hypothesis 4A 195
6.2.2.7.2 Hypothesis 4B 196
6.2.2.8 Hypothesis 5 196
6.2.2.8.1 Hypothesis 5 A 197
6.2.2.8.2 Hypothesis 5 B 198
6.2.2.8.3 Hypothesis 5 C 198

6.2.2.8.4 Hypothesis 5D 199
6.2.3 Summary of the results 200
6.3 Discussion of survey research results: 203
6.3.1 The role of anticipations of (in)justice 203
6.3.2 The relative impact of the four justice dimensions at T1 and T2 203
6.3.3 The relative impact of the four justice dimensions for resistance vs. support 206
6.3.4 The role of the favourability or positivity of outcomes 207
6.3.5 Interaction effects 208
6.3.6 The stability of fairness judgments over time 210
6.3.7 The level change and relative stability of behavioural intentions to support/resist change 212
6.4 Summary and implications of survey data analysis 213
6.4.1 New evidence for the role of anticipations of justice 214
6.4.2 The relative impact of the four dimensions of fairness over time 214
6.4.3 Implications of the findings regarding stability of fairness judgments over time, contrast and assimilation effects 215
7 Interview Data Results, Analysis and Discussion 217
7.1 Research context 217
7.1.1 INSURANCE's Performance Improvement change Project 217
7.1.1.1 T0 views on performance management 217
7.1.1.2 T1 views on performance improvement 219
7.1.1.3 T2 views on performance improvement 220
7.1.2 BANK's Coaching Introduction change project 224
7.1.2.1 T1 views on coaching 225
7.1.2.2 T2 views on coaching 229
7.2 Overview of content analysis results 234
7.2.1 Types of reactions to change described 234
7.2.2 Stories about self vs. others 234
7.2.3 Emerging categories of reasons 235
7.2.4 Preponderance of negative issues and reactions 236
7.3 Linkages between change experience and reactions 236
7.3.1 Role of vicarious accounts 236
7.3.2 Role of past experiences 238
7.3.3 Role of expectations 242
7.4 Differentiating different types of reactions 244
7.4.1 The difference between positive and negative reactions 244
7.4.2 The difference between emotions/cognitions and behavioural intentions and reactions 246
7.4.3 The difference between active and passive behavioural reactions 248
7.5 Important elements of change experience beyond the organisational justice framework 249
7.5.1 The prevalence of outcome concerns 249
7.5.2 Organisational issues 253
7.5.3 Powerlessness 255
7.6 Summary of the implications of content analysis findings 257
8 Supplemental Scenario Study 261
8.1 Reasons for a supplemental in-depth investigation of assimilation effects in organisational justice 261
8.2 The role of past experiences and anticipations of fairness 264
8.3 Method 269
8.3.1 Participants and Design 269

8.3.2 Procedure 270
8.3.3 Dependent Measures 274
8.3.3.1 Scales 274
8.3.3.2 Manipulation checks 275
8.3.3.3 Other measures/control measures 275
8.4 Results 276
8.4.1 Manipulation checks 276
8.4.2 Hypotheses tests 278
8.4.2.1 Hypothesis 1 278
8.4.2.2 Hypothesis 2: 281
8.5 Discussion 282
9 Discussion and Conclusions 286
9.1 Study Recap and Chapter Preview 286
9.2 Overview of Contributions 288
9.2.1 Empirical and methodological 288
9.2.2 Theoretical and conceptual 290
9.2.3 Practitioner Value 293
9.3 Limitations 296
9.3.1 Reliability threats 296
9.3.2 Validity threats 297
9.3.3 Limited generalizability/external validity 299
9.3.4 Discussion of Trustworthiness and Reflexivity 300
9.3.5 General limitations of the research design 301
9.3.6 Concluding comments on limitations 303
9.4 Implications for Theory, future research, and organisational practice resulting from this multi-method study 304
9.4.1 Implications for Theory 304
9.4.2 Implications for future research 307
9.4.3 Implications for organisational practice 309
9.5 A final word 311
10 References 312

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Rationale and Focus

The behaviour of individual organisational members is a crucial factor for the successful implementation of planned organisational change (Siegal et al., 1996). As organisations need to be able to change in order to survive, the support or resistance of employees can decide over the fate of an organisation. Given the fast pace of our world, understanding and managing individual reactions to change is likely to become ever more important (Bridges, 1986, P 33). Yet despite the wealth of research on organisational change and the central role of individual employees in this, only few contributions have focused on the employee-participant's perspective (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999).

In fact, employees may show first reactions to a change even before it happens. "Anyone who was not included in the original decision to make the change is bound to react to the fact of change. Indeed, people can react even to the possibility of change. And the first reaction is likely to be a self-protective one: What is in it for us?" (Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 1992, P 460)

This research is concerned with individual expectations, experiences and reactions in relation to organisational change. The framework of organisational justice is used to investigate how individuals' expectations and experiences regarding planned organisational change are linked to their support for or resistance to this change. Organisational justice, or the perceptions of fairness in the workplace, has been shown to be a powerful predictor of people's affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions in various work contexts (for a review see Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Four dimensions of organisational justice will be distinguished in this research: the perceived fairness of outcomes or distributions (distributive justice), perceived fairness of procedures (procedural justice), perceived respect and sensitivity of treatment (interpersonal justice), and perceived adequacy and timeliness of information (informational justice) (for a review of these dimensions, see Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). The published research investigating organisational justice in the context of organisational change supports the view that fairness perceptions are particularly salient in change settings, and can be a powerful predictor of reactions to organisational change and other reactions resulting from change implementation. Reactions that have been shown to be related to perceptions of organisational justice in change situations include for example commitment (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995), resistance (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001), perceived obligations

to the organisation (Korsgaard, Sapienza, & Schweiger, 2002), and positive or negative emotions (Thornhill & Saunders, 2003).

The principal aim of the current study is to investigate through an organisational justice perspective, how employees' expectations and experiences are linked to their reactions to organisational change.

This research goes beyond previous investigations of fairness perceptions in organisational change in a number of ways.

1) It collects longitudinal data to investigate linkages between expectations and experiences of fairness within the same study.
2) It distinguishes between all four dimensions of organisational justice to utilise a fine-grained and comprehensive justice analysis of the research topic.
3) It combines different methodologies (survey, interview, scenario), which complement each other and help to triangulate empirical findings.

Overall, the approach taken enables a thorough assessment of the value the organisational justice framework can bring to the study of individual experiences and reactions to planned organisational change. The intended contributions of this study are briefly outlined in the next section.

1.2 Overview of the intended research contributions

While the discussion of the findings of this study will include a description and evaluation of the contributions actually made, the following research contributions were intended from the outset of the study. The use of the organisational justice framework to investigate individual experiences of and reactions to change is expected to further knowledge on the link between individual expectations and experiences of change, and their reactions to change, areas that have received surprisingly little research attention so far. No published study has investigated both fairness anticipations and perceptions along all four dimensions of organisational justice. Also, it will be one of a very small group of longitudinal studies of fairness perceptions in organisational change (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003).

There is a dearth of research concerned with the experience of individuals in change, and much of the work on individual reactions to change and experience of change has relied on personal practitioner experiences and anecdotal cases (Bridges, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992). This has provided rich details about emotional, cognitive, and social processes involved, but has not allowed hypotheses testing. The majority of studies that investigate organisational justice in change contexts have relied on statistical/correlational

analyses and have taken a managerialist view, not providing much detail about individual experiences (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). I propose that in order to better understand the individual experience of change and reactions to change from an organisational justice perspective, both details about personal processes and statistical investigations of larger samples are useful, and both quantitative and qualitative methods can complement each other.

Firstly, qualitative data help to contextualise the quantitative data, and may highlight the limitations of the justice framework as an explanatory framework in the context of change experiences and reactions to change. Secondly, the collection of richer data allows the research to address also more open-ended and why questions to complement the more specific quantitative investigation. Thirdly, examples and negative cases in relation to the hypotheses formulated and investigated quantitatively may be found, thus allowing for qualitative/quantitative triangulation.

The investigation of the four dimensions of organisational justice over time, both anticipated and experienced, is hoped to clarify the relative roles of the various dimensions over time, as well as giving new insights into the role of anticipations.

This study is controlling for outcome positivity or favourability, which has mostly been confounded with distributive justice in fairness research. The investigation of the roles of both outcome positivity and distributive justice in two different stages of organisational change may help to clarify the mechanisms and the role of distributive justice.

The proposed study is expected to generate valuable knowledge for change agents and change practitioners. The investigation of all four dimensions of fairness over time may help prioritise resources and management tasks at different stages of change. Also, the investigation of the role of anticipations may give new insights into expectation management and readiness for change. Different or additional contributions may and will arise out of the actual study. These will be discussed in later chapters, and will be summarised in Chapter 9.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

The relevant literatures for the topic of this research are organisational justice and organisational change. Organisational justice, the younger of the two fields, is based on a framework to investigate exchange relationships in a work context. Any organisational change situation necessarily includes an exchange relationship and thus can be analysed using the framework of organisational justice. Organisational justice is reviewed firstly

(Chapter 2), followed by a review of the literature on change (Chapter 3). Thus the tool and framework of analysis (organisational justice) is laid out before the object of study (the individual experience of organisational change).

Chapter 2 provides a brief historical overview of the development of the field of organisational justice and its roots in philosophy and ethics. The various dimensions of organisational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, informational) are described, and the differentiation, correlation and interaction of these constructs are discussed with reference to empirical findings.

The most prominent findings in organisational justice research are summarised, particularly antecedents of perceptions of (un-) fairness and the relationship between the different types of justice and organisational outcomes (the consequences of perceived un-fairness). Different theories of organisational justice are presented: Firstly there are theories that aim at explaining why people make fairness judgments, and secondly theories that deal with how people make fairness judgments. Integrative views on different types of theory are considered and discussed.

Finally, a brief summary and critical evaluation of topics, methodologies and issues in justice research is given, and ethical implications of organisational justice research are discussed. Currently research in organisational justice is dominated by experimental and cross-sectional quantitative studies in US settings, with a strong view to addressing managerial interests. Particularly longitudinal and qualitative research as well as interdisciplinary research, critical views, and research in non-US organisational settings promise to advance the field.

This review of justice literature and research is followed by a review of chosen streams in change literature in Chapter 3, which focuses mainly on individual experiences of and reactions to change. Firstly, a broad and brief introduction to the field of organisational change research and theory is given, and various conceptions of organisational change are introduced. The review then focuses on the individual experience of change, and introduces a number of concepts that help describe and explain individual experiences, such as sense making, psychological contracts and social information. Stage models of individual change experiences are presented. The next section moves on to discuss individuals' reactions to change, in particular resistance to and support for change. It is argued that resistance and support are not exclusive but can both be present at the same time.

Thereafter, the review tries to establish what we know about the link between individual organisational members' experience of change and their behavioural intentions to resist or support change. A number of different concepts, literatures and models that have been drawn on to structure or investigate this link will be presented. At present there is a general lack of theory and research regarding the mechanisms leading from experience to reaction. Finally, a number of general issues and complications in change research will be discussed.

Chapter Four brings together the topics of organisational justice and change. The chapter consists of three main sections: Firstly, the general argument for analysing the experience of and reaction to organisational change through the framework of organisational justice is made. Secondly, a review of contributions directly addressing or investigating justice concerns in change contexts is presented. Thirdly, drawing on the review of extant contributions, a research model for the current study is developed. The model presents individuals' experience of and reactions to organisational change in a simplified temporal order, highlighting specific hypotheses to be investigated by my study at various stages. The hypotheses concern the relationship between anticipated and perceived fairness of change along the four dimensions of organisational justice and the intentions to resist the change or support the change, at different phases of planned change. The research model also emphasizes some more general and open-ended questions.

Chapter Five gives an overview of the methodology employed in this study. Firstly, it clarifies the philosophical and methodological orientation employed here and gives an overview of the design of the study. A longitudinal survey design will be conducted to test the hypotheses developed in the research model (Chapter Four). This is complemented by semi-structured interviews. The rich interview data is expected to enable contextualisation and triangulation of the survey data, and is suited to address the open-ended questions underlying this research.

After a general overview of the design, a detailed description of the research settings will be given. More detailed sections describing firstly the survey and secondly the interview methods follow. Approaches to analysis and standards of research rigour will be discussed for both the survey and the interview elements.

Chapter Six gives an overview of the results of the hypotheses tests conducted with the survey data. This overview is followed by a discussion of the results, which is complemented by supplemental analyses to investigate some of the relationships in more depth.

Chapter Seven describes and discusses results from the content analysis conducted with the qualitative interview data. A brief overview of coding categories and distributions is followed by a more detailed discussion of the various findings and patterns of the content analyses, organised by themes and interpreted in the light of the research questions. Various dynamics of potential relevance for the link between change experience and reactions to change will be presented, followed by an analysis of what differentiates various types of reactions. Finally, it will be discussed in how far organisational justice is a comprehensive framework for the types of issues that emerged from the content analysis.

While originally I had only planned to conduct survey and interview data collections, the results of the survey and interview analyses prompted me to conduct an additional in-depth investigation of a specific question regarding the development of justice perceptions over time. I thus conducted a scenario study, which provided the controlled environment I felt was useful to investigate this very specific link. Chapter Eight describes and discusses this in-depth supplemental investigation of fairness effects over time. The chapter outlines my reasons for undertaking this supplemental enquiry and describes the method and results of this investigation. The chapter closes with an initial discussion of the findings.

Chapter Nine briefly summarises the research question and the various elements of investigation of this study. An overview of the combined contributions from the different research elements (survey, interview, and scenario studies) is given, followed by a comprehensive discussion of the limitations of the study in the light of relevant standards of research rigour. The chapter closes by pointing out implications for theory, future research, and organisational practice resulting from this multi-method study.

1.4 Closing comments for Chapter 1

In this introduction, I have explained the rationale for investigating employee experiences of and reactions to organisational change, and have examined the expected contributions. This was followed by a brief overview of the structure of the overall dissertation. The following chapter (Chapter 2) provides a review and critique of the field of organisational justice, which provides the framework for this research.

2 A review of literature and research in organisational justice

2.1 Introduction

Organisational justice is concerned with people's fairness perceptions in their employment relationship. Perceived organisational justice has been shown to have effects on people's motivation, well-being, performance, stealing, sabotage and other attitudes, behaviours and outcomes relevant for organisations and organisational members (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Perceived organisational justice also plays a major role in determining people's attitudes and behaviours in organisational change (Beugre, 1998; Novelli, Kirkman, & Shapiro, 1995). This chapter defines and discusses the concept of organisational justice. It is intended to give a general overview of the field of organisational justice and an introduction to justice research, and presents a selection of theories that aim at explaining why justice perceptions matter and how people make justice judgments.

Organisational justice is a framework concerned with investigating exchange relationships. Although organisational change is not the specific focus of this chapter, any change affects exchange relationship aspects and is thus subject to questions of perceived fairness and justice. The organisational justice findings and theories presented in the following can thus be applied to organisational change situations. The links to organisational change are not made explicit in every section of this review, but will be the focus of Chapter Four, where the research and contributions that have directly addressed justice issues in the context of organisational change will be reviewed.

Organisational justice research has become a growth area in organisational behaviour, and has contributed to our understanding of people's experiences and reactions in work contexts. The relatively young research area of organisational justice has focused on a number of questions, and has relied on some methodologies to the exclusion of others. This chapter will close with a critique of organisational justice research and theory, and point out promising avenues for future research.

2.2 Definition

Organisational justice is a field of research in the social sciences that spans disciplinary boundaries. The social science definition of organisational justice is based on people's perceptions. An act is just because someone perceives it to be just. "At its most general level, organizational justice is an area of psychological inquiry that focuses on perceptions of fairness in the workplace. It is the psychology of justice applied to

organizational settings." (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001, P 4). The organisational justice framework helps to investigate individuals' experience of different aspects of their employment. While the first contributions centred around the perceived fairness of outcomes only (distributive justice), consequently new dimensions of organisational justice were added: the fairness of the procedures used to determine outcomes (procedural justice), respectful and sensitive treatment (interpersonal justice), and adequate and sufficient communication (informational justice) (see Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Following the practice of Sheppard, Lewicki, and Minton (1992) that has been adopted by many justice researchers (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), the terms justice and fairness are used interchangeably in the following.

The social science definition of organisational justice differs from philosophical justice concepts, where an act is just when it complies with a normative ethical/philosophical system. In philosophy and ethics, different normative rule systems compete with each other in their prescriptions of what is just or unjust (Colquitt et al., 2001). While organisational justice needs to be distinguished from the philosophical justice concept, it remains related to the field of normative justice theories in various ways. The next section will give a brief introduction to the philosophical roots of organisational justice, which have been pointed out by a number of earlier contributions in organisational justice (e.g., Cohen & Greenberg, 1982).

2.3 Roots in Philosophy

The study of justice has been a topic in ethics and philosophy at least since Plato and Socrates, and philosophical and ethical thinking about justice have shaped the way people see the world. Mankind have long tried to answer the question "what is justice", yet the question seems to remain as open as ever, and it seems unsure if a final answer can ever be found (Kelsen, 2000 (1953)). Justice has been conceptualised in many different ways by philosophers and thinkers: as a natural law based on contracts (Hobbes, 1947 (1651)), as an instrument for societal order for which no universal standard exists (e.g., Mill, 1940 (1861))), as a consequence of the economic system that is used as a manipulative instrument to preserve and justify a societal order (Marx, 1929), or as a result of historical associations and historical rights (Nozick, 1974). In philosophy, justice has been thought about as an attribute of societal order, as a human virtue, or as an attribute of an act (Kelsen, 2000 (1953)).

Organisational justice clearly has departed from the field of philosophical/normative justice thinking: organisational justice researchers do not debate

what is ethical or fair in a normative sense, but instead study the normative justice judgments that people make. In this context fair is what someone perceives to be fair. But as justice perceptions are ultimately reliant on people's philosophical approach to what is fair, organisational justice researchers investigating the formation of people's justice judgments will ultimately need to be concerned with the normative standards individuals use to measure the perceived fairness of events and entities. A further point of connection between the fields of ethical and organisational justice is the fact that some organisational justice researchers argue that increased fairness (in a normative sense) will be one of the outcomes of applying organisational justice findings, e.g. through training managers in techniques to improve perceived fairness amongst their employees (Greenberg, 2001b) – a statement that remains to be discussed and investigated (see critical review section in this chapter).

The underlying ethical or philosophical system – while lying at the heart of people's justice perceptions - has seldom been a central interest of inquiries in organisational justice in the past. Research concerned with the rules underlying justice judgments has mostly focused on situational goals rather than on philosophical or ethical orientations and frameworks (Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980). One exception is research by Schminke and Ambrose (1997), who investigated the effect of individual ethical frameworks on perceptions of justice. They found that individuals high on utilitarianism were more sensitive to distributive justice, and individuals high on formalism were more sensitive to procedural justice.

The commonalities, interactions and borderlines between ethics and justice may be a fruitful area for future research. Current research has mainly investigated how fairness judgments are formed and altered, taking the existence of a given normative system for granted. The normative system itself has escaped investigation, and we know little about the formation or alteration of such systems.

2.4 History and dimensionality of organisational justice

In comparison to the long history of the philosophical treatment of justice, the study of justice in a social science framework is a much more recent phenomenon. It is rooted in a few seminal papers in the 1960s, focusing on the equitable distribution of outcomes in social interactions (Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961). Since then, the concept of justice in social interactions and specifically in organisations has been broadened and extensive research has been conducted. The following sections give an overview of the dimensions of organisational justice that are commonly distinguished

today. These dimensions of justice perceptions and their antecedents will be introduced in the chronological order of their development in literature and research.

2.4.1 Distributive Justice

The perceived fairness of outcomes is termed distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Leventhal, 1976b) and was the first facet of fairness to receive broad-based attention in the social sciences. Typical outcomes in the general employment context are for example pay distributions, benefits, or job offers.

The first contributions on distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961) were developed for general social interaction contexts, and were not restricted to organisational contexts. They built on earlier work in exchange theory, social comparison theory, dissonance theory, and, to a degree, in relative deprivation, status congruence, and coalition research (Cohen & Greenberg, 1982).

According to distributive justice research, a distribution is perceived to be fair if it is consistent with norms of allocation. This antecedent of perceived distributive justice is not trivial, as the norms of allocation can be defined in various ways.

The first contributions focused on allocations according to the allocation principle of equity. According to the equity rule, an allocation is fair if outcomes are received according to merit. Homans specifies that individuals expect rewards to be proportional to the costs of each participant in an exchange relationship, and that the profits be proportional to investments, the "fundamental rule of distributive justice"(Homans, 1961). Individual's perceptions of justice thus depend not only on the proportionality principle, but also on their definition of rewards, investments and contributions, and on how to determine these for each participant. Consequently Blau (1964) added to this by stressing the importance of expectations based on either experience or reference standards.

Adams (1965) formalized equity in exchange relationships in his "equity theory" which posits that people compare their own input/outcome ratio to the other person's input/outcome ratio. If the ratios are unequal, then inequity is perceived. A person who perceives their own ratio to be lower than the "just ratio" is predicted to feel guilty; a person who perceives their own ratio to be higher is predicted to feel angry. People strive to remove the unpleasant state of inequity, either by altering inputs or outcomes, by cognitive distortion of inputs or outcomes, by leaving the exchange relationship, by altering the other's inputs or outcomes, or by changing the object of comparison.

The first empirical research on equity theory used experiments (for a review, see Greenberg, 1990b): People were hired to work on a clerical task after making them believe

that similar others were being paid either more or less for the job. In general the predictions of equity theory were confirmed: people reduced inputs when they were underpaid and increased their inputs when they were overpaid. However, the reactions to inequity were asymmetric: people were much more sensitive to negative inequity than to positive inequity (Greenberg, 1982). Later on non-monetary rewards (status job title, workspace characteristics, see Greenberg, 1990 P. 413) were incorporated in equity experiments, with similar results.

A number of consequent contributions questioned the almost exclusive focus on equity to the exclusion of other distribution rules such as equality and need (e.g., Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976a; Sampson, 1975). Unlike equity distributions based on merit, the equality rule defines the same outcome for all as fair. A need-based allocation distributes outcomes proportionate to the need of the individual. Lerner (1974) pointed out that different types of relationships call for different rules of distribution: Friendship for example elicits the rule of "parity" (equality), while "Marxian justice" (distribution according to need) is likely to be the rule when people identify and have empathy with each other.

The prevalent rule of distribution may also depend on the goals pursued in a situation (Deutsch, 1975). While equity may be a useful distribution rule when aspiring maximum productivity, it might not be the best rule for other purposes, e.g., when the goal is to improve cooperation. Thus, individual rules may be more or less influential depending on context, goals and motives, and a number of rules could be considered simultaneously (Leventhal, 1976b).

Leventhal (Leventhal, 1976a; Leventhal et al., 1980) in particular introduced a focus on choosing allocation rules from the perspective of decision maker, rather than investigating individual reactions to inequity, which marked a progression from what Greenberg (1987) calls 'reactive' (i.e., research that investigates how individuals react to injustice) to 'proactive' justice research (i.e., research investigating how individuals make allocations decisions).

2.4.2 Procedural Justice

The second category of fairness is procedural justice, the fairness of the process that leads to outcomes. This dimension was introduced by Thibaut & Walker (1975), who conducted their research in courtroom settings and distinguished the fairness of the verdict from the fairness of the process leading to the verdict. They investigated the role of process control (being able to voice one's opinion during the procedure) and decision control (the

ability to influence the outcome). In simulated dispute-resolution procedures, process control was shown to increase acceptance and fairness perception of verdicts, even if the outcome could not be influenced. This finding has been known as the "voice phenomenon". Consequently, procedural justice was transferred into a non-legal context by Leventhal (1980). Leventhal identified six criteria of perceived procedural fairness: Typically, procedures are perceived to be "fair" when they are consistent across people and over time, free of bias, accurate (relying on good information), contain mechanisms for correcting wrong decisions, adhere to prevalent conceptions of morality, and are "representative", i.e., take into account opinions of all groups affected (this implies process control and decision control). The voice phenomenon was confirmed in a number of contexts, e.g., citizen encounters with police officers or students and their teachers(Lind & Tyler, 1988), or performance appraisals (Greenberg, 1990b). This research relied largely on survey methods.

Amrose and Kulik (2001) point out that we do still not know if the presentation of one or a few attributes have as much impact as a set, and if some attributes of fair procedures are more important to fairness judgments than others. There is also no systematic research or coherent pattern of finding when it comes to whether employees rely on the same attributes when they consider the fairness of different kinds of procedures (e.g., selection procedures, performance appraisal procedures, grievance procedures). Voice for example may be a central feature, as it has been shown to have significant effects in a variety of settings. It is probable that there are both shared attributes of fair procedures, as well as context unique attributes. Recent research has indicated that there appear to be interactive effects between different attributes of procedural fairness (De Cremer, 2004), but further evidence needs to be collected before these questions can be comprehensively addressed.

In summary, procedural justice has been shown to be co-determined by elements such as voice, consistency of procedures, lack of bias, existence of mechanisms for correcting wrong decisions, and conformity to morality conceptions. Procedures are generally experienced as more fair when representative of all groups affected and when relying on good information. The introduction of procedural justice led to organisational justice researchers starting to employ a model consisting of two dimensions of fairness (distributive and procedural).

2.4.3 Interactional justice

In 1986, Bies and Moag introduced the dimension of "interactional justice" as a conceptual extension to procedural justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Bies, Shapiro, & Cummings, 1988). This third dimension concerned the interpersonal treatment people receive as organisational procedures are enacted (Bies & Moag, 1986). Former models had either confounded the concern about formal procedures with concerns about interpersonal treatment, or neglected interactional aspects altogether (Bies & Moag, 1986; Bies, 1987). Bies and Moag (1986) identified honesty, avoiding deception, courtesy, respect for individual rights, propriety of behaviour and justifying decisions as typical antecedents of perceived interactional fairness.

The importance of interactional justice has been confirmed and antecedents have been investigated in various contexts. For example, Bies (1986) asked MBA students about the criteria for fairness in recruiting. Various features such as honesty, courtesy, timely feedback, respect for rights were important for the students. The same elements were named when MBA students talked about employment interviews they had experienced. These elements were felt to be important regardless of the favourability of the outcome (job offer or not). Another example is Tyler's research investigating citizen's reactions to police and courts (Tyler, 1988). Survey participants named honesty, politeness and other interactional factors among the most important determinants of fairness.

Additional research led to a further refinement in that interactional justice was consequently split into two main elements: Firstly the quality of treatment (respect and sensitivity), and secondly explanations and information regarding decision-making (Greenberg, 1993). Greenberg organised the four dimensions in a 2 by 2 matrix, as structural focal determinants and social focal determinants of procedural and distributive justice: Procedural justice included systemic justice (e.g. non-biased allocation rules) as a structural determinant, and informational justice (e.g., the rule of allocation is communicated) as a social focal determinant. Distributive justice included configural justice (e.g., B is refused, C gets the promotion) as a structural determinant and interpersonal justice (e.g., A is sorry for B's bad outcome) as social focal determinant.

The distinction between informational and interpersonal justice as two separate dimensions has been picked up by many later contributions (e.g., Colquitt, 2001). Contemporary contributions rarely describe informational and interpersonal justice as sub-categories of procedural and distributive justice. Both of these types of justice (interpersonal treatment and adequate and timely information) can concern outcomes as well as procedures, e.g., explanations or apologies can be given regarding a low bonus

payment (outcome) as well as regarding the policies linked to making bonus payments (procedure). Informational and interpersonal categories were thus introduced as independent third and fourth dimensions of organisational justice (Colquitt, 2001).

2.4.3.1 Interpersonal justice

Interpersonal justice is one of the two dimensions that were conceptually and empirically distinguished from interactional justice. It regards the quality of personal treatment, respect and sensitivity on the part of people enacting the procedures or determining outcomes (Greenberg, 1990b). Interpersonal treatment is a personal outcome that one receives within the exchange relationship of employment, and is likely to be reciprocated, according to social exchange theory (Masterson, Lewis-Mcclear, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). Interpersonal justice, the quality of personal treatment, respect and sensitivity, is likely to take different forms in different types of social interactions and cultural contexts. Research has supported the claim that honesty and conduct fulfilling standards of respect and politeness generally increases interpersonal justice perceptions (Colquitt et al., 2001).

2.4.3.2 Informational justice

Informational justice, the fourth category of organisational justice, focuses on the amount and quality of information provided concerning procedures and outcomes (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990b). Informational justice research has identified a number of antecedents of justice perceptions, e.g. clarity, adequacy, and sincerity of communications regarding a decision: Greenberg (1988b) found that workers perceived performance appraisals as fairer when written explanations of ratings were given. Bies, Shapiro and Cummings (1988) found that explanations needed to be adequately reasoned and sincerely communicated in order to improve fairness perceptions.

Adequate, sincere and clear information and explanations are likely to increase perceptions of informational justice. Bies and Shapiro (1987) discussed whether the perception of these properties of communication constitutes a fourth dimension of justice perceptions, or an antecedent of the other dimensions of organisational justice.

Justifications might influence procedural justice as part of formal communication procedures, or interactional justice as part of the behaviour of decision makers, or explanations could improve perceived outcome fairness (Paterson, Green, & Cary, 2002) So far we know little about the mechanisms involved, but recent research provides evidence for differential outcome effects for informational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). At current, we have a very small pool of informational justice studies to draw

conclusions from. "Only studies separating clearly between four elements will further our understanding of these issues, whether there are four dimensions of organisational justice, or three dimensions and explanations/excuses as antecedent." (Paterson et al., 2002: P 395)

2.4.4 Other justice categories:

While the four justice dimensions discussed above dominate the literature, a number of authors have used differing terminology or justice dimensions. Retributive justice (Alexander, Sinclair, & Tetrick, 1995) refers to the perceived fairness of punishment (as opposed to the fairness of rewards). While more research on the perceived fairness of punishments may afford new insights into the phenomenon of justice, it is not necessary from a conceptual viewpoint to brand this research under a new type of justice. Punishments – just as reward allocations - underlie perceptions of outcome fairness (was the punishment appropriate?), procedural fairness (was the procedure to decide about punishment fair?), fairness of the interpersonal treatment (was it delivered in appropriate manner?) and informational fairness (were reasons of punishment given?).

Another type of justice is systemic justice, which was introduced by Sheppard, Lewicki and Minton (1992). Systemic justice is the fairness of the system within which particular outcomes and relevant procedures were generated. Sheppard, Lewicki and Minton argue that although an outcome may be fair at an individual level, it could have unfair consequences at the broader organisational level. Within the four-dimensional justice framework this concern can be taken care of by applying the four justice categories at different levels of aggregation, e.g., to the system, to all employees, to the individual. Event evaluations should be distinguished from entity evaluations, as they may underlie different processes of judgment (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001)The evaluation of the overall fairness of the system or the organisation (entity) seems to correspond to the concept of systemic justice. If research is more careful in distinguishing different objects and sources of justice evaluations from the outset, there appears to be no need for an added dimension at present. The term systemic justice was employed in a different sense by Greenberg (1993), who defined it as the aspect of procedural justice achieved via structural means.

Lamertz (2002) proposes that the two components of interactional justice should be firstly "the perceived fairness of how decision makers enact formal procedures" (p. 20) and secondly "the extent to which such decision makers convey an image as a fair person" (p. 20). "...it is important to act in a fair manner and manage the impression of being a fair person" (p. 20). Lamertz' distinction may rest on differentiating event-appraisals from

entity-appraisals, in that the overall impression management of the decision maker appears to be mostly relevant for entity appraisals ("is the decision maker a fair person?"). Within the four-dimensional framework of organisational justice presented above (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational), clear distinctions can be made between justice perceptions regarding events vs. entities. It appears to be unclear whether the impression management techniques referred to by Lamertz really justify the creation of a separate dimension of justice. So far, the distinction between event and entity in conjunction with the extant four-dimensional framework appears sufficient to describe and explain both judgments concerning the enactment of processes in a specific event, and judgments regarding the decision maker.

Most recent research has employed the justice framework differentiating between distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, or frameworks using some of these dimensions, without questioning fundamentally whether this framework really corresponds to the experience of individuals concerned with fairness in their workplace. A rare exception to the norm is a recent contribution by Pogson, Bott, Ramakrishnan and Levy (2003), which seeks to remedy the exclusion of first-order constructs in organisational justice by examining the experiences of victims of workplace injustice. This study solicited responses to open-ended questions to identify dimensions of justice, and grouped these into 10 categories: non-universal treatment (24%), wrongful accusation and punishment (18%), unrecognised credit (16%), management negligence (15%), empty promises (7%), gender discrimination (5%), illegal actions (5%), unsatisfactory pay or raises (5%), age discrimination (3%), sexual harassment (2%). Approaches like this one promise to bring organisational justice research closer to the pulse of people concerned with justice issues, and may ultimately lead to categorizations that are better suited to describe people's actual experiences in the workplace. The four dimensional framework has proven useful in predicting and explaining people's reactions in the workplace, but maybe frameworks could be developed that would ultimately be better understood by organisational members, and that may explain their experiences and reactions even better.

Up to now, the four-dimensional justice framework remains comprehensive. While there appears to be widespread agreement that outcomes, procedures, treatment, and information are all subject to fairness perceptions, it has been argued whether or not any of the four dimensions should be grouped together. This question will be the focus of the next section.

2.4.5 The construct discrimination debate

Authors differ regarding the dimensionality of organisational justice. Some authors hold the view that interactional justice elements (interpersonal and informational) form part of procedural justice (e.g., Tyler & Bies, 1990), claiming that only two types of justice are truly distinguishable or different. They argue that procedural justice judgments include considerations of structure and quality of treatment (e.g., Lind & Tyler, 1988). According to this view, procedural justice should be conceptualised more broadly than proposed by Thibaut and Walker (1975), and could subsume interactional aspects. From this perspective, procedural justice includes both structural elements of decision-making and decision-maker conduct.

Bobocel and Holmvall (2001) provided a recent summary on research on the difference between procedural and interpersonal justice, reviewing the empirical research and literature along four questions: The first question is whether there is a clear theoretical definition that distinguishes the second construct conceptually from the first one. This appears to depend on the definition of procedural justice that one adopts. As for the empirical underpinning of the distinction, however, it is not yet clear whether there are different psychological reasons for caring about the two types of justice. Secondly, Bobocel and Holmvall review whether there are adequate operationalizations for the theoretical definition of the new construct, and find that most data suggest that people can distinguish between procedural and interpersonal aspects of justice, but this result is clouded by the use of problematic measures. Often the construct validity of measures used is doubtable, and measures are developed for one specific context or event. Also, the content and the source of justice are often confounded, and composite measures are found next to direct measures. The third question is whether the new construct produces different consequences or explains additional variance in dependent, criterion variables that is unexplained by the first construct. This third question is not answered conclusively either, due to the measurement problems, and because cross-sectional and correlational research leaves questions of causal direction open (some of the attitudinal variables measured may be antecedents of the fairness dimensions as opposed to consequences). The final and fourth question reviewed is whether researchers can empirically identify unique antecedents, or determinants, of the new construct. There seems to be some evidence that people evaluate the structure using different criteria than the quality of interpersonal treatment. Overall, this review points towards the possibility that both types of justice are distinct (different definitions and operationalizations are possible, additional variance might be explained and antecedents are likely to differ). The authors refrain from any final

conclusions and recommend that a wider variety of research methodologies be employed to improve our insights into the phenomenon of organisational justice, specifically utilizing longitudinal methods and distinguishing clearly between the constructs of interactional and procedural justice.

Other considerations of the separation of these two constructs have supported the distinction between procedural justice and interactional justice. Individuals can and do distinguish between structural and interpersonal elements (e.g., Bies, 2001). Several researchers have found that interactional and procedural justice have different factor loadings (Colquitt, 2001; Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Recent meta-analyses of organisational justice research (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001) argue for a separation of procedural from interactional justice based on the level of correlations among the three types of justice as well as on the different relationships they have with their correlates.

Much less conclusive evidence exists regarding the question whether the two elements of interactional justice, interpersonal treatment and informational justice, should be treated as separate dimensions or not. The meta-analysis by Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, Ng (2001) is the only meta-analysis of organisational justice differentiating between interpersonal and informational elements. Their review of 183 justice studies finds that procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice have different correlates, and measuring the three separately explains incremental variance in fairness perceptions. However, for some outcomes investigated (e.g., trust), interpersonal and informational justice data could not be included in the analysis, due to a lack of empirical studies including these dimensions and treating them separately. Overall, the meta-analysis by Colquitt and colleagues concludes that we should distinguish four types of justice. Further support for the existence of four distinct justice dimensions is given in Colquitt's study (2001), which developed and validated measures for the four dimensions of fairness. A four-factor model fit the data better than 1,2 or 3 factor models.

While these results appear to support a separation of four dimensions of organisational justice, it should be pointed out that the meta-analytical results are based on a pool of organisational justice studies that is not equally rich for all four types of organisational justice. Due to lack of research, the meta-analyses had to rely on far smaller numbers of studies for informational and interpersonal justice than for procedural or distributive justice. While the four-dimensional structure appears to be generally best supported, further research separating out interpersonal and informational justice is necessary to provide further evidence for the dimensionality of justice.

The disagreement on whether procedural justice includes interactional dimensions, and whether these interactional aspects should be split up further into interpersonal and informational elements has led to different operationalizations of Organizational Justice, which has significantly obscured the comparability of empirical studies. As a result of the differences in conceptualisations, definitions, operationalisations, and instrumentation, consumers of organisational justice research need to carefully scrutinize the definition of procedural justice in any particular study before interpreting its results.

The debate has been further complicated by poor measurement (Colquitt, 2001). organisational justice research often fails to provide support for construct validity of the instruments used (Greenberg, 1990b). More rigorously developed and validated instruments have started to be published (Colquitt, 2001) and used recently. More clarity on the question of dimensionality of organisational justice can only be gained through rigorous research employing well-validated measures and differentiating clearly between the different justice dimensions.

In this research, distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice are treated as separate constructs. This treatment is supported by most recent findings on correlates and incremental variance of the four types (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). From a practitioner's point of view it appears to be intuitively useful to split out the four dimensions identified above because the practical implications of the different justice dimensions differ. Managerial responses to employee perceptions of unfairness can then be more deliberately assessed and addressed, e.g., by changing formal systems, informational policies, interpersonal interactions, or by providing more effective social accounts.

2.4.6 Correlation, interaction and substitution effects between the four types of justice

The different types of justice tend to be correlated (Colquitt et al., 2001). Recently Cropanzano and Ambrose have presented a monistic view of organisational justice by combining procedural and distributive categories of organisational justice into one (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001). This perspective is based on the facts that procedural evaluations are often largely based on outcomes, and that the same event could be a process in one context and an outcome in another context. For example, a policy change can be the outcome of a negotiation, but the new policy may be seen to impact procedural fairness from now. Receiving increased and better information may be an outcome in itself, but also form part of informational fairness. When researching the distinctions

between the dimensions of justice, we need to be aware of their interconnections. Despite the commonalities amongst different justice considerations, the distinction between procedural, distributive interpersonal and informational justice dimensions remains useful in general. Colquitt (2001), a central proponent of the four-dimensional model, cautions that some individuals may view justice as one single factor only. This might contribute to the high correlations between procedural and distributive justice that have been found in some studies.

The measured relationship between the dimensions of justice may be inflated in studies that do not clearly separate and validate their instruments (see Colquitt, 2001 for examples of studies that confound dimensions; see Greenberg, 1990b). Further, the correlation between the different dimensions of justice may be due not only to the relatedness of the constructs and to confounding measures, but also to interaction effects between types of justice.

Justice dimensions have been found to interact with each other in various ways. Process elements have been shown to impact perceptions of distributive justice. Van den Bos, Wilke, Lind & Vermunt (1998) found that under fair process conditions even unfavourable outcomes could be perceived as fair. This phenomenon has been termed Fair Process effect (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Van den Bos (2001) gave participants different types of process or outcome information and either positive or negative outcome satisfaction. The results support that (1) when information about outcomes of others is not available; people start using procedural information that is available as a substitute to assess how to react to the outcome. In the conditions in which participants knew the outcome of the other participant, outcome judgments did not differ as a function of whether participants were or were not allowed voice (the process information was not used).

There is also first evidence of the fair process effect in corporate decision making (Lind, Kulik, Ambrose, & de Vera Park, 1993). In studies with both corporate and individual litigants, both groups relied heavily on procedural justice judgments in deciding whether or whether not to accept arbitration awards. This result again suggests that positive procedural justice judgments will increase the likelihood of acceptance of an actor's decision.

The opposite phenomenon has also been observed, and was termed fair outcome effect: Some studies have found a small effect of outcomes on process perceptions: People perceived the process as less fair when the outcome was unfavourable and as more fair when the outcome was favourable, as long as no explicit information on procedural

fairness was available (see Cropanzano et al., 2001). Van den Bos (2001) for example used an explicit no-voice (participants know that there could be the possibility of voice) and an implicit no-voice procedure (participants do not know that there is a possibility for voice). Procedure judgments showed strong interaction effects for implicit no-voice. However, other research methods (e.g., field studies) are needed to show that the effects found in the experiments occur in real-world situations.

The above research suggests that the impact of different types of fairness may have to do with the order in which information is received, and the type of information available. When information on one dimension is lacking, other dimensions of fairness may serve as a proxy to estimate fairness. Less or even no interaction effects appear to occur when the information on each of the various dimensions is clear and unambiguous.

However, looking more closely at the effects described above (fair outcome and fair process effects), these are not really interactions between two dimensions or organisational justice, following the definitions adopted previously. In the studies described above, interactions between procedural justice and the *positivity* of outcomes have been demonstrated, much rather than interactions between procedural justice and the *fairness* of outcomes. Additional research may be necessary to investigate whether distributive justice and procedural justice interact also when controlling for the valence of outcomes.

Bies and Shapiro (1987) investigated interactions of explanations (informational justice) and other justice dimensions in lab and field studies and found that people with negative outcomes were more likely to accept a procedure as fair when an explanation was offered, an effect which could be termed a "fair information effect". The meta-review by Shaw, Wild and Colquitt (2003) supports these findings: both explanation provision and explanation adequacy were found to be positively related to procedural and distributive justice perceptions.

Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel & Rupp (2001) propose that there are likely to be more than just two-way interactions: outcome, process, interpersonal and informational elements could mutually impact each other. So far we know close to nothing about possible four way interactions between distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. Extensive research will be needed to investigate these multiple paths.

2.5 Other variables expected to impact fairness perceptions

In previous sections, a number of aspects of exchange relationships have been identified as important determinants of fairness perceptions: notably the distribution of

outcomes (Adams, 1965), organisational practices such as procedures or opportunity for voice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), as well as the quality of personal treatment, and explanations (Shapiro, 1991). A number of additional influences on justice perceptions have been hypothesized and investigated. These additional variables may influence fairness perceptions directly, or moderate or mediate other antecedents of fairness perceptions. Below some of these additional variables are discussed.

2.5.1 Previous experiences and previous justice judgments

Within any exchange relationship, fairness evaluations are made at multiple times, and previous evaluations may have an effect on later evaluations. Even fairness experiences outside of the context of the focal fairness decision may have an impact on fairness perceptions.

Up to now there has been little research on the role of past experiences, and the findings we have so far appear potentially contrary. In the following, I will briefly introduce and consider two separate streams of relevant research.

2.5.1.1 Anticipatory Injustice and Persistent Injustice Effect

Perceived injustice might be a result of expected injustice. Justice perceptions may be in part determined already before an event or treatment (whether fair or unfair) occurs. Those who "anticipate injustice are more likely than those who don't to see injustice." (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999: P. 156). To support this view, they draw on various dynamics such as halo effect or confirmatory bias. Shapiro and Kirkman propose that anticipatory injustice may be a common phenomenon in any situation of change. Or, more generally, "anticipatory activity is likely to characterize members of organizations whose environment is uncertain" (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001, P. 155). The anticipation of unfairness could concern any or all of the dimensions of justice, procedures, outcomes, interpersonal treatment and information.

This thinking is consistent with research on the persistent injustice effect (Davidson & Friedman, 1998), the finding that people who have experienced injustice repeatedly are less likely to accept explanations and are consequently more likely to perceive an act as unjust. Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) found that high levels of anticipatory distributive injustice were associated with higher resistance and less commitment in the context of the introduction of self-managed work teams. Other dimensions of anticipatory injustice (procedural, interpersonal, informational) remain to be investigated. Anticipated injustice is less likely to result in perceived injustice if there is

unambiguous information stating the contrary, i.e. if there is strong disconfirmation of the anticipation (Siegall, 1992), but overall anticipated injustice is expected to increase the likelihood of perceived injustice. The concept is of particular relevance in the context of organisational change (see chapter 4).

2.5.1.2 Contrast effects

A second stream of research investigating the role of past fairness experiences has dealt with a number of procedural and informational justice elements. Brockner, Ackerman and Fairchild found that "Those who have experienced high levels of the procedural elements in the past are likely to believe that high levels of those elements will and should be present in the focal situation." (Brockner, Ackermann, & Fairchild, 2001, P 189). This hypothesis was confirmed in an empirical investigation of organisational layoffs (Brockner et al., 1994). It was found that the more survivors had received advance notification and clear explanations in the past (elements of informational fairness), the more they were affected by the lack of these elements. Survivors' organisational commitment was assessed as a function of their perceptions of these two elements of fairness in the past and in the lay-off situation. In line with previous studies, survivors showed lower commitment when they had received low levels of informational justice, but this relationship was moderated by prior justice perceptions: "The more that the two elements were perceived to have been present in prior situations (which presumably influenced their legitimacy in the current situation), the more likely survivors were to express reduced organizational commitment in response to the perception that the current layoffs were accompanied by little advance notification or inadequate explanations" (Brockner et al., 2001, P 190) . The concept of legitimacy was brought forward as intervening mechanism: having experienced a particular type of fairness element in the past was hypothesized to increase the perceived legitimacy of this element. However, the moderator effects of legitimacy/past experiences were found to be much stronger for low rather than high levels of informational fairness. The reaction to negative discrepancies was much larger than the reaction to positive discrepancies between experienced and expected fairness.

This phenomenon may be understood in the light of temporal comparison theory: If social comparisons are not available, then they may engage in past temporal comparisons (Albert, 1977). People rely on comparisons to the past to know where they stand.

2.5.1.3 An integrative view on past experiences: Assimilation and Contrast Effects

Anticipatory injustice research has investigated how negative anticipations of distributive injustice (which may be resulting from negative past experiences, although this remains to be tested), are resulting in consequent perceived distributive injustice (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). The persistent injustice effect has investigated how injustices experienced in the past in unrelated events are likely to result in less acceptance of social accounts and thus in perceived injustice (Davidson & Friedman, 1998).

This first group of research has indicated that previously established judgments and schemata may cause individuals to interpret and filter information in new situations in such a way as to make them fit into these pre-judgments or schemata. Phenomena such as "confirmatory bias" (Snyder & Swann, 1978), or as the "halo effect" (for reviews see Balzer & Sulsky, 1992) have described similar phenomena. The cases where prior attitudes influenced the retention and learning of new information such as to make the new information congruent with the prior attitudes, have been termed "assimilation effects" in attitude research (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). Unless people have unequivocal, objective evidence to indicate otherwise, they are likely to see what they expect to see. As long as people can ignore contradicting pieces of information, people may thus still not revise their original fairness anticipations. The theory of cognitive dissonance has given a motivational perspective of this phenomenon: people are motivated to reduce dissonance. (Festinger, 1957)

Brockner's research on the other hand found how positive experiences of procedural and informational fairness in the past can lead to more negative perceptions of fairness when the previous elements of procedural or informational fairness are taken away (as opposed to someone who has never experienced them in the first place) (Brockner et al., 1994). In this case, positive procedural justice in the past leads to heightened perceived procedural injustice.

This phenomenon could be termed a "contrast effect". Effects of this type have equally been found in attitude research, where incongruency effects arose when people allocated more attention to inconsistent information than to consistent information.(Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). The reasons for this may have been the desire to integrate such information with their schemas and attitudes, or to refute the information.

The research that has been conducted so far in organisational justice is dealing with negative contrast effects (from positive to negative) for procedural and informational justice, and with negative assimilation effects (from negative to negative) for distributive

justice. It remains to be investigated in how far assimilation effects can also be found for interpersonal, informational, and procedural justice, and in how far, or under what conditions, they can also be positive. Equally, the potential existence of positive contrast effects and contrast effects for distributive and interpersonal justice remain to be investigated. It is not clear whether some dimensions of justice are more likely to carry over into future perceptions than others. This line of research might ultimately detect boundary conditions that will decide whether contrast effects or assimilation effects are more likely to hold. Knowledge on when assimilation or contrast effects hold is of high value for organisational practitioners: Past negative justice experiences of employees may either mean that they are now likely to appreciate any elements of fairness they are given even more, or may on the other hand mean that they are predisposed to develop perceptions of unfair treatment.

2.5.2 Motivational Factors and outcome favourability

Justice judgments may be shaped by the interests and motivation of the individuals making the judgments. Blader (2005) found that high levels of group identification can promote relatively positive perceptions of interpersonal and procedural elements of fairness. These effects were only found when the evaluation was consistent with available procedural information, i.e., if explicit procedural information was available, then the effects were not found. The theoretical explication brought forward is that individuals prefer to perceive procedural fairness for groups with which they strongly identify, as part of their effort to create and maintain positive social identity. A second motivational factor has been tested in Blader's studies (2005) : When outcomes were more favourable and desirable, then procedural justice perceptions were also improved. The desire to regard outcomes as fair and internally caused explains a preference to see procedural fairness in this case, while perceiving procedural unfairness is more desirable if outcomes are to be seen as unfair and/or externally caused.

Also, it has been argued that people are motivated to perceive self-serving, favourable outcomes as distributively fair. Distributive justice may in part be determined by the valence of the outcomes (Greenberg, 1994). Outcome favourability is thus not only a motivational factor impacting procedural justice judgments, but also distributive justice judgments.

These motivational explanations may in part help to understand the interactions between outcomes and procedural justice discussed above. However, people still appear to be distinguishing between outcome favourability and distributive justice in many cases.

Justice perceptions are not solely explained by egoism, and unfairness to one's own advantage often provokes uneasiness (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Outcome negativity has been found to be related to distributive justice significantly stronger than to procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001, P 293).

2.5.3 Characteristics of the perceiver

A further variable to influence justice perceptions may be characteristics of the perceiver.

2.5.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the perceiver

A person's demographic characteristics such as age, gender, or education may impact their justice perceptions. The meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) tested various demographic characteristics and their relation to justice perceptions. While salary was related to procedural justice, and to a lesser degree to distributive justice, the characteristics age, gender, race, education, and tenure of the perceiver were not strongly related to their justice perceptions. The perceiver's sex has been found to be related to their justice perceptions in other studies. Ambrose and Kulik (2001) discuss findings indicating that men weigh instrumental motives higher than women, being more focused on outcomes. Men also seem to prefer equity rules, relative to a female preference for equality rules. The moderating role of demographic characteristics could be context-dependent and differences between male and female fairness perceptions may arise in some circumstances but not in others.

2.5.3.2 Personality

Justice perceptions or reactions to justice perceptions may also be influenced by personality traits such as negative affectivity: Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), found negative affectivity to be similarly related to procedural and to interactional justice. Self-esteem was related to a small degree to procedural justice. Greenberg (1990b) proposes that equity sensitivity may also be a personal characteristic. People could prefer different ratios of equity. However, these differences could also be due to different circumstances that provoked different equity norms. A further characteristic has been termed the "belief in a just world" (Lerner, 1980; 1981). According to Lerner's hypothesis, people need to believe that the world is a place where one generally gets what one deserves (Lerner & Miller, 1978). Individuals may differ in how strongly they hold this belief. In order to hold up this belief in a just world, people like to think that everyone deserves what they get.

Lerner researched reactions to individuals suffering (through no apparent fault of their own). Lerner showed that a high belief in a just world can be related to people derogating innocent victims in some cases (especially when the suffering could not be relieved).

The relative importance of different justice dimensions may also depend on the perceiver's cognitive and moral development. Ambrose and Schminke (Ambrose & Schminke, 2001; Schminke & Ambrose, 1997) used Kohlberg's model of moral development (Kohlberg, 1984) in their investigation of this relationship. According to Kohlberg's model, pre-conventional and conventional levels of cognitive moral development reflect ethical reasoning based on outcomes, whereas the post conventional level reflects reasoning based on rules, principles and procedures. Thus for adults operating at the conventional ethicality level (and according to research, most adults do), focusing on ethics is focusing on outcome ethicality. Distributive fairness is expected to be the most important dimension for these individuals. Employees who reflect post conventional ethical reasoning are expected to focus on the procedural justice rules of ethicality instead. Ambrose and Schminke found initial empirical support for the prediction that individuals high on formalism were more sensitive to procedural, and individuals high on utilitarianism were more sensitive to distributive justice.

While numerous contributions propose that individual differences co-determine justice judgments, we do still not have a clear view on how various people will perceive fairness. This is firstly due to a general lack of research in the area, and secondly also to the fact that the existing research on individual differences in justice perceptions has been "scattershot"(Greenberg & Wiethoff, 2001, P: 278).

2.5.4 Event vs. entity judgments

Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel and Rupp (2001) point out that instrumental concerns and motives may weigh more heavily when looking at entity issues, while a specific event may be judged according to its specific context. – A fair entity might act unfairly in a specific instance and vice versa. For empirical designs this implies that clear and explicit distinctions should be made between the evaluation of entities and of specific events.

2.5.5 Context

The context in which justice decisions are made or in which justice is perceived may impact justice judgments in a number of ways. In the following the aspects culture,

industry, goals pursued, social interaction, situation, and relative power distribution are briefly discussed.

2.5.5.1 Culture

The investigation of justice in different cultural settings has recognised that justice norms differ, and that even the importance of the concept of justice itself differs between cultures (Greenberg, 2001b). Previous research has pointed out the different principles underlying employment, and how cultures differ along dimension such as power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-or-short-term orientation (see for example Hofstede, 1993). McFarlin, and Sweeney (2001) have investigated the role of these dimensions in the context of procedural justice in performance evaluation. They found that the degree of collectivism vs. individualism as well as the degree of formality will strongly impact the preferred evaluation style in different cultures – more feminine cultures tended to have informal performance evaluations, masculine cultures formal procedures. In low power-distance cultures, a high degree of input was given, while high power distance cultures may be more comfortable with an autocratic evaluation. Some cultures prefer explicit feedback, others only very subtle, nonverbal feedback. Thus is may depend on the cultural context, which procedures and types of interaction are perceived as fair in performance evaluations.

Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) stress the role of national culture for reward-allocation preferences. Some collectivistic societies seem to prefer equal allocations, and individualistic societies favour equity. However, in a society there may be more immediate situational demands depending on context and pursued goal rather than on cultural orientation: Societies, just like individuals, have goals that are salient at a time. Chen (1995) found that North Americans, despite living in a more individualistic culture, were more likely to make equal allocations of rewards, whereas Chinese, despite their more collectivistic culture, were more likely to use the equity rule of allocation. This finding was explained by the goals that were salient in those societies: American organisations were trying to become more humanistic, while the Chinese were striving for improved profitability.

On a smaller scale, the organisational culture may form an important part of the context in which justice decisions are made. Erdogan (2002) integrates organisational culture into her model of organisational justice perceptions in performance appraisal contexts, and predicts that rater-procedural justice will tend to be higher in constructive

cultures, where individual development is an important concern, compared to passive-defensive or aggressive-defensive cultures.

2.5.5.2 Union membership

The role of the industry context for justice judgments has been investigated by Alexander, Sinclair and Colleagues (1995), who found that unions may place emphasis on different justice rules than management: e.g., collectivism instead of individualism. Also, unions and management may offer completely different causal accounts to employees. Union and company strategies, union and company policies and practices and collective bargaining outcomes are expected to impact justice perceptions. Justice norms may thus vary with unionisation and the visibility of unions.

2.5.5.3 The situation

Justice perceptions may not only differ between situational contexts, but it is even questionable whether justice matters in all situations. Likely triggers for justice considerations are negative outcomes, change, or scarcity of resources (Greenberg, 2001b). Typically there is a bias towards publishing studies that show significant effects – thus the published justice literature may not give a good indication of situations where justice matters less.

Similarly, the weight and specific form of elements determining justice are likely to depend on the specific context, e.g., the need for voice or for recursion mechanisms or for information may be more heightened in some situations than in others. Lind and Tyler (1988) predict that procedural justice will be more important than distributive justice under contexts of difficult or very significant decisions and further posit that context will also codetermine the relative importance of principles or rules within each dimension of justice.Tyler (1988) conducted empirical studies of citizen experiences with the police and in court settings. The meaning of procedural justice varied according to the nature of the situation, not the characteristics of the person. There was no universal fair process schema valid for all situations.

2.5.5.4 Relative power distribution

Perceptions of justice and predominant justice norms may be co-determined by the distribution of power (Homans, 1976, Marx, 1875, Walster & Walster, 1975). Leventhal posits that when influential members are dissatisfied with distributions, then the awareness of procedures will be heightened (Leventhal et al., 1980). In effect this would

mean that powerful members determine which justice dimensions are more salient in an organisation. Greenberg and Cohen (1982) propose that it may also depend on the relative power of organisational members, to which extent actual allocations or reallocations in a given situation are consistent with any justice norm. Why the principles of justice that support the powerful are endorsed by the less powerful remains to be investigated (Cohen & Greenberg, 1982). In order to better investigate this type of question, organisational justice research may need to extend beyond its typical disciplinary boundaries and borrow increasingly from fields like sociology.

2.5.6 Concluding remark on the stability of fairness antecedents across contexts and cultures

Many additional variables remain to be investigated in relation to organisational justice. Yet findings so far suggest that the perception of organisational justice is at least to some degree stable and transferable across individuals and contexts. The evidence that we have from different cultures and contexts, suggests that weights of the dimensions and antecedents of justice are likely to differ. But the same general determinants of fairness have been shown to be transferable between cultures and context (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

2.6 The consequences of perceived (un-) fairness

Numerous research has investigated the consequences of perceived justice or injustice. The findings repeatedly indicate a significant impact of organisational justice on behavioural, attitudinal and organisational outcomes. In the following the main findings of outcome research in organisational justice, as well as conceptual and theoretical attempts to explain the relative impact of different justice dimensions on various outcomes will be briefly reviewed.

Some of the most widely researched outcomes of organisational justice perceptions have been outcome satisfaction (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993), job satisfaction (e.g., Masterson et al., 2000; Singer, 1993), organisational commitment (e.g., Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993), trust (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994), evaluation of authority (Lind & Tyler, 1988), organisational citizenship behaviours (Masterson et al., 2000), negative reactions (Greenberg, 1994) and performance (Greenberg, 1988a). Studies have also investigated other outcomes like for example

likelihood of legal action (Bies & Tyler, 1993), co-operation (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993), or experienced stress (Zohar, 1995), to name but a few.

The large body of research investigating outcomes of organisational justices relies mostly on cross-sectional correlational analysis. While the overwhelming evidence points towards the existence of a relationship between fairness perceptions and attitudinal, behavioural, and organisational outcomes, there is little evidence allowing causal conclusions: are perceptions of justice the cause or an outcome of attitudes? However, a number of quasi-experiments (e.g., Greenberg, 1994; Greenberg, 2005), scenario studies and experiments (e.g., De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2002) and longitudinal studies (e.g., Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005) support the notion that fairness perceptions lead to the hypothesized outcomes.

While the interest in organisational, behavioural and attitudinal outcomes of different dimensions of organisational justice has been strong and growing, especially since the 1980s, most studies have investigated only one or two justice dimensions, in combination with few outcomes (for a review see Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). While this led to increased confidence in the power of organisational justice to explain attitudinal and behavioural outcomes under various circumstances, this practice has not allowed to make clear statements about the relative impact of the different dimensions on different types of outcomes.

There is general agreement that fairness perceptions have an impact on attitudinal, behavioural and organisational outcomes, but there is much less clarity about which dimensions of fairness impact which types of outcomes, and the relative strength with which different dimensions of fairness may impact personal and organisational outcomes.

Different models have been brought forward to hypothesize and explain the relationship between different dimensions of organisational justice and various outcomes. These models had relied mainly on individual studies and anecdotal support - but the meta-reviews by Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng (2001) and by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) have made a significant contribution to combining and condensing previous findings. While Colquitt and colleagues investigated all four types of justice separately, Cohen-Charash and Spector combined informational and interpersonal elements into one dimension (interactional justice). However, both meta-reviews have pointed out the shortfall of justice research in interpersonal and informational elements. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) investigated 101 studies of distributive justice, 161 for procedural justice and 26 for interactional justice. In Colquitt's meta-review of 183 empirical studies,

interpersonal and informational justice were separated from other dimension in only 16 and 31 studies, respectively. These numbers show the much larger empirical basis for claims about distributive and procedural justice compared to interpersonal and informational justice. While claims about interpersonal and informational justice lack empirical support, in procedural justice research the comparability of empirical evidence is problematic. The operationalization of procedural justice has relied on very different criteria, including for example single-item measures, Leventhal's criteria, and combinations of procedural, informational and interpersonal elements. This has resulted in limited comparability and insufficient clarity about the relative impact of the different dimensions (see Colquitt, 2001).

2.6.1 Models explaining the relationship between organisational justice dimensions and behavioural and attitudinal reactions, and evidence

The next sections review models explaining the relationship between the different organisational justice dimensions and various outcomes, and consider the evidence supporting these models.

2.6.1.1 Distributive dominance

Leventhal argued that distributive justice is generally more salient and likely to be more influential in determining overall fairness judgments (Leventhal, 1980). The meta-analysis conducted by Colquitt and colleagues found little support for this general claim (Colquitt et al., 2001). It was supported only for outcome satisfaction and withdrawal, not for any of the other nine considered outcome variables.

2.6.1.2 The two-factor-model

The two-factor model proposes different effects of procedural vs. distributive justice (Greenberg, 1990b; Lind & Tyler, 1988). This model holds that distributive justice is likely to exert greater influence on more specific, person-referenced outcomes (e.g., pay-satisfaction), while procedural justice is more likely to influence the general evaluation of systems and authorities, such as organisational commitment and evaluation of supervisor (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). The meta-review by Colquitt and colleagues (Colquitt et al., 2001) found support for the two-factor model only for person-referenced and system referenced attitudes such as outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, organisational

commitment, evaluation of authority (system-referenced). The model was not supported for OCBs, withdrawal, and negative reactions.

2.6.1.3 Agent-system model

The Agent-system model distinguishes between different outcome effects of interactional vs. procedural justice (Bies & Moag, 1986). The model reasons that there are really two types of exchange relationships in work contexts: Exchange with the immediate supervisor and exchange with the organisation. Interactional justice is expected to predict reactions to decision-making agents (e.g., supervisor rating, or OCBs directed at supervisor), whereas procedural justice was used to decide how to react to decision-making systems (e.g., OCB directed at organisation, and organisational commitment). Empirical support of this view has been found for example by Cropanzano and Prehar (1999), and by Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Taylor (2000), who found that procedural justice affected other variables by altering perceived organisational support, while interactional justice affected other variables by altering leader-member exchange perceptions.

The meta-analysis by Colquitt and colleagues (2001) found mixed evidence: The predictions of the agent-system model were supported for some outcomes (notably evaluation of authority, OCBs, job satisfaction), and refuted for other outcomes (e.g. trust). Colquitt and colleagues point out that the agent-system model seems to underestimate the effects of interpersonal and informational justice for behaviour: Interpersonal and informational justice were strong predictor of OCBs, withdrawal and negative reactions.

2.6.1.4 The interaction models

While the models discussed above predict differential main effects of the different types of justice on outcomes, various interaction effects have also been proposed. However, as with the research describing substitution effects between procedural and distributive elements, most research investigating interaction effects has not clearly distinguished between outcome positivity and outcome fairness (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). Although Outcome Valence and Distributive Justice have been found to correlate, they are not the same (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Brockner and Wiesenfeld reviewed results from 45 independent samples and found strong evidence for interaction effects. Examples of interactions are that procedural justice appears to be more strongly related to work attitudes when outcomes are low than when they are high. Also, outcomes are more strongly related to work attitudes when procedures are unfair than when procedures are fair (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). In

these studies, procedural justice was operationalised for example as process control, advanced notice, interactional justice, or overall fairness of decision-making process. It included thus elements of procedural, interactional and informational justice.

Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) propose that three- or four-dimensional justice model would suggest additional possible interactions. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) have investigated some of the possible three-way interactions between interactional, procedural, and distributive justice perceptions and their retaliatory behaviours in a field study. Retaliation was higher when employees had low justice perceptions of all three dimensions. The effect was reduced when either procedural or interactional justice was perceived to be high. Skarlicki and Folger termed this a "substitutable effect" between procedural fairness and interactional fairness: either of the two seemed sufficient to mitigate negative effects of distributive injustice perceptions.

However, in a study of the effects of the three types of justice on attitudinal responses, Bobocel and Holmvall (1999a) found that procedural and interactional justice need be present simultaneously in order to offset distribute injustice effects. Cropanzano and colleagues (Cropanzano et al., 2001) explain this difference in the distinct response dimensions (behavioural vs. attitudinal) and conclude that already one of the two (either procedural or interactional justice) may be sufficient to reduce retaliatory behaviours resulting from perceived distributive injustice as people are in general motivated to avoid negative behaviours, while both need be present to mitigate the effects on attitudes. Identifying the differences in interaction effects in the context of attitudes and behaviours requires further research. Most fundamentally, for all the above effects we do not know if the role of "distributive justice" is really due to the fairness of outcomes, or to the valence of outcomes, as extant research has generally failed to fully distinguish between these two. Further studies separating out outcome valence from distributive justice are needed to clarify this issue.

2.6.1.5 Conclusion on models

Overall the evidence on the relative impact of the four justice dimensions, and the interaction effects between the different dimensions of justice and behavioural and attitudinal reactions, is non-conclusive, and in particular conclusions are hindered by the lack of studies separating out the four dimensions of justice, and the common omission of clear differentiation between outcome positivity and relevant fairness perceptions.

Lowe and Vodanovich (1995) found that the relative importance and impact of the various dimensions of justice might depend on when we measure. They claim that perceptions of outcomes are most strongly influenced by distributive justice immediately after the occurrence of injustice, but the longer-term perspective was more based on procedures. Further research to investigate possible changes in these dimensions over time is needed (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Lack of empirical evidence has made it difficult to develop appropriate theories regarding the relative impact of and the interactions between the four dimensions of fairness. Further, it is not clear yet how outcomes can be meaningfully grouped to make generalizations of the impact of the different justice dimensions on different types of outcomes, e.g., personal vs. organisational, attitudes vs. behaviours. The two-factor model for example seemed to hold for attitudes, but not for behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001). It would also be interesting to find out more about organisationally "positive" vs. "negative" reactions, e.g. commitment and helping behaviours vs. withdrawal and sabotage. There might again be different interactions for different categories of outcomes.

2.6.2 Other variables impacting the link between Organisational justice and Reactions

To a large extent, the variables impacting justice perceptions, discussed in section 2.5 could also modify the justice-outcome link (i.e., demographics, situation, context). Just as the research on other variables impacting justice perceptions, the evidence on moderators between justice perceptions and reactions currently lacks a coherent and comprehensive empirical grounding. Some prominent examples are presented here. Brockner and Adsit (1986) found gender had an impact on reactions to injustice. In their study, males reacted more strongly than females to distributive injustice. A further determinant of reactions to justice perceptions could be personality traits – either directly or as moderators between fairness perceptions and reactions (for a review of the evidence, see Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001). At the team level, the climate level climate level (average procedural justice perceptions in team) was found to be related to both team performance and team absenteeism in a study by Colquitt, Noe and Jackson (2002). The effects of climate level were moderated by climate strength (within-group variance), so that the relationships were more beneficial in stronger climates. Culture may be another determinant of how people react to fairness perceptions. Blader, Chang and Tyler (2001) found that although procedural injustice prompted retaliation in both US and Taiwan, the

Taiwanese were less likely to retaliate. Americans are more likely to take action when interpersonal expectations are violated.

While a number of contextual and personal variables appear to play a role in determining to which attitudinal and behavioural reactions justice perceptions lead, at the moment our knowledge on this issue is far from comprehensive. In the following I will focus on the variables "valence or positivity of outcomes", and the "importance assigned to the focal situation or decision" as two additional variables and potential moderators of particular relevance: In general, social exchange theories have shown that people react more positively to outcomes that are perceived as beneficial than to negative outcomes (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1961). According to these theories, outcomes have an effect on reactions that is independent of the fairness of outcomes.

In organisational justice research, the focus has not been on the main effects of the valence of outcomes, but rather on possible interactions between outcome favourability and various justice elements, and on their combined impact on individual judgments and behaviours: For example, people have been shown to be more influenced by procedural elements when their outcomes are relatively unfavourable (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). This relationship was found for elements of procedural, informational and interpersonal justice (for a review, see Brockner et al., 2001). Explanations brought forward for the moderating influence of outcome positivity were firstly that people's sense making activities are more focused on elements of fairness when outcomes are negative, and secondly that procedural, interpersonal and informational fairness give people information regarding the trustworthiness of the other party.

The effects between the elements of justice investigated and outcome positivity have been found to be multiplicative: When both outcomes and fairness elements are negative, people react particularly badly. But Brockner and colleagues point out that while extant research has focused on the effects of, and moderating influences on, process control and decision control and interactional justice, currently we have little empirical evidence regarding the Leventhal procedural elements of consistency, correctability and accuracy (Brockner et al., 2001). It remains to be investigated whether the same effects hold for other attributes.

A similar pattern may in fact also exist for distributive justice, which has typically been operationalised as equity. Inequity has been the operationalisation of distributive injustice. Inequity can be either positive or negative. Negative inequity is given when perceived outcomes are less than deserved, and positive inequity is perceived when outcomes appear to be more than deserved. In past studies findings on reactions to inequity

have been shown to be asymmetric: people were much more sensitive to negative inequity than to positive inequity (Greenberg, 1982). Although this has not been expressed in interaction terms in the past, it could as well be seen as a moderating influence of outcome positivity on the role of distributive justice: the findings discussed above indicate that distributive justice appears to matter more for people's reactions when outcomes are negative. This remains to be tested in further studies.

Many of the studies investigating interaction effects between outcome positivity and procedural/interpersonal/interactional fairness elements have framed their findings in the light of interaction between distributive and procedural justice factors. However, studies finding interactions have typically operationalised the distributive element as measure of outcome severity (e.g., (e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996), but in other field studies, which have operationalised the distributive element as fairness of outcomes rather than level of outcome, no interactive effects were found for distributive and procedural justice categories (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991a; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995). This indicates that distributive and procedural justice may show mainly independent effects, while valence of outcomes may interact with fairness. However, the various interaction effects remain to be investigated further, particularly across different dimensions of organisational justice and in organisational contexts.

A variable that may have an effect similar to outcome valence is the importance of these outcomes for the individual. Reactions to perceived (in)justice may not only vary according to the positivity of the outcome that is concerned, but also according to how important this outcome actually is for the person. Equally, the importance of the interaction or the situation may determine how people react to interpersonally or informationally (un)just treatment in the particular interaction or situation. Past research has mostly failed to take this dimension into account. An exception is a study of reactions to downsizing by Paterson and Cary, who considered not only whether the effects of downsizing where positive or negative, but who also created a composite score by multiplying the valence of the effect with the degree to which people felt affected by it (Paterson & Cary, 2002). However, Paterson and Cary did not test for interactions between this composite score and justice perceptions.

Future justice research may achieve improved conceptual clarity by controlling for effects of outcome positivity and the degree to which individuals are affected by outcomes, as well as for interactions of these terms with justice judgments.

2.6.3 Critical outlook on research on reactions to organisational justice

Studies on undesirable behaviour or deviance at the workplace have often focused on just one very specific type of deviant behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2003). For example, there may be evidence for the impact of procedural justice on theft (Greenberg, 1990), but this does not allow conclusions about other types of deviance (e.g. slowdown, sabotage). Looking at broader categorizations of behaviour (e.g. withdrawal behaviours, or resistance), may improve the generalizability of findings. Past research has focused on plant floor behaviours, while today's practitioners may need more insight into white-collar deviance (e.g., incivility, sexual harassment, cyber loafing). Another problem with outcome research is that pre-specified forms of expressing reaction to injustice are built into most research, while there is a wide range of possible reactions. Given the current state of research we are not yet able to predict reactions to injustice (Greenberg, 2001b). Employee relevant outcomes such as employee stress, anxiety etc. could complement previous research, which focused mainly on outcomes relevant to management. (For some initial research addressing this see for example Greenberg, 2005; Zohar, 1995).

Important differences between the relative impact of interpersonal, informational and procedural justice on different outcomes cannot be discovered if the three constructs are merged in research, as has been the case in most previous studies. The lack of differentiation between outcome positivity and fairness of outcomes has further clouded findings. Most research has been taking a short-term perspective, collecting data in a snapshot fashion. The time scale importance is largely unexplored. We have some indication that the outcomes of organisational justice may differ with the timeframe employed in the investigation. Extant empirical evidence is contradictory, with Lowe and Vodanovich (1995) reporting that perceptions of outcomes are most strongly influenced by distributive justice immediately after the occurrence of injustice, but with longer-term perceptions more based on procedures, while research by Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003) presents contradicting evidence. Further research on this matter is needed. (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). This issue will be discussed in more detail in chapter 4.

2.7 Theories of Organisational Justice

The two main questions that general theories of organisational justice have tried to answer are (1) why fairness matters to people and (2) how fairness judgments are made. Both questions are important for our understanding of organisational fairness, and they

may be interrelated: the motivation for taking justice into account may impact how justice judgments are made. These two types of theory have been termed "process theories" and "content theories" (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel and Rupp 2001), and some examples of each group will be briefly introduced in the following.

2.7.1 Content theories: why people make fairness judgments:

Content theories try to explain why people make fairness judgments, and instrumental, relational and moral explanations have been brought forward:

2.7.1.1 Instrumental model:

The instrumental model was developed through research on dispute solving with third-party decision makers. Thibaut and Walker (1975) found that high process control increased perceived fairness even in the absence of decision control. They explained this phenomenon arguing that people are willing to forgo unfavourable short-term outcomes because fair procedures promise more beneficial outcomes in the long run. According to the instrumental model, individuals are concerned about fairness because it is a control mechanism to ensure predictability and favourability of their (long-term) outcomes (Tyler, 1987).

2.7.1.2 Relational model:

An alternative explanation has been given by Lind and Tyler (1988). Their group-value model, later named relational model, postulates that individuals care about fairness because fair treatment indicates status and worth within a group. Fairness is of importance because it conveys self-worth and identity within a valued group. According to this model, a procedure is seen as unfair if it indicates a low status or a negative relationship with authority figures (Tyler & Lind, 1992). In support of this view, research has shown that unbiased and honest decision-making procedures, as well as trustworthiness and polite and respectful treatment, are linked to increased pride in group membership (Tyler, Degoey, & Smith, 1996). However, this theory has been developed originally to address procedural and interactional dimensions of fairness only.

2.7.1.3 Moral virtues model

The previous models do not explain why people are concerned with justice even when there is no direct economic benefit and only strangers are involved. Folger (1998) reasoned that there must be yet another reason why people care about justice: he argues that people can see virtue as a value in and by itself, as an expression of human dignity. In

order to test this assumption, Folger (2001) conducted experiments with students, where they could punish interactionally unjust managers (the manager would receive $0) or not punish them (the manager would receive $6). If they decided to punish, they would only receive $5 themselves, otherwise $6. The chosen option to punish was not self-serving, did not prevent any future incidences, and was not publicly known (no recognition). A substantial proportion chose the non-self-serving option. Fairness may thus not only correspond to instrumental and relational concerns, but may be a value upheld by people in its own right. Further tests in field settings and maybe also with outcomes of more import to participants remain to be conducted to validate this theory in organisational contexts.

2.7.1.4 Integrated models

Folger expanded on his moral virtues model, sketching a "deontic theory of fairness" (Folger, 2001). This theory acknowledges multiple interests. The presence of selfish motives does not preclude concerns for others at the same time. Multiple interests mean that one of them cannot hold absolute sway. All injustice experiences constitute negative transgression experiences, and involve some type of pain, which is held to apply equally to ourselves and even to complete strangers.

Another attempt to integrate the three different types of content theories has been made by Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel and Rupp (2001). The three motives could be fulfilling different psychological needs: control (instrumental), belonging (relational), self-esteem (relational), and meaningful existence (virtue). It seems likely that any need can be affected by a threat to any other, and thus effects could be compounded.

The three motives are both present from a reactive perspective (being subject to decision making or just/unjust treatment) and from a proactive perspective (when making or enacting decisions). Greenberg (2001a) ties the three previous justice motives together by illustrating how they could all serve self-interest as an underlying motive. Instrumental, relational and deontic concerns about justice could express different self-interests: interest in economic outcomes, in interpersonal outcomes, and the interest in protecting one's self-images or in avoiding feelings of guilt. Different content theories might be appropriate for different people: justice may be valued for different reasons. The individual reason for valuing justice is in turn likely to influence individual fairness perceptions and which fairness dimensions are considered important (Schminke & Ambrose, 1997).

2.7.2 Process Theories – how people make fairness judgments

The second major group of justice theory deals with how people make fairness judgments. Cropanzano and colleagues have classified process theories on a controlled-

automatic continuum (Cropanzano et al., 2001). When a careful evaluation of all information leads to a deliberate fairness judgment, the process is said to be controlled, while a quick judgment without deliberate or conscious attention that relies on readily available information is labelled automatic processing.

Colquitt and Greenberg note that "having theories of distributive justice, such as equity theory, and theories of procedural justice, such as the relational model, causes unnecessary segmentation of the literature." (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2001, P:238). Some of the more recent theories can explain the effects of all four types of justice. In the sections below the focus will lie on theories that are applicable to all four dimensions of justice – distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational.

2.7.2.1 Some "controlled" process theories

On the controlled side of the continuum lies a group of theories that proposes careful consideration of inputs and outputs when forming justice perceptions. The process theories that were developed in the early stages of organisational justice theorizing, such as classic equity theory (Adams 1965), were developed for the then-present conceptualisation of organisational justice, i.e., distributive justice only. As its name suggests, this theory considers only the distribution principle of equity to the exclusion of alternative principles such as equality or need. The theory describes a careful evaluation of referent outcomes, and thus lies on the controlled side of the continuum of process theories. Equity theory tried to explain how receivers in distribution situations judge the fairness of their outcomes. Justice perceptions were a consequence of conditions and experiences. This view on reactions to distributive fairness or unfairness (reactive view) has been complemented by a pro-active view taken by Leventhal (Leventhal, 1976a; Leventhal et al., 1980), where justice is seen as a motive for behaviour, from the viewpoint of making a distribution decision. A further significant difference is the fact that Leventhal's theory takes the existence of different alternative distribution principles (need, equality) into account.

A more recent development by Greenberg and Wiethoff (2001) relates pro-active justice considerations in decision making with re-active justice judgments of the receiver. The resulting cyclical model could be applied to different dimensions of fair treatment (distributive, procedural, interpersonal). The six steps outlined in this model describe the processes by which justice judgments and efforts to promote justice are made in organisations. The model departs from the occurrence of an event that demands a decision. The first step in the model is assessment. The inputs for this assessment are context cues,

information cues, and individual differences. The individual makes a judgment of event fairness. Once this judgment is made, then in a second step the individual reacts, taking into account eventual history of unjust treatment, the form of injustice, use of justifications, opportunities for expression etc. This reaction or response will lead to response feedback: the manager or decision maker recognises the employee behaviour if justice related attributions were triggered (e.g., if the behaviour is unusual). The fourth step now depends on whether the manager or decision maker wants to be fair or not. This step is entitled creation, it is the proactive creation of justice perceptions, and it could include compensation, justification or impression management, leading to a judgment of impression fairness. Having experienced the step of creation and proactively having dealt with justice issues, the manager may now incorporate justice considerations into further related aspects, enacting justice in both procedures and policies (enactment, step five). In a final step, the event feedback step, justice may be incorporated in daily company routine and policies (step six).

In practice the steps might not occur exactly in the order proposed, and the process is likely to be complicated by numerous additional factors. However, the model by Greenberg and Wiethoff presents a first attempt to bridge the gap between proactive and reactive organisational justice theory and research and to integrate a longer temporal perspective into justice theory. Interestingly, this model proposes that previous perceptions of justice act as a moderator of the link between fairness perceptions in the focal situation and reactions to the fairness in the focal situation. Without empirical evidence for this view so far, the possibility remains to be investigated as an alternative or even additional effect to the contrast and assimilation effects of previous experiences discussed under (2.5.1.3).

2.7.2.2 Fairness Heuristics

Fairness heuristics theory proposes a different route to making fairness assessments: This theory describes how justice judgments may be made quickly and automatically via cognitive shortcuts. Fairness heuristics theory as a whole could be said to be encompassing also some elements of content theory: it deals not only with the questions how fairness judgements are formed and how they are used, but also asks why and when fairness judgments are formed (Van den Bos, Lind and Wilke 2001).

Fairness heuristics theory departs from the from "[t]he fundamental social dilemma" (Lind, 2001, P 61): By identifying with and contributing to a social group, people can improve their chances of achieving goals; improve their self-worth and social meaning. But sacrifices for a group and identification with a group can limit freedom of

action and one becomes vulnerable to rejection and exploitation. The decision whether to cooperate is thus an important and consequential one. Fairness heuristics theory assumes that people use cognitive shortcuts to have justice judgments available to make behaviour decisions quickly when needed, in order to be able to avail of group advantages and avoid exploitation. General justice heuristics help us to make sense of justice related information in our relationships and exchanges, and thus facilitate deciding quickly if we want to cooperate or not.

Once the general fairness judgment that can serve as a shortcut for decision making, the fairness heuristic, is built, people try to interpret all incoming fairness information in a way as to make it compatible to the heuristic. According to this theory, the fairness heuristics change only when there are either 1) signs of changing relationship, or 2) unexpected or un-reconcilable treatment (Lind, 2001). Fairness heuristics theory stresses the role of information availability. It is assumed that when the most relevant information is not available, people use other information to assess what is fair and how to react to the situation, the heuristic substitutability principle (Van den Bos, 2001). To understand what people judge to be fair we have to assess to what information they are reacting. Several empirical studies have supported this premise (Van den Bos, 2001). When people have direct, explicit information about an agent's/a party's trustworthiness, they may be less in need of procedural fairness as a heuristic substitute (Van den Bos, Lind and Wilke 2001). Research found strong interaction effects of procedures on outcomes in the conditions where participants did not know whether to trust the agent/party. Fairness heuristics theory helps to explain the fair process and fair outcome effects (see 2.4.1).

Not only the kind of information that becomes available is important, but also in which order they become available (Van den Bos, Lind & Wilke, 2001). The information that comes first has been shown to exert a stronger influence on judgments than information that comes second (Primacy effect). Quickly formed fairness judgments can be changed by information received later on, but not as easily as is the case for early information. It may thus make a difference if outcome or process information is received first. This finding also stresses the importance of the first communications in organisational change. In many organisational changes information about outcomes becomes available only on a later stage. The information about procedures may thus have a crucial influence on justice judgments early on. Fairness heuristics theory can be applied to all types of organisational justice: depending on which type of fairness information is available, this particular fairness dimension could impact on people's judgments and reactions.

2.7.2.3 Fairness theory

A second theory applicable to all dimensions of organisational justice is fairness theory, which rests on the ideas and findings of counterfactual thinking. Research has shown that in many situations individuals judge their own treatment and outcomes on the basis of how well others are off and how well they themselves could be off. This counterfactual thinking has served as an explanation for perceptions of injustice in many settings. Folger's Referent Cognition Theory (Folger, 1986) was a first approach to integrate the concepts of procedural and distributive justice. It distinguished between so-called "would"- and "should"-counterfactuals. This theory was expanded under the umbrella of "fairness theory", in which Folger and Cropanzano examine now three counterfactuals: "would", "could" and "should" (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001).

Blame is only assigned for unjust behaviour if an unfavourable condition (event or non-event) has occurred ("would" it be better otherwise?), and the harm-doer has acted discretionary ("Could" he or she have acted in a different way?), and the action violated an ethical principle ("should" he or she have acted differently?). This theory also helps to explain reactions to injustice, and how various factors may need to be present simultaneously in order to evoke negative reactions towards a decision maker. However, further empirical support is necessary to strengthen and clarify the predictions from fairness theory. Novel behaviours are likely to induce counterfactual thinking, as it is easy to imagine an alternative for an unexpected or novel action: the obvious alternative is the status quo or the expected. The theory spans across controlled and automatic cognitions: would, could and should judgments can occur either deliberately controlled or automatically.

2.7.2.4 When does which process theory apply?

One of the theories presented above need not be true to the exclusion of others. Which theory explains fairness dynamics best may depend on the situation, on the availability of information, on time pressure, on cognitive resources available and on similar relevant factors. Goldman and Thatcher (2002) argue that depending on the type of cues and information, either an automatic processing route or a more systematic and effortful route can be taken. Cropanzano and colleagues propose that the controlled or systematic processing may be most appropriate when there are time and cognitive resources available (Cropanzano et al., 2001). In other situations these cognitive resources are not available, and people may process automatically instead. This reasoning goes back to Petty's and Cacioppo's Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) which outlines two main

routes to persuasion or attitude change, namely the central route (careful and thoughtful consideration of all information), or the peripheral route (simple cue in persuasion context) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

Both situational factors and individual differences may influence which route an individual takes to make a justice judgment. We still know very little about when which processing route applies, and little research has been conducted to answer this question. Process theory has been relatively separate from content theories (except for fairness heuristics theory), and more integration will help to create a clearer understanding of organisational justice. Also, longer term or cumulative effects of processing justice judgments have so far only been proposed tentatively (e.g., Greenberg & Wiethoff, 2001), and empirical evidence is lacking.

The weighting of justice dimensions implies a value rational choice. There is often no scientific or objective answer to what is right, or which should be the highest goal to strive for. Both reactive and proactive justice questions must ultimately rely on emotional elements, feelings, or will (Kelsen, 2000 (1953)). The above theories so far give little or no consideration to processes of value judgments, emotions or will into the process of judgment making. One argument for not integrating value judgments may be that the value rational choice is not completely individual, but formed in mutual social interactions in groups, it is a societal phenomenon. But this does not preclude a role of individual will or personal value judgments, which could be the focus of future research.

2.7.3 Integrating different theories

How do content and process theories combine to help us understand how people make fairness judgments? Justice motives and concerns (instrumental, relational and deontic concerns) are weighted, according to the individual's "motive primacies" (Folger, 2001). Instrumental, relational and deontic concerns receive weightings that may be influenced by individual differences (e.g., age, sex,) and cultural concerns. This weighting is a starting point for the justice judgment process. Information is likely to be incomplete. According to fairness heuristics theory, the justice information available will be used as a proxy for the missing information. People may use heuristics or shortcuts to arrive at their decision, or they may carefully weight different rationales and arguments to arrive at their conclusion – depending on circumstances, time pressure, importance of the decision, individual propensities, available schemata, etc. The ultimate reaction to the (in-)justice perceived may not only be a result of additive effects between the different dimensions of justice, but the dimensions may be intertwined in different ways (as proposed by fairness

theory) in making a decision about blame or retaliation. Also, additional contextual and personal variables ay have moderating or direct effects on reactions.

2.8 Chapter Summary and Brief Critique of the field of Organisational Justice

The above sections gave a brief overview of the topics, concepts, theories, and empirical evidence in the area of organisational justice. With the exception of a few critical comments it has remained largely descriptive. In the following section I proceed to critically evaluate the field as reviewed above and comment on its development as an area of inquiry. This evaluation considers the research content and context in organisational justice as well as the different methodologies and measures employed. The ethical implications of justice research are also addressed.

2.8.1 Research Content

Organisational justice theory and research has focused on certain questions, to the exclusion of others.

2.8.1.1 Focus of empirical investigations

There have been two main foci of empirical studies on organisational justice in the past: Firstly, research has dealt with the impact of justice perceptions on organisational- and individual level outcomes such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction (Singer, 1993), or likelihood of legal action (Bies & Tyler, 1993). Secondly, studies have examined the antecedents of (in-) justice perceptions - e.g., research on outcome distribution ratios (Adams, 1965), on explanations (Shapiro, 1991) or voice (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). More recently, moderators of both the antecedent-justice link and the justice-outcome link have been somewhat of a growth area in justice research (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Contributions that focused on exploring the nature of organisational justice, have generally concentrated on the dimensions of the concept, and have mostly taken retrospective approaches to investigate the phenomenon (e.g. Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1993). The development of organisational justice and the underlying perceptual processes over time have rarely been the main focus of efforts in empirical research (although some theoretical contributions have been made), with notably the exception of some contributions in cognitive and social psychology, which explored perceptions more closely (e.g., Lind, 2001).

2.8.1.2 Questions that remain to be investigated

The ideological underpinning of the field of organisational justice has been pro-management and not employee-centred (Bies & Tripp, 2002). This orientation transpires for example in the choice of outcomes and situations investigated. Even though there may be a significant overlap in the situations, outcomes and antecedents of justice that are of interest to employees and management, there are no reasons to believe that both groups will have identical interests. Employees may not benefit from increased commitment or work effort, but might benefit for example from decreased anxiety. Other issues from an employee perspective might include the distribution of status and power, work-life balance, personal development, emotions, and need-fulfilment. A big picture view, investigating the role of organisational justice in society, for ethicality, or taking into account power distributions has so far not featured in research contributions. Similarly, alternative justice norms, alternative referents, comparisons to other cultures and other times in history have also not been the focus of mainstream justice research. The commonly used fairness definitions (for distributive, procedural, interpersonal justice) have not been questioned, apart from the argument how many of these aspects should stand-alone or be bundled together into one construct.

Some recent contributions have begun to address these issues, e.g., research focused on emotional reactions (Thornhill & Saunders, 2003), on impacting justice perceptions of employees through managerial discourse (Watson, 2003), on social value orientation in the use of fairness rules (Van Dijk, De Cremer, & Handgraaf, 2004), effects of ethicality (Fernandez-Dols, 2002), or on how justice attributes differ across cultures (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001). These contributions raise many important questions for future justice research.

2.8.2 Research Context

Organisational justice studies were conducted mainly in HR contexts in US (or Western) cultures, often in blue-collar settings, and mostly negative outcomes were considered (Greenberg, 2001b). organisational justice research could be enriched and validated through closer interconnection with specific organisational contexts, as the statement that Greenberg made in 1990 still seems to hold true: "conceptual developments in the field of procedural justice have been applied to studying organizations rather than derived from studying organizations" (Greenberg, 1990b, P. 420). organisational justice concerns are likely to be prevalent in different contexts. Multi-disciplinary work, and work in different cultural contexts could give the field new impetus and open up new

viewpoints. Collecting information in as much detail as possible could help to further our understanding and develop better hypotheses or refine theory.

Justice researchers have found different justice norms in different cultures (Greenberg 2001). The fact that the large majority of justice research has been conducted in the US (Greenberg, 2001c) means that it may not translate well into other cultures (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001). The cross-cultural investigation of organisational justice promises further insights into the phenomenon of organisational justice, as well as into culture and the specific cultures under investigation, and will enable researchers to assess the generalizability of existing theories of justice (Greenberg, 2001b).

2.8.3 Research Methods

The relatively strong reliance on laboratory studies, especially in the earlier history of organisational justice research, has limited the external validity of findings to a certain degree. In their meta-review, Cohen-Charash, Spector (2001) found various significant differences between outcomes of laboratory and field studies. Voice for example influenced distributive and procedural justice in the lab, but only procedural justice in the field. Work performance was strongly related to procedural justice in the field, but not in the lab. On the background of this finding, research in the field may be crucial for securing the authenticity of results and participants' reactions. Numerous organisational justice findings from lab studies remain to be verified in the field.

The second prominent approach in organisational justice research (especially in studies investigating the outcomes of organisational justice) has employed cross-sectional designs. Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel and Rupp (2001) categorize existing fairness research into two paradigms: The "event paradigm" investigates individual reactions to a certain fairness-related event, mainly through experimental research. The other paradigm, entitled "social entity paradigm", typically investigates the reactions of groups, people and organisations in different fairness situations through field studies, using correlational statistical analysis. There are very few studies investigating reactions to fairness longitudinally (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003).

Justice research has not been complemented by qualitative studies in the past. Recently justice scholars have been calling for more research considering qualitative data (Pogson et al., 2003). Qualitative data could validate, challenge or explain findings in quantitative studies, as well as provide additional insight and make sure the field does not become separated from the actual experience of organisational justice. Looking at first-order constructs could reduce some of the existing construct ambiguity. Qualitative

oriented and involved research could tackle some of the research questions that have not been asked so far, e.g., uncover the way that power operates to construct justice norms and ideologies.

The disciplinary background of organisational justice researchers is likely to have contributed to the focus on quantitative and quasi-experimental methods to the exclusion of qualitative and emic research. Social and organisational psychologists are typically trained in quantitative methods and statistical analyses. Drawing on additional disciplines (e.g., sociology, ethics) and deliberately employing different, possibly multiple methodological approaches, may help to enrich justice research.

The typically very short or even snapshot time scale of empirical studies in organisational justice is another issue to be addressed and we know little about how justice perceptions and reactions to justice unfold over time. The lack of longitudinal studies poses severe limitations, as for example changing referent standards cannot be captured (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997) and no conclusions can be drawn about causality in cross-sectional, single-source designs (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001)

2.8.4 Measures of Organisational Justice

Our knowledge about the individual effects and nature of procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice has been limited by the use of collapsed and non-unified measures in empirical research. Many studies have combined all three into one measure, and combinations have included differing elements of procedural fairness (Colquitt, 2001). Many studies have collapsed process control, Leventhal criteria, and interpersonal and informational justice into one single variable, making it impossible to make any conclusions about the relative influence of each element (see Colquitt et al., 2001). Studies measuring all four types of justice promise to yield further insights into how each dimension of justice contributes beyond and interacts with the other dimensions.

Especially for distributive justice measures it is crucial to clearly distinguish between unfavourable and unfair (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), a distinction that has not always been made (see e.g., Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). An unfavourable outcome could be fair/adequate/justified in some circumstances, and there are certainly cases were favourable outcomes do not equal fair outcomes. To a lesser extent, this distinction needs also be considered for other organisational justice dimensions: A procedure that leads to favourable outcomes for someone is not necessarily fair, and positive information is not necessarily adequate etc.

Measuring organisational justice is often assumed to be straightforward but the measures used need to be immediately relevant for the assessment situation: therefore items must be contextualised carefully (Colquitt, 2001). Also, perceptions of justice may be regarding different sources, such as co-worker or supervisor (Greenberg, 2001b). Items measuring organisational justice perceptions may not always concern one unambiguous source.

Further, the agent of perceived actions that evoke justice perceptions (e.g., supervisor or organisation) has often been confounded with the type of justice: typically distributive and procedural justice have been linked to the organisation, while interpersonal and informational justice have been linked to manager or supervisor. However, supervisors may decide about outcomes and establish procedures in some contexts, and the company may decide which information is disclosed at what point, or express respect or sensitivity for its employees through certain gestures, initiatives or procedures. Blader and Tyler (Blader & Tyler, 2000 (August)) conducted a study that separately investigated system originated procedural factors and leader-originating procedural factors. These two types remained distinct in a confirmatory factor analysis. There is thus indication that different sources can be separated, and such separation along with distinctions between sources and types of justice in future studies could contribute to better understanding of the distinct dynamics related to sources and types of justice. However, a distinction may not always be practicable in organisational contexts, as in some contexts source and type of justice will be intrinsically linked.

Justice judgments can be made regarding events (e.g., a particular performance appraisal, a meeting with the supervisor), or entities (e.g., the organisation as a whole, the supervisor). In general people distinguish between long-term behaviour and one-off events, and between evaluations about what someone does and what someone is like in general. These two different subjects to justice judgments are easily confounded in measurement, and clear phrasing of questions and results is vital to distinguish the two (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Thus, overall, measuring organisational justice is not straightforward. But more valid and reliable measurement promises to significantly advance knowledge in organisational justice.

2.8.5 Ethical Implications

Up to now organisational justice has largely been treated as a tool for managers. Aquino, Griffeth, Allen and Hom (1997) for example describe fairness management techniques as a "cost-effective way to deter" turnover. Kulik (1992) explains how

managers could influence justice perceptions of individuals through referent choice, which results in more content employees without having to actually change anything (except for employees' mindsets).

Bies and Tripp accuse justice researchers of not assuming the moral responsibility to ask whether organisational justice findings may in fact be used to perpetuate injustice in the workplace (Bies & Tripp, 1995a; Bies & Tripp, 2001). Up to now, justice researchers appear to content themselves largely by assuming that their findings will serve for the better, without demonstrating or testing this assumption. Paterson, Green and Cary claim that organisational justice findings will "help maintain employee and organisational well-being." (Paterson et al., 2002, P 406), while Greenberg assumes that better training of managers in applying organisational justice frameworks will achieve increased moral fairness (Greenberg, 2001b). These assumptions however remain to be thoroughly tested in real work settings. It has not been investigated which effects organisational justice research findings have in practice. Does justice research help to promote values and change? Simply communicating fairness research findings to managers may not actually lead to increased fairness for employees.

Lerner for example has shown that a strong justice motive, in combination with low power, can encourage people to restore justice by blaming innocent victims (Lerner, 1980, 1981). According to Lerner's hypothesis, people need to believe that the world is a place where one generally gets what one deserves (Lerner & Miller, 1978). When others do not receive what they deserve, the own "personal contract" seems in danger. Therefore they like to think that people deserve what they get. In order to guard their personal impression of justice, people may actually increase injustice by blaming innocent victims. This example shows how justice motives do not necessarily lead to increased justice in a moral sense.

A phenomenon related closely to the belief in the just world is the so-termed "Churchill effect" (Folger and Skarlicki, 2001). In settings such as recruiting, PA, etc, managers may be forced to deliver bad news or give negative outcomes to "innocent victims". The resulting increased emotional distress has been shown to sometimes result in avoiding contact with that person, and in not showing them the respect or not giving them the explanations or apologies they would deserve. Thus, insult is added to injustice.

Future research in organisational justice will need to reflect on its role and impact in society. It remains to be seen whether findings from the field of organisational justice are used for window dressing and impression management purposes, or whether they will

benefit all stakeholders involved. Justice researchers could try to take an active role in promoting their findings to be used for the maximum societal benefit.

2.9 Closing Comments

This chapter has given an overview of research and theory in organisational justice. The field of organisational justice has grown at a stunning pace in the last two decades, and fairness perceptions have been shown to be highly relevant in organisational contexts for numerous outcomes. Various paths for future research have been indicated. The experience of organisational change will be the phenomenon to be investigated under an organisational justice lens in this thesis. But before combining change experience and justice perceptions, a separate review of chosen contributions in organisational change is given in the following chapter.

3 Employee Reactions to Planned Organisational Change

3.1 Introduction

Change is pervasive in organisational life, both for the organisation as a whole and for individual organisational members. Employees are recruited and at one point retire, customers are changing, and new competitors appear. Beyond these changes, targeted interventions aim at producing change: Organizations undergo for example programmes to improve their customer services, to change their performance management, or to modernize their IT systems. Change is part of the organisational and managerial reality today (Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003). Burke comments: "To survive, especially in the long term, organizations must change and adapt to their respective environment." (2002: P 1). "Organizations today are playing catch-up, and certainly this will be true even more so in the future" (Burke, 2002: xiii). Yet numerous change initiatives fail to achieve their objectives (Kotter, 1995). According to Maurer (1997), 50% of quality improvement efforts do not deliver the improvements intended. Burke (2002) claims that 75% of mergers and acquisitions fail to deliver their intended objectives. Realising the objectives behind planned organisational change is not trivial. Change is necessary, yet fails easily.

The investigation of change has fascinated researchers for decades now. Change researchers have not found clear answers to the questions of what goes wrong in organisational change, why it goes wrong, and how to prevent or remedy such problems. In change management, "[t]here is an apparent unrelatedness between the best practice and desirable results" (Kanter et al., 1992, P 496). The majority of managers seem to have made up their mind that the main problem in change are people's reactions: "According to a survey of Fortune 500 executive, the primary reason that changes fail in organizations is resistance." (Maurer, 1997, p. 9). Many scholars would agree that the course and fate of change initiatives is ultimately determined by employee responses (Siegal et al., 1996). Change agents need to better understand employee reactions if they want to change organisations more successfully. Yet the recipients of change, the ones who will ultimately enact the change and live with it, in past research often have been "ignored and under regarded" (Kanter et al., 1992, P 460).

In this project the view is taken that firstly, the success of planned change initiatives depends to a very substantial degree on individual reactions, and secondly that these reactions to change are co-determined by experiences and expectations of the individuals involved in the changes. Therefore, in order to more comprehensively understand and successfully manage change, it is of importance to find out how

individuals' experiences and expectations of change are linked to their reactions. This link between experiences and responses to change is the focus of this research project, which employs organisational justice as the framework for the investigation.

This chapter begins with a very brief broad introduction to the phenomenon of organisational change, and presents some chosen contributions from the vast field of theory and research in organisational change. For this project, the individual level experience of change and reactions to change are of particular interest. Therefore this review will narrow down to the individual level very quickly and will focus on descriptive rather than prescriptive contributions.

3.2 Organisational Change

The issue of organisational change has historically received immense interest from researchers and practitioners alike. Questions around change have been approached by various academic disciplines, such as organisational science, psychology, sociology, and by many organisational and managerial practitioners.

3.2.1 Defining Planned Organisational Change

Only few contributions in the area of organisational change offer an explicit definition of "change". One of the exceptions is provided by Goodman: Change is "...to make different. So in the context of change in organizations, the object of the change process -- that is, what is to be made different – could be attitudes, beliefs and behaviours of individuals, interaction patterns of organizations, and so on. Change is the alteration of one state to another. The source, type or level of change is not, and should not be, part of the definition." (Goodman, 1982:2) This general definition states that the one feature that all changes have in common is a difference between two states.

This project is motivated by the managerial challenge to introduce planned changes successfully and to make individuals buy into or support planned changes. The change context of interest is thus planned change. Numerous contributions fail to specify whether they are dealing with planned change or with unplanned change (some examples are Brynjofson, Renshaw, Alstyne 1997; Senge et al., 1999; Van de Ven & Ferry, 1980, Plewis 1985). Even those researchers who specify that planned change is their subject of analysis often lack a definition of what planned change actually means (e.g., Burke, 2002). The lack of definitions may reflect the evasive nature of the phenomenon. Porras and Robertson (1992) define planned change as resulting from a deliberate decision to improve the organisation. The impetus for change also forms part of Levy's definition of

planned change as change that "originates with a decision by the system to deliberately improve its functioning and (typically) to engage an outside resource to help in the processes of making these improvements" (Levy, 1986, P 6).

The original impetus or reason for a change is often difficult to track, and external and internal forces can be highly interlinked, which makes the operationalization of the above definitions problematic. Further, the term "improve" would require specification, definition and operationalization. This research project is concerned with individuals experiencing change projects which have been announced to them and in the original conception of which they have not been involved. The problems of original impetus of the change do thus not appear central to this study, and therefore I decided to avoid them by adopting the following working definition of planned organisational change: planned organisational change refers to change that includes large elements of central planning, and/or central objective setting. Thus it can comprise both changes triggered by environmental requirements as well as changes that are deliberately initiated from inside the organisation. Planned change typically also affects unforeseen elements of the organisation.

3.2.2 Conceptions of Change

Change is complex. The following section presents some of the central thinking and knowledge on change, and briefly introduces some of the core theories and models of change. Insights into various facets of organisational change are introduced here hoping to lay the ground for the consequent examination of individual experiences of change. Virtually anything in and around an organisation could change. Howard (1994) lists the following organisational aspects as subject to change: the external environment, leadership, mission and strategy, structure, task requirements and individual skills/abilities, management practices, work unit climate, motivation, individual and organisational performance, organisational culture, systems (policies and procedures), individual needs and values. Changes in one area are likely to trigger changes in other areas, which makes it difficult to set boundaries in the study of the phenomenon change.

Barnett & Carroll (1995) view the development of change theory on the background of the dichotomy between externally vs. internally caused change. This has been one of the dominant distinctions in the change debate. The new institutionalists (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Scott, 1992) and population ecologists (Aldrich, 1972; Hannan & Freeman, 1989) for example believe that organisations are controlled by their environment and have little levy for self-control. Change would thus be imposed on the

organisation by its environment (see Molinski, 1999). The contrary view is held by strategic choice theorists (e.g., Child, 1972), who assume that organisations can control their own destinies by actively and purposefully harmonising their own internal structures and the demands of the environment. A related distinction is made by Van de Ven & Poole, who distinguish between prescribed modes of change (i.e., change going into a pre-specified direction) and constructive change.

Another distinguishing characteristic of change is its magnitude. Fellenz defines magnitude as "the number of factors that change, and the degree to which they change" (Fellenz, 1994, P 140). Magnitude of change (dramatic versus incremental) has been combined with the dimension of tempo of the change: Porras and Silvers (1991) distinguish between episodic, dramatic change and incremental, evolving change. Weick and Quinn's review examined change contributions with a view to the pace or tempo of change (Weick & Quinn, 1999). Episodic change is contrasted with continuous change. Weick and Quinn argue that these different views of the time patterns of change reflect different observer perspectives: the macro level observer is likely to see inertia interrupted by episodes of revolutionary change. The micro level observer, on the other hand, is likely to so see ongoing small changes (often termed adaptation).

A central choice for any change analysis is the viewpoint and unit of analysis: Organisational changes can be viewed at different levels: the organisation as a whole, the group, or the individual. The understanding of these three levels is complementary, and each is necessary for gaining insights into the "overall puzzle" of organisational change. When planning and implementing change, the three levels need to be coordinated and designed to fit together if overall organisation change is to be achieved (Burke, 2002). For change at an organisational or departmental level to happen, the members of the organisation must go through individual changes, they must "alter their on-the-job behaviour in appropriate ways." (Porras & Robertson, 1992, P 724). The work group (group level) "serves as the context and locus for (a) the interface between the individual and the organization, (b) the primary social relationships and support of the individual employee, whether or not he or she is a manager, and (c) a determination of the employee's sense of organizational reality" (Burke, 2002, P 97). The overall organisation is often the focus of analysis when looking at changes in strategy or bottom line success.

While this project will focus on individual experiences of larger-scale (organisational or departmental) changes, these individual changes will all be set within larger organisational change project, and it is acknowledged that group level dynamics are

also playing an important role both for individual experiences of change and for organisational change outcomes.

3.2.3 An Overview of Organisational Change Theories

Giving a comprehensive review of theories of organisational change would go far beyond the scope of this dissertation. Instead, a high level overview and a few examples are given. This will contribute to an understanding of the context for individual level change described in consequent sections. Most theories on organisational change use either one organisation or a population of organisation as unit of analysis. The review by Porras and Robertson (1987), distinguish "target levels" of process theories, or Van de Ven and Poole (1995) distinguish between individual- or multiple-unit change theories.

Change contributions can also be classified according to their target audience or intended contribution: While some are intended to give advice to practitioners and to answer the question how to best manage change, other contributions explore the nature of the change phenomenon, and deal with the question how change works and what it is. Dunphy (1996) suggests that a comprehensive theory of change should include descriptive, analytical and prescriptive elements: He calls for (1) a basic metaphor of the nature of organisation, (2) an analytical framework to understand the change process (3) an ideal model of organisation specifying directions for change and how to assess change, (4) specifications on when, where and how to intervene and (5) a description of the role of the change agent. However, most existing theory appears to cover only some of these aspects. The complexity of the subject has lead to a high degree of fragmentation and specialization in theory development and research.

Differentiations of theory between prescriptive and descriptive/analytical have been made frequently, with differing names for the two categories, e.g., "change" vs. "changing" (Bennis, 1966), "planned change" vs. "adaptation" (Goodman & Kurke, 1982), and "process" vs. "implementation" (Austin & Bartunek, 2001; Porras & Robertson, 1987). According to the terminology of Porras and Robertson (1987), "change process theory" is the area that academic writing tends to focus on. It is concerned with how change works and what it is. Van de Ven & Poole (1995) distinguish change process theories along two main axes, a distinction followed by Austin and Bartunek (2001): some process theories are based on pre-specified direction of change ("prescribed" mode of change), while others deal with unpredictable, novel change outcomes ("constructive" mode of change). The second axis is unit of change, being either multiple entities or a single entity. However, while these descriptions and analyses of change are useful for

organizing the maze of change theory, they are unlikely to answer the most pressing questions of practitioners who need to plan and implement change. The second type of theory presented, prescriptive theory, tries to address this need. Prescriptive theories will be addressed in the following sections.

Implementation theory focuses on the intervention activity required for effective planned change efforts in an organisation, and deals with planned change only. Porras and Robertson (1987) state that implementation theory is the most developed branch in the area of change theories. They identify three subcategories: general ones, which do not give guidance for change agents regarding specific actions, procedure theories and technique theories (most specific). The purpose of implementation theory is to provide guidance to change agents regarding the activities they should engage in to bring about planned organisational change. Implementation theory provides frameworks for choosing interventions, but until now the body of work in this area does not specify adequate diagnostic models. A further shortcoming is that this area does not provide a systematic understanding of the conditions necessary for change, or of the characteristics imperative for change agents to be effective (Porras & Robertson, 1987).

One of the most widely known approaches to change implementation, and widely spread amongst teleological change theory, are phase models of change. These models describe or prescribe certain phases that organisational change typically goes through or that change should go through in order to be successful. These particular models are given special attention here, not only because they are probably one of the most known areas of change theory, but also because of their usefulness as a tool in structuring and analysing planned organisational changes.

The first phase model of change that came to be famous is the three-stages model by Kurt Lewin (1958). This model was originally developed for the group level of analysis, but has been consequently applied at systems level. The stages are unfreezing (shake up the system), changing or moving, and finally refreezing (to make sure that the change achieved does not drift away). Schein (1987) has expanded on Lewin's model, claiming that the stages can overlap, and providing more detail for each phase.

Two more recent and more extensive examples of models for change implementation are the models by Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990), and by Kotter (1995). Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990) describe "six steps to effective change": 1) mobilize commitment to change through joint diagnosis of a business problems, 2) develop a shared vision of how to organize and manage for competitiveness, 3) foster consensus for the new vision, competence to enact it, and cohesion to move it along, 4) spread

revitalization to all departments without pushing it from the top, 5) institutionalise revitalization through formal policies, systems, and structure, 6) monitor and adjust strategies in response to problems in the revitalization process. Kotter (1995) describes eight steps to transforming an organisation: 1) establishing a sense of urgency; 2) forming a powerful guiding coalition; 3) creating a vision; 4) communicating the vision; 5) empowering others to act on the vision; 6) planning for and creating short-term wins; 7) consolidating improvements and producing still more change; and 8) institutionalising new approaches. Kotter holds that stages cannot be skipped without jeopardizing the change result. Both models stress the necessity of communicating strongly and repeatedly and over a long time, in order to make employees buy into changes. Also, both of these models point out how crucial it is for managers and senior managers to "walk the talk", and to behave in line with the change.

While the simplicity of stage models has certainly contributed to their popularity, especially with practitioners, the models may not always fit the complex reality of organisational change. Pettigrew (1990) points out that "change is multifaceted; involving political, cultural, incremental, environmental, and structural, as well as rational dimensions. Power, chance, opportunism, accident are as influential in shaping outcomes as are design, negotiated agreements and master-plans" (p. 268). He therefore challenges "rational, linear theories of planning and change where actions are seen as ordered and sequenced in order to achieve rationally declared ends and where actors behave mechanistically and altruistically in the pursuit of organisational goals. Instead, the task is to explore the complex, haphazard and often contradictory way that change emerges ..." (p. 268). Stage models of change are oversimplifications of a complex reality, yet they may still prove useful means of reducing complexity and to structuring analyses, research projects or implementation if their limitations are recognized and explicitly taken into account.

Neither process nor implementation theories give much consideration to the role of individual organisational members experiencing and enacting the changes. In the future, change research may be able to achieve greater parsimony by integrating implementation and process theories, and by developing theory that intertwines the individual and the organisational level. In the following, this review will concentrate on literature and research concerning the individual level experience of and reaction to organisational change.

3.3 The individual experiencing Change

The individual employee is an active participant in organisational change, yet few researchers have adopted an employees' perspective (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). While prescriptive advice on strategic planned change and large-scale stage models for implementing change feature in the literature in abundance (for a review see Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; e.g., Beer et al., 1990; Dunphy, 1988; Lewin, 1951), only few contributions have investigated individual experiences of planned change, including cognitive, emotional and behavioural aspects. Yet lasting and real change can only happen if people change their behaviours (Kanter, 1999).

Failures of organisational change are often due to resistance by organisational members (Siegal et al., 1996). Negative reactions to change have been branded a "subversive condition" (Bridges, 1986, P 24), without trying to understand why people react this way. The following sections review some of the phenomena that may help to understand individuals' experience to change: for example, cognitive processes and sense-making, social information processing, and emotions. Some stage-models have organised sense-making and emotional processes of individuals into a temporal order. All of these processes are only introduced briefly at this point, and will be reviewed in more detail in section (3.5), which discusses how the experience of individuals is linked to their reactions.

3.3.1 Cognitive process and sense-making

The cognitive processes of the involved individuals are an element of change, no matter what the scale of change (Bartunek, 1984; Bartunek, 1993; Isabella, 1990). Some research centres around the cognitive changes that take place within the individual members of the organisation during, in reaction to, or as part of organisational change (Bartunek, 1984; Golembiewski, Billingsley, & Yaeger, 1976; Isabella, 1990). Distinctions in the "profoundness" of cognitive change can be made: are basic actions or rules for actions changed? Or, on an individual level, are people's ways of thinking and understanding changed, or do they just get new ideas within old frameworks? Different planned change projects may (explicitly or implicitly) aim at different cognitive changes in organisational members.

It is not very well understood how exactly these cognitive changes come about, but they are not simply the result of managerial direction and information. Employees are not only passively accepting explanations given to them but are actively processing and selecting information. Even if little official information is given, people typically interpret events through reliance on informal sources, observation, and recall (Weick, 1995). Sense-

making activities have been found to be of particular importance in change contexts, as employees try to guess who gains, who loses, and why changes are happening (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). The background that people have - including past experiences, information, and individual cognitive processes - has been shown to co-determine how they interpret a change, and which explanations they generate (McGill, 1995).

3.3.2 Psychological contracts and entitlements

Of particular interest may be the quality and type of relationship the employee has with his or her employer. "Psychological contracts refer to employees' perceptions of what they owe to their employers and what their employers owe to them" ((Robinson, 1996, page 574). These beliefs may or may not be shared by the employer (Rousseau, 1995). The contract can lie on a continuum from transactional to relational terms (Rousseau, 1995). Transactional terms have an economic focus, a narrow scope and often a specific timeframe. Relational contracts are (among others) characterized by economic and emotional focus, inclusion of the whole person, pervasive scope, and an open-ended or indefinite timeframe. The type of contract may determine how flexible employees are to adapt to changes (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). In general, relational contracts are more flexible than transactional contracts, but – especially after a perceived contract violation – the type of contract may change.

A particular aspect of the psychological contract are entitlements, the benefits people believe they deserve under the contract (Heath, Knez, & Camerer, 1993). If the employer does not meet the expectations of entitlements, a breach of contract is perceived. This is of particular relevance in organisational change, as often aspects are included in the change that form part of perceived entitlements.

3.3.3 Social information – grapevine, rumours, reputations in change

Of particular importance for employee understanding of and reactions to change are social accounts (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). Social accounts have been defined as managerial justifications and excuses that explain the firm's actions. Belief in management's social accounts has been shown to be positively related to the legitimacy in the explanation, which in turn was found to be related to employees actively implementing the change (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). But the official communication is not the only information and external influence on people in change. The grapevine or "gossip", as well as reputations, are typically an important source of information in change contexts (Searle & Ball, 2004). Social information processing shapes the explanations people adopt

(Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). The belief and sense making of colleagues is thus an important factor for employees' understanding and experience of change.

3.3.4 Change and Emotions

The experience of individuals during times of change also brings about an evaluative dimension: Individuals perceive change as a gain or as a loss, as positive or as negative. Even changes that are intended to benefit employees often create a sense of confusion and loss (Bridges, 1991). Heath and colleagues (Heath et al., 1993) explain how the psychological process of experiencing change is likely to lead to feelings of loss: People become attached to what they have. Thus, even if an outsider would judge the old status quo to be equivalent to the status after the change, for individuals having experienced the status this is not the case. Their preferences have adapted to what they are used to, and are thus likely to experience a loss in the case of change from one state to an equally valent but different state.

Secondly, typically change involves letting go of some things (loss) and gaining others (gain), but people experience the pain of loss greater than the pleasure of gain – thus if both gain and loss are involved, the feeling of loss is stronger.

Thirdly, people tend to see existing entitlements as greater than they are. This is both due to organisations' stressing positive aspects of entitlements more than negative aspects, and to psychological processes: Employees therefore tend to perceive changes as unfair, as breaches of their psychological contract.

Also, typically losses already occur early on in the change process, particularly psychological losses and uncertainty. Most benefits on the other hand will only become visible later and with the implementation of the change (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999).

3.3.5 Stage models of individual change experience, sense-making and emotional reactions.

Paralleling the stage models for change management, more recently stage models to describe the individual change experience have been developed. These models might be useful for linking individual and organisational change levels over the course of a change initiative. However, as with the change management stage models above, some reservations seem appropriate: Simplifying stage models are not likely to be a suitable description for every individual case. However, as with other psychological phenomena, knowledge about typical trends is valuable as long as the limitations of these generalizations are considered adequately.

Bridges (1986) describes individual experiences of change as a process of "transition", a psychological process that takes time and cannot be rationally managed. He stresses that individuals will first need to "let go of the old situation and (what is more difficult) of the old identity that went with it" (P 25). "A great deal of what we call resistance to change is really difficulty with the first phase of transition." (P 25). Full communication is essential in this phase, as people can easily become overwhelmed by the feeling of deception and disenchantment. Only having let go of the old, can they go through a neutral zone, where they may experience ambiguity, confusion, and a sense of meaninglessness. This phase – though typically not accepted in western mental models of change – is necessary and cannot be skipped. Finally people can make a new beginning, develop new visions, learn new competencies, engage in new relationships etc. Both the vision and the plan have to be spelled out in different forms, in order to address both "thinking types" and " feeling types": People who think in principles and categories need to get the logical reasons for the change, and people who act on the basis of personal values and interpersonal considerations need to get a vision of how everyone will fit in, and what the future will be like. While individuals' may have very different subjective experiences of change, the importance of achieving closure is generally agreed on (Jick, 1990). Yet we know little about how to achieve the closure that is important for the disengagement process.

The reactions of individuals to change have been compared with phases people experience when faced with a terminal illness (Burke, 2002; Jaffe, Scott, & Tobe, 1994), referring to a coping-model by Kubler-Ross (1969): Typically people move from shock and denial to anger, to bargaining and attempts to postpone the inevitable, to depression before they finally accept their fate. Not everyone moves through all these stages, and some people stay in earlier stages. While it remains to be investigated in how far the negative emotions described in this model are experienced in relatively benevolent organisational changes, the comparison certainly raises the likelihood of negative emotions and reactions as an issue that is important and may be absolutely normal in change. The challenge for change managers is to know how to either avoid stages of negative emotions and reactions altogether, or how to help people to get over the stages of shock, denial, anger and depression quickly.

A more comprehensive model has been developed by Isabella (1990), who integrates cognitive, interpretative and evaluative reactions of individuals towards change in a model of 4 stages. In the first stage, termed anticipation, reality is construed mainly through rumours and scattered information. The announcement of the event/change

triggers the next interpretive stage, confirmation. In this stage reality is mainly construed through conventional explanations, and references to past similar events. Through personally being affected by the event, individuals enter the culmination stage. In this stage double exposures (old vs. new) and symbols play an important role in reality construction. Finally, after a long enough passage of time or the occurrence of derivative events, the individual feels the need for personal closure and evaluation. This is the beginning of the aftermath stage, in which evaluation of consequences, strengths, weaknesses, winners and losers of the event/change serve to construct reality. This conceptualisation is not restricted to a specific change management style, but may be applied to a broad range of settings.

The model bears significant implications for the management of change: if change agents wish to influence how employees interpret the change they are experiencing, they need to tailor their actions and communications according to the stage people are in. E.g., in the anticipation stage, dealing with rumours and giving out concrete information may be most crucial. In the confirmation stage managers could try to manage the standards that individuals use as reference. In the culmination stage the role of symbols is heightened, thus symbols could become a central management tool. Finally, in the aftermath stage, favourable overall perspectives may be suggested. Via these interpretations the work of Isabella could be linked and compared to overall change management models. The "external anchors" of the model (change communication, change implementation etc) could serve as fixed points.

Jaffe, Scott and Tobe (1994) stress the emotional reactions in change: "To master organisational change, people must deal with its emotional and its action components. The emotional component is the personal response as people struggle to deal with new realities when they begin to move toward new ways. The action component is moving into relationships and ways of doing things that are different in every way." (p. 161). Jaffe and colleagues stress that fear is a normal reaction in change, and a certain amount of "enabling" fear can be a powerful motivator. However, too much fear or "disabling fear" can paralyse and overwhelm people. The four phases of response to change will be briefly described: The first stage is denial. In this stage people either refuse to believe that something needs to happen – either through ignoring or not responding to information. This phase is an attempt to hold onto the comfortable and well-known status quo. The deepest form of denial is when people believe that they have already mastered the change before even starting it. The next phase is termed Resistance. "Awakening from denial is traumatic" (page 171). People realize they need to let go of the past. In this second phase, people feel anger and depression. They are mourning the loss of the past. The Exploration

phase starts when and if people start to "accept the change and begin to look for ways to meet the challenge" (page 174). People are learning and experimenting with the new ways. When people settled into the new environment, have learned how to work together, etc, then the final stage "Commitment" begins. Jaffe and colleagues give advice for change leaders on how to guide people through the four stages. "Emotionally significant healing activities are needed" (page 159). Jaffe and colleague advise a number of managerial actions, e.g. "bring people together and let them talk" (p. 162). The three general advises for shortening and minimizing the cycle are to respect the emotional struggle, stick to a clear vision, and let people participate. Each phase poses different challenges for management:

- In denial, the change leader needs to "wake people up" (page 168).
- To help people getting beyond resistance, "organizations need to understand first that people need time to express their feelings and understand where they stand in the change". The role of respectful treatment and information is emphasized.
- In the exploration phase, change agents should help to focus and encourage the process.
- In the commitment phase, achievements should be celebrated.

Sense-making research conducted during planned organisational change by Weber and Manning (2001) points towards a possible reconciliation of the models and findings of Jaffe and Isabella: "Sense making is the process of using cognitive schemas to interpret our environment" (Gioia, 1986). People in organisations revise existing schemas in an effort to make sense of changes and resolve anxiety and conflict (p. 229). Weber and Manning let participants from three different organisational hierarchy levels create cause maps and followed up with interviews, collecting both cognitive and emotional data regarding sense making in change. They found pronounced differences between the hierarchical levels that may have been caused by differences in anxiety levels. People with less control and less information may experience higher anxiety.

A stage model of sense making during organisational change was proposed by Jaffe, Scott and Tobe (1994) who proposed the stages of denial, resistance, exploration, and commitment. Their study involved organisation members on all levels. The initial stage of denial may be particularly relevant for employees at lower levels, who may have higher anxiety levels due to less information and less influence. Another stage model (Isabella, 1990) distinguishes anticipation, confirmation, culmination, and aftermath. Her study dealt with managers only. Both models may thus be true for their respective

organisational power groups. However, it remains to be shown if there will be no difference between hierarchical differences when more control and information is given to lower level employees.

The individual level stage models could be combined with stage models prescribing managerial action. Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) have provided an example of this and have plotted managerial stage models over individual stage models. In the resulting overall model, for example the managerial action of creating readiness for change happens parallel to the personal level phase of denial/resistance and anticipation/confirmation, and the managerial phase of moving/adoption is intertwined with the individual exploration/culmination phase. Finally, refreezing/institutionalisation on the managerial level accompanies the individual commitment/aftermath phase.

All of the above stage models of individual experience of change have some aspects in common: Individuals are likely to go through very personal change experiences. It is not just their job description that changes, but their emotions, cognitions, and behaviours as well. Undergoing these changes takes time and can be difficult for the individual. One element that the different stage models and theories for individuals' experience of change agree on is that people are likely to experience negative emotions and confusion/ambiguity at some stage of the change process. We don't know in how far the negative feelings and reactions that have been described necessarily take place in all types of organisational change, and more research in different (and benign) types of change and with different management styles may be necessary to answer this question.

It remains also to be investigated in how far managerial actions and employees' sense-making, emotional reactions and behaviours are really aligned into similar stages. In particular, the impact of different managerial vs. employee pace could be the focus of analysis. The contributions reviewed above give insights into reality construction and emotional reactions, which may ultimately be of high relevance for the course of a change initiative. The above contributions, however, do not focus on explaining or describing behavioural reactions to change. We know little about what actually determines individuals' reactions in change situations at different stages of change.

3.4 Resistance to and support for Change

Change means loss of familiar routines (Levinson, 1976). The reaction to change discussed most frequently in the literature is employee resistance to change. Resistance to change has long been one of the central terms in management textbooks. The term resistance became popular after Lewin borrowed it from physics for his field theory:

resistance was defined as a restraining force maintaining the status quo (Lewin, 1952). Lewin used the term with a view to systems, and only later on it was used to describe a psychological phenomenon (Dent & Galloway Goldberg, 1999a, 1999b).

Brower and Abolafia define resistance as "action or intentional inaction that defies, opposes, or sidesteps the rules, roles, or routines of the organization." (Brower & Abolafia, 1995, P: 151). This definition does not include issues of motivation or evaluation, which forms part of Ashforth and Mael's definition "By resistance, we mean intentional acts of commission or omission that defy the wishes of others. The term intentional signifies that one's motive is central to the dynamics of resistance but does not mean that resistance is necessarily premeditated or rational.(...) we do not consider acts of resistance that are purely psychological (e.g., revenge fantasies) or are driven by unconscious motives, although these are worthy topics in their own right." (Ashforth & Mael, 1998, P 90). O'Connor's definition distinguishes various types of resistance: "Resistance is opposition or withholding of support for specific plans or ideas. It can either be intentional or unintentional, covert or overt." (O'Connor, 1993, P. 30).

The reason for the popularity of the term seems obvious: Managers feel that it is difficult to make people "buy into" their change project. "The issue is a challenge for managers of change. It far outweighs any other aspect of the change process, whether it is goal setting, understanding company needs, planning and implementation, evaluation or leadership issues." (O'Connor, 1993, P: 30). The absence of resistance is usually not sufficient. The support of individuals is necessary for successful change: "Successful organizational adaptation is increasingly reliant on generating employee support and enthusiasm for proposed changes, rather than merely overcoming resistance" (Piderit, 2000, p.783). According to Kotter, transformation "requires the aggressive cooperation of many individuals" (Kotter, 1995, P 60)

Resistance has been grouped into various types, according to the motivation or intention from which it results: Burke (2002), distinguishes three kinds: Blind resistance is intolerance of absolutely any kind of change. Political resistance is caused by fear of loss of power, status etc. And ideological resistance is caused by the belief that change will not work for certain reasons or that it violates certain values. A different categorization is given by Drazin and Joyce (1979): Oppositional resistance is the purposeful desire to resist, this dimension has been the main focus of research. Inactive resistance has no intent, it is the failure to recognize or act upon the change. And misdirected resistance may have underlying positive intentions, but other factors make the action in fact a resistance, e.g. misclassification or misinterpretation. The different types of resistance pose different

challenges for empirical research. E.g., a self-report measure cannot detect misdirected resistance easily. However, it depends on the definition adopted whether misdirected resistance is understood as resistance at all.

The term resistance has been criticised by academics for various reasons. When negatively understood, it could potentially be used to dismiss valid employee concerns about changes, or even to blame the less powerful for failed change initiatives (Krantz, 1999). Researchers have usually taken the perspective of those implementing the change, instead of those having to ultimately live with the new realities (Piderit, 2000). Piderit points out that employees may oppose change for ethical reasons, or because they see issues and problems to be addressed in order for the change to work. The phenomenon of resistance is often resistance to loss rather than resistance to change per se (Burke, 2002). As stage theories of individual change typically predict phases of loss, resistance at one point may be a natural reaction (Jaffe et al., 1994). Aggravating the loss, often a lack of choice is experienced in planned change, causing reactance.

Krantz (1999) explains why he still believes the term resistance to be useful: People at all levels do resist change because of the unfamiliarity of new arrangements. People are faced with losing their avenues for helping them cope with fears and anxieties. This view is supported by contributions on sense-making in change (Isabella, 1990). The challenge is to restore the idea of resistance in a non-blaming way.

Previous research has looked at three different elements of resistance (Piderit, 2000):

- Resistance in emotional terms, e.g. aggression, frustration or anxiety
- Resistance as cognition, individuals having negative thoughts about the change
- Resistance as a behavioural intention (intent or willingness) and finally as behaviour (action or inaction).

These three dimensions parallel the dimensions typically used for attitudes: cognitive, emotional, and intentional (Ajzen, 1984).

Unfortunately there is a dearth of measures and empirical research in the area of resistance to change. The existing research consists mostly of anecdotal evidence and observations (Piderit, 2000).

The focus of the literature on resistance is not paralleled by research on support. Given that support is generally judged to be necessary for successful change (Kotter, 1995; Piderit, 2000), there appears to be a neglect of support in research and theory. This may be rooted either in the phenomenon itself – that it simply is so much more likely to find

resistance than support – or in the greater salience of "negative" behaviours as a "problem" to be addressed by research.

There may be both support for and resistance to change at the same time. Piderit (2000) points out that people can show different or even opposed degrees of resistance or support along the dimensions cognitions, emotions and behaviour/intentions. Also, within one single dimension, ambivalence is possible (and ambivalence within the emotional dimension has been reported). The measurement of ambivalence would require the opportunity to simultaneously indicate both favourable and unfavourable attitudes. Individuals may, however, be ambivalent to each item. Mael and Ashforth (1998) contend that "organizational members are often fundamentally ambivalent about their organizations, and that this ambivalence is normal and to a certain extent healthy. Unfortunately, survey measures of organizational commitment and identification, including our own), mask ambivalence by soliciting only generalized perceptions" (Mael and Ashforth, 1992, P. 97). Thus, even if an instrument of attitudes to change contains different items for favourable and unfavourable attitudes, there are limits to the degree of ambivalence that can be investigated through self-report measures. Qualitative research may be one possibility to deeply explore the degree of ambivalence.

Given the possible multidimensionality of employee attitudes to change, Piderit (2000) proposes the use of the term "employee responses to change" instead of "resistance to change". For reasons of simplicity and operationalization, in this thesis the focus will lie on behavioural intentions, as opposed to emotional or cognitive reactions. To describe employee reactions to change, the terms "behavioural intentions to resist change" and "behavioural intentions to support change" are adopted in this project. I made this choice for various reasons. Firstly, behavioural intentions lie closer to actual behaviour (which is ultimately of interest for change practitioners) than emotional or cognitive reactions alone. The terms are also central to manager concerns, and meaningful to practitioners. The concepts of support and resistance can capture the idea of reactions to change without going into a vast array of organisational outcomes (e.g., organisational citizenship behaviours, performance, or motivation), which would not only be difficult to capture within the scope of my study, but are also the elements more prominently researched in the past. Further, employee reactions to change are of interest for all planned change initiatives, independent of the change content and context. And finally, looking at a broad but relevant category of behaviour (such as withdrawal behaviours, or resistance), improves the generalizability of findings as opposed to looking at highly specific behaviours such as theft or sabotage (Bennett & Robinson, 2003).

3.5 The link between Experience of Change and behavioural intentions to resist or support

In previous sections this review of the change literature has discussed a number of contributions regarding the individual experience of change, their emotional and cognitive reactions to change. Further, the terms resistance and support for change were reviewed. The focus of this section is the interconnectedness between the change experience – including sense making, emotions, cognitions – and behavioural intentions or behaviours directed towards the change. This link is the main focus of this study.

A number of different frameworks have been proposed to structure and to explain the relationship between employees' experience of change and their reactions to change. These frameworks include schemata, psychological contracts, entitlements, stage-models, and organisational justice. In Chapter Four I will review the use of the organisational justice framework to structure this link, but in the following sections some alternative frameworks are briefly introduced. These frameworks may in fact be employed in conjunction, as they afford complementary insights into the phenomena of change experience and change resistance. Further integration between these different viewpoints may provide substantial additional value.

3.5.1 Cognitive Schemata and the typology of 1st, 2nd, 3rd order change

One way to structure the experiences and consequent reactions of individuals are schemata. Schemata are defined as "templates that, when pressed against experience, give it form and meaning" (Bartunek & Moch, 1987, P 484). Organisational schemata are negotiated throughout the organisation, generating shared meaning amongst members and subgroups. The development of the shared schemata is a function of choices of individuals and groups and their respective interests. Planned change (Bartunek and Moch investigate OD interventions) affects organisational schemata, and is in turn influenced by organisational schemata. The understandings and interpretations of organisational members influence both their individual responses and have effects on the organisation. Bartunek and Moch propose that successful planned change could achieve one of three types of schematic change. First-order change is the tacit reinforcement of present understandings, second-order change is the conscious modification of present schemata in a particular direction, and third-order change is attaining the ability to change schemata as they fit, for example through training organisational members to be aware of their present schemata.

A similar distinction has been proposed by Golembiewski, Billingley, and Yaeger (1976), who distinguished between alpha, beta and gamma changes. Alpha change is a change in an actual process (typically only this type of change is assessed); beta change is a change in the descriptions of process (results from a change in the observer's ability to draw distinctions with respect to that which is observed), and gamma change is a change in the classification of form through which the observer captures reality.

Bartunek's work has important implications for the study of organisational change: Second-order changes are not likely to be reflected in increases in means scores. (Bartunek, 1987) This is simply because the types of changes that have occurred have made the original measurement categories obsolete, the measures used are not suitable to detect a second-order change. Rather than a change in mean-scores, completely new questions should be asked now. Thus change researchers need to ask what type of change a particular intervention achieved and why. Bartunek argues that understanding the role of schemata in change projects is crucial, as they have the potential either to constrain or guide change, and she connects individual and organisational level naturally through the concept of schemata, presenting one of the few research approaches in organisational change research to bridge individual and organisational focus.

A difficulty for researchers of change is that the concepts that underlie Bartunek's theory (schemata and their degrees of change) are not easily quantifiable. The most pressing issue for practitioner in change had not been addressed clearly by Bartunek's model so far: it remains unclear what impact the various types of schemata and changes have on „organisational success", including a number of organisational outcomes.

The theory hardly allows any clear predictions and/or hypotheses to be made. The dialectical process that leads to second order change is not clearly specified, and it is not clear what exactly are the processes between different types or degrees of change in employees' schemata and their responses.

3.5.2 Psychological contracts

The psychological contract can be seen as a type of schema (Searle & Ball, 2004), and this concept had also been brought forward to describe change experiences of individuals, and to explain their reactions.

"Psychological contracts refer to employees' perceptions of what they owe to their employers and what their employers owe to them" (Robinson, 1996, P. 574). Psychological contracts research investigates how standards of right and wrong evolve in work settings. The psychological contract is a product of the employees' history with the organisations

and psychological contracts shape employees' interpretation of the actions of their employer (Rousseau, 1995). Psychological contract violation is said to occur when one party perceives the other to have failed to comply with some of the terms of their psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). Morrison and Robinson (1997) argue that the feelings of violation are distinct from the underlying cognitive evaluations of non-fulfilment of the contract (which they term breach).

The contract can lie on a continuum from transactional to relational terms (Rousseau, 1995). Transactional terms have an economic focus, a narrow scope and often a specific timeframe. Changes of narrowly defined responsibilities and rewards would require a re-negotiation of the contract. Relational contracts are (among others) characterized by economic and emotional focus, inclusion of the whole person, pervasive scope, and an open-ended or indefinite timeframe. Relational contracts are therefore more flexible, and are believed to have a broader area of change acceptance (Rousseau, 1995). The quality of the employment relationship is an important factor for employees' acceptance of and reactions to planned organisational change (Rousseau, 1996). Trust appears to be a key variable (Searle & Ball, 2004). Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1999) found that relational contracts made employees more accepting of the legitimacy of changes, even when communication from management was not clear. People who perceived their contracts to be transactional, on the other hand, were more likely to attribute self-serving reasons to changes, except when they were given clear and convincing reasons for change from management.

Heath, Knez and Camerer (1993) claim that if the psychological contract is well-managed, then resistance to change may be avoided from the outset. They explain that resistance is typically due to perceived loss and to the perception that previous entitlements were greater than they are, and that the relationship is now changing for the worse. If the changes do not fit into their view of the psychological contract, then people feel that either they were mislead, or the contract was breached. Resistance is the likely reaction in this case. Heath, Knez and Camerer advice organisations that the careful management of preference formation may avoid the perception of change as an unfair violation of an entitlement (Heath et al., 1993). This could be done by separating benefits into different mental accounts, e.g. bonuses, benefits, salaries – some of which will not carry the expectation to be stable entitlements. Further more, the status quo could be not to draw attention to aspects that may change – for example broader titles might be awarded from the outset on, to avoid losses of status when people have to change roles internally. Better up-front negotiation and more ongoing information could help people to form more

concise beliefs. However, it remains to be tested in how far these techniques might have negative side effects: feelings of entitlement may have their positive upsides, and foster commitment. Trying to limit feelings of entitlement in the ways outlined may thus have negative effects, and lead for example to a more transactionally defined psychological contract – which in turn means less flexibility instead of more.

Recent research investigates the dynamics between fairness perceptions, psychological contract violations, and employee reactions (Tekleab et al., 2005). Following a perceived breach of contract, employees may revise their fairness judgments of the fairness of outcomes, procedures, interpersonal treatment, and information. Justice perceptions in turn may lead to changes in the state of and the formation of psychological contracts (Guest, 2004). Fairness as a framework to investigate individual experiences of and reactions to change will be the focus of the next chapter.

3.5.3 The dynamics of cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions

Armenakis and Field discuss the processes that could be involved in changing schemata in organisational change in more detail. Some interventions attempt to change behaviour initially and cognitions subsequently, while others start with cognitions and then change behaviour. Agreement appears to exist regarding the fact that if change is to be permanent it needs to include cognitive change. Armenakis and Field (1993) hold that the relationship between cognitive, affective, and behavioural variables has been shown to be multidirectional rather than unidirectional, yet little clarity exists.

In their planned process model of organisational change, Porras and Silvers (1991) hypothesize how a change intervention aims at organisational target variables (vision and work setting), which in turn causes cognitive changes in the individual organisational member (alpha, beta, gamma changes). These cognitive changes are hypothesized to impact the behaviour of the members, which in turn impacts organisational outcomes (organisational performance and individual development). Thus, experienced changes in the organisation will impact mental sets. Organisational members' cognitions are changed first, before behaviour is changed. This order of cause and effect is questioned by Burke (2002): "Although cognitive change can precede behaviour change, most of the time, particularly the more emotional the situation is, it is the other way around; that is, behaviour comes first, then cognition. We act and *then* attribute meaning to that action." (italics in original, Burke, 2002, p 136).

I am drawing on attitude research to clarify the various possibilities. Some researchers see attitudes as a tri-dimensional construct, having affective, cognitive and

behavioural components, each of them varying on evaluative dimensions. Their definitions view attitude as a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably toward an object. Following these definitions, cognition, affect and behaviour are simply different domains in which attitudes are expressed (Ajzen, 1984). Others have argued that the attitude-behaviour relation is obscured in the tri-partite model, and that the behavioural component should therefore not be seen as part of attitudes (for a review, see Chaiken & Stangor, 1987)). I will follow the second view, and will not include behaviour as a component of attitudes, in order to be able to differentiate the attitude-behaviour relation. In organisational change, the distinction between attitudes and behaviours is an important one, as ultimately the behaviours of change participants will decide over the success of a change initiative.

Various models to explain the relationship between attitudes and behaviours have been proposed. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) developed the theory of reasoned action, according to which behaviour can be predicted through the attitude towards the behavioural action and social norms that influence the likelihood of the behaviour. But both of these elements (attitude towards behavioural action and social norms) are predicted to influence behaviour through the mediator behaviour intentions. But various studies have found variables that have an impact on behaviours and are not mediated by behavioural intentions – most importantly past behaviour (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). Thus, the circle closes – attitudes predict behaviours, but past behaviours predict attitudes. The original theory of reasoned action was later developed to include volitional control as a third predictor. Volitional control includes situational and/or internal obstacles to performing the behaviour. The individual's perception of the obstacles to behaviours have been shown to have both direct effects and behaviour, but also effects mediated via behavioural intentions. Several mechanisms have been found in psychological research that can cause an impact of behaviours on attitudes, for example self-perception, dissonance reduction and impression management (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). Although there is little clarity on when which mechanism works how, all of the above findings give important insights into important elements when it comes to behaviours:

a. past behaviours
b. emotions, cognitions
c. behavioural intentions
d. obstacles to behaviours
e. social norms

Little or no research exists investigating these elements comprehensively in one field study of organisational change. These elements are not comprehensively integrated into any theory of resistance either, although Hay and Haertel's model takes many of them into account:

3.5.4 Hay and Haertel's model

Hay and Haertel (2000) propose a stage-model to hypothesize the processes underlying employees' reactions to change. According to this model, employees will have an emotional reaction to the change effort and then will make a decision on whether to resist.

Firstly, in the stage of "Discovery", employees find out about the change – the method of discovery and the completeness of the information may have an effect on how employees perceive the change and the change agent. Employees' initial appraisal elicits emotional reactions (the second step), either positive or negative, towards the change. Emotions can get complicated, and often it is difficult to immediately know if the change is favourable. Attribution (third element) will form an important part of emotional reactions. Perceptions and judgments are influenced by assumptions about the motives of the change leader. Responsibility and blame for the change are attributed. This mediates the emotional reaction to implementation. The emotional characteristics of employees are hypothesized to have an effect: e.g. optimism, negative affectivity, emotional reactivity, agreeableness, etc will impact the emotional reaction. Equally, the organisational environment (culture, climate, economic reality) and overall context will have an effect on attribution appraisals and consequently on emotional reactions. Informational cues about the change attribution may be gained from various sources, and can also re-initiate the attribution-emotion-decision sequence. Informational cues have an effect on attributions. Finally, after all these processes have taken place, the decision whether to resist the change will be made, taking into account an assessment of the impact of resistance, an assessment of the effort required to resist, and an assessment of the risks involved. Resistance can be overt or covert, explicit or implicit, immediate or deferred. This model goes beyond previous contributions in explicitly structuring processes that lead to individuals' decisions to resist or support organisational change. A number of the processes in the model may occur simultaneously, in interrelation, and in different orders (emotions, attributions, cues). Past behaviours and past experiences might be integrated into future models as well. Hay and Haertel's model provides a helpful structure to guide investigations of the link between individual experiences of change and their reactions to change. Extensive empirical research remains

to be collected to investigate each of the different links that the model proposes in practice. Also, empirical research will need to fill the various processes proposed with detail, e.g., which type of information is more likely to lead to positive vs. negative reactions?

While contributions on schemata have particularly stressed the role of socially constructed meanings, the model by Hay and Haertel stresses individual processes of attributions. Both the social context and attributions are of course interrelated, e.g. through the trust that exists within a social environment. Attributions and emotional responses may to a good extent depend on trust. The attribution of motives to the change leader may depend on the degree of trust that change participants have in him or her, and trust in the change leader may help overcome adverse reactions that employees might have to change (Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler and Martin, 1997). Therefore, trust is a key factor in employee emotional reaction toward the implementation effort because, where trust exists, employees are more likely to have a positive reaction to change.

Recent contributions have structured and explained individual reactions to change through an organisational justice framework (e.g., Beugre, 1998; Novelli et al., 1995; Thornhill & Saunders, 2003), which will be the focus of the next chapter.

3.6 Some Issues and Complications in Change Research

Research in organisational change has been conducted by many different disciplines and professions with different research agendas and approaches. The result is a wide but fragmented field of research. A few examples for approaches taken are longitudinal survey design (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003), action research (Coghlan & Coughlan, 2003), ethnographic research with a view to managerial actions (Poole, Gioia, & Gray, 1989), qualitative case study research (Woolsey Biggart, 1977), in-depth interviews (Searle & Ball, 2004), contextual multi-level analysis (Pettigrew, 1990), or change simulations (Sastry, 1997). Some studies combine quantitative and qualitative methods (e.g., Lau & Woodman, 1995).

While this variety of approaches offers rich and varied insights into the phenomenon of change, some general issues and difficulties exist in change research. Beer and Walton (1987) have reviewed some major difficulties and problems of change research:

1) Most researchers use traditional scientific methods, without considering the interconnectedness of parts of the system.
2) Snapshot research does not give a longer-term view. Longitudinal research is needed.

3) Results of quantitative studies cannot be interpreted precisely, as context and qualitative data are ignored.
4) The needs of the user (change agents) are often not served.

A further problem of change research, as pointed out by Armenakis (1988) is the difficulty of measuring not only changes on the same scale (alpha change), but to measure changes in the scale itself (recalibration of reality or beta change) or to detect changes of meaning – the concept has been re-defined (gamma change) (Golembiewski et al., 1976).

In fact different types of analyses will need to be conducted to discover the different types of change that are possible. Mortimer and colleagues (Mortimer, Finch, & Kumka, 1982) distinguish between four types of across-time stability:

1) Structural invariance is the degree of continuity in the nature of the phenomenon. Structural variance is any beta or gamma change taking place. Structural Invariance is generally assumed when the factor structure of the concept of interest is the same at each wave of a study (Taris, 2000). Armenakis (1988) also recommends multiple methods to minimize the errors resulting from scale recalibration and concept redefinition.
2) Normative stability concerns the degree to which individual ranks or differences on an attribute remain the same and is usually measured as the correlation between the measures of an attribute across time (for a group of individuals) (Taris, 2000). Measuring this type of stability is only meaningful if structural invariance can be assumed.
3) Ipsative stability refers to the relative (intraindividual) strength of attributes or dispositions or preferences over time. For example, this might concern the relative salience of various change management techniques at different phases of the change.
4) Level stability concerns the stability in magnitude of a phenomenon in time, this is the equivalent of alpha change in Armenakis' terminology. This could for example concern the question whether the overall attitude towards a change becomes more positive or negative over time (Taris, 2000).

Researchers thus need to know which change they are looking for in order to conduct the correct analyses. Also, the negligence of the issue of structural invariance (or beta or gamma change) can render certain analyses meaningless.

Porras and Silvers (1991) argue that the progress of change research is hindered by the lack of appropriate theories on how change works. The model that Porras and Silvers consequently proposed to fill this gap has been widely criticised for being

unrealistic (Burke, 2002). As discussed above (3.2.3), theories have in particular fallen short of integrating issues of process and implementation, and of considering the role of the individual change participant.

Armenakis and Bedeian (1999) have analysed change research in the 1990s according to principal themes and found that the research mainly dealt with a) content of change, b) context of change (mainly forces in the external and internal environments), c) process of change (actions taken during change), and d) criterion issues (outcomes assessed). Though evaluating the practical value of contributions positively, Armenakis and Bedeian criticise the fragmentation of the field and stress the importance of longitudinal research.

There is a notable scarcity of empirical contributions that focus on the measurement of organisational change. There is a lack of well-tested, reliable and valid measures for organisational change that can serve as central and potentially unifying means to advance empirical research and theory development in this area. Weick and Quinn (1999: 364) suggest a number of directions for further inquiry along the lines of exemplary extant research employing a variety of different methodologies. Their call is for a general improvement of the evidentiary basis for organisational change research, coupled with "greater efforts to articulate the situated nature of organizational action (e.g., Laurila, 1997)" (1999: 364) and a better appreciation of the relevant limitations of inquiry (e.g., Kilduff & Mehra, 1997; McKelvey, 1997). Weick and Quinn argue that the combination of these factors will likely lead to a "simultaneous improvement of tools and scaling down of the tasks those tools need to accomplish." (1999: 364)

On the individual level, the mere scarcity of research represents a major shortcoming (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). Further research and insights concerning the individual change participants is also likely to further our understanding of change management and organisational level change. Many contributions in this area are relying on the experiences of prominent scholars and practitioners (Bridges, 1986; Kanter et al., 1992), exemplified with anecdotal evidence. A wider use of different frameworks and methodologies to investigate the experiences and reactions of individuals in organisational change is likely to promote theory and knowledge of individual level change and of organisational change.

3.7 Closing Comments

Change is a pervasive phenomenon in today's organisational life, and is not easy to manage. One of the major challenges of change agents is people's negative reactions to change. Yet little research has examined the mechanisms that underlie employee reactions to planned organisational change (Hay & Haertel, 2000). Particularly, there is a lack of research explaining and predicting how and why reactions may differ as a function of the different experiences at different stages of change. Also, the research that exists on individual emotional, cognitive and behavioural reactions to change has remained largely disconnected from change management literature. There is also a lack of comprehensive frameworks, and theoretical models are not unified. In particular, there is a scarcity of research that bridges the gap between managerial and individual employee perspectives, and between strategic and attitudinal/behavioural considerations.

Another problem with current research on organisational change is the focus on one-off changes or transitions. When it comes to change management, this leads to a focus on reacting rather than preventing: "models take a reactive rather than a proactive stance toward resistance"(Heath et al., 1993). But more fundamentally, this focus has limited our knowledge on change processes in environments of frequent or constant change. It is likely that changes are not perceived as stand-alone phenomena in such environments.

Organisational Justice is a promising framework to structure the link between change experience and reactions, and to investigate this link further empirically. The justice framework allows also to bridge individual and managerial/organisational levels. In the following chapter, the extant contributions focusing on justice in change will be reviewed, and a research model will be developed.

4 Towards a Research Model of Justice Perceptions in Organisational Change

4.1 Introduction

Employing organisational justice as a tool to investigate the experience of organisational change is potentially of high value for practitioners and researchers in organisational change. The comprehensive framework of organisational justice has proven to be a powerful tool for describing, analysing, and predicting employees' experiences and reactions in numerous organisational settings (2.6). More recently, the justice framework has also been employed in change contexts to prescribe change management actions and to investigate change participants' reactions to change (e.g., Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Novelli et al., 1995; Tekleab et al., 2005).

This chapter consists of three parts: Firstly, it makes the general argument for employing the organisational justice framework to investigate organisational change by proposing that organisational justice is a useful theoretical perspective to investigate the individual experience of and reactions to organisational change. Secondly, extant conceptual and empirical contributions directly addressing organisational justice in change are reviewed. In the third and last part of the chapter, I draw on this review to develop a research model for investigating the individual experience of change and reactions to change through a justice framework. In this part, I present specific research hypotheses for this research project.

4.2 The relevance of fairness perceptions and anticipations in the context of organisational changes

A review of the change literature (chapter 3) proposes that the role of individual organisational members in organisational change is largely under-researched. The extant contributions focusing on individuals going through organisational change predict that they are likely to experience negative emotions such as loss, anxiety or anger at some stage (Jaffe et al., 1994), and that people need to evaluate what is new and engage in sense-making processes in order to cope with the changed realities (Isabella, 1990; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). However, change is not composed of discrete and linearly progressing stages (Weber & Manning, 2001), and it is not well understood how individuals can be helped to best cope with change. We do not know enough about how the experience of change is linked to resistance to or support of planned change at various stages of the change process. Organisational justice can serve as a structuring framework to increase our understanding of individual experiences of and reactions to change.

The framework of organisational justice has been shown to be a powerful tool in explaining the link between people's workplace experience and their affective, cognitive, and behavioural reactions (for a review see Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). Contributions focusing specifically on fairness perceptions in the context of organisational change support the assumption that the organisational justice framework helps to explain reactions to changes. Findings suggest a relationship between fairness perceptions and various reactions to organisational change, such as commitment (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995), resistance (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001), perceived obligations to the organisation (Korsgaard et al., 2002), and positive or negative emotions (Thornhill & Saunders, 2003).

4.2.1 Why Organisational Justice matters in Planned Change

The content models presented in the Chapter Two on organisational justice bring forward a number of explanations for the significance of fairness perceptions in organisational change: Perceived fairness gives people clues about which long-term economic benefits to expect (Tyler, 1987). Organisational changes have often direct tangible consequences for individuals – changed positions, salaries, bonuses, a different workplace, etc. These anticipated and experienced consequences will, according to the instrumental model, heighten the bearing of organisational justice in change. Fairness can also indicate one's value or position in a group, and appreciation from other group members (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Organisational change brings about relational implications in that group membership, status, or identity may be affected, heightening the impact of organisational justice in change according to the group value model. The "Moral virtues model" could also explain the central role of justice perceptions in change. Changes may affect moral standards, and fairness promises the upholding of moral standards (Folger, 1998). In some cases issues of deception or lack of respect may evoke strong moral judgments, even if the experience is vicarious. Thus, according to all three content theories of organisational justice, justice considerations are expected to be of heightened importance for people affected by organisational change.

In planned organisational change, people often have incomplete information, and experience insecurity. They need to make sense of their changing environments and situation (Weick, 1995). Therefore fairness information becomes particularly salient in change, indicating to the individual if outcomes, relationships, group acceptance, or moral standards are changing for worse or better (Lind, 2001). In situations of insecurity or incomplete information, fairness clues or "fairness heuristics" (Lind, 2001) help individuals to make decisions about whether they want to cooperate or not. "Just as the

early days of an organizational relationship are probably critical times for forming general feelings of fair or unfair treatment, so too are times of real or symbolic change in the organization." (Lind, 2001, p. 79) In summary, fairness considerations are expected to be particularly salient in situations of organisational change.

The organisational justice framework appears suitable for structuring the experience of change situations in the workplace: Changes experienced by employees in organisations are part of the exchange experience that exists between employee and organisation and employee and management (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Organisational justice is a framework that structures the experience within exchange relationships and is therefore a suitable tool to describe and analyse any organisational change. The comprehensiveness and explanatory value of the framework of organisational justice to investigate individual experiences of and reactions to organisational change remains to be carefully investigated. First research in this area has indicated that the framework of organisational justice is useful in explaining emotional (Thornhill & Saunders, 2003), cognitive (Paterson & Cary, 2002), and behavioural reactions to change (Tekleab et al., 2005).

The four-dimensional framework presented in Chapter 2 can be employed to describe and analyse change experiences, as fairness considerations regarding all four dimensions of organisational justice arise in organisational change situations.

Concerns about **distributive justice** are likely to rise as outcomes are to be re-distributed (e.g., the outcomes layoffs, transfers, retraining, promotions) (Beugre, 1998). Also, non-tangible outcomes such as influence, responsibility, and authority are likely to be affected by change (Novelli et al., 1995). Changes are likely to shift the balance of distributive fairness criteria (equity, equality, and need), and people's perceptions will largely depend on whether they accept the priorities that underlie the changing distribution of resources (Cobb, Folger, & Wooten, 1995).

In the context of changes, **procedures** may become particularly salient (Leventhal et al., 1980). Some typical procedural concerns in change situations may for example include the opportunity to voice opinions at every stage in the process (Novelli et al., 1995), or the existence of recourse mechanisms (to appeal if change outcomes are considered unfair) (Beugre, 1998).

Issues of **interpersonal justice in change** may include empathy and sensitivity of managers regarding people affected by the changes (Novelli et al., 1995). Cobb, Folger and colleagues hold that just and fair treatment displayed by leaders is likely to be especially important to subordinates in times of change. In a changing environment, employees need

to rely on their leaders to solve problems, communicate their concerns, resolve disputes, and re-distribute resources fairly (Cobb et al., 1995). **Informational justice**, the fourth category of organisational justice, is expected to have importance as people's need for information is increased in times of uncertainty. During change situations people are likely to want to know the reasons for the change (Beugre, 1998), as well as explanations about changing roles and responsibilities (Novelli et al., 1995). Cobb, Folger and Wooten (1995) point out that social accounts can reduce outrage and retribution behaviours associated with negative change outcomes.

In Chapter Two, the potential role of previous (related or unrelated) fairness experiences for fairness expectations and judgments has been reviewed. As proposed by Greenberg and Wiethoff (2001) in their reactive-proactive cycle model (2.7.2.1), the processes by which justice judgments and efforts to promote justice are made in organisations are likely to develop over time, and judgments and decisions at one point in time are likely to be related to previous judgments and decisions made.

Various literatures support the assumption that previous fairness experiences can impact on fairness evaluations. Fairness heuristics theory assumes a relative endurance or stability of fairness judgments, once formed (Lind, 2001). Shapiro and Kirkman (1999; 2001) coined the concept of anticipatory injustice: "anticipating injustice means expecting unfairness, and therefore more specifically, expecting unfair outcomes or decisions (distributive injustice), unfair decision-making procedures (procedural injustice), and/or unfair interpersonal treatment (interactional injustice). The negative consequences of injustice anticipations are likely to be many." (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001, P: 156). The role of anticipatory injustice is expected to be of particular relevance in times of uncertainty and change, when people engage in increased sense-making activities (Weick, 1995) and rely increasingly on trust-related judgments (Shaw, 1997). Shapiro and Kirkman argue that the accelerating speed of organisational change increases the likelihood of anticipatory activity, and heightens the importance of understanding the role of the anticipation of fairness: "The potentially deleterious effects of organizational injustice may not occur only when injustice has occurred. Rather, negative work-related attitudes and behaviours are likely when employees anticipate that injustice may occur" (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001, P: 164).

Also, reactions to organisational change may depend on existing feelings of entitlements and the perceived legitimacy of various elements of the exchange relationship. Brockner, Ackerman and Fairchild found that "those who have experienced high levels of the procedural elements in the past are likely to believe that high levels of those elements

will and should be present in the focal situation" (Brockner et al., 2001, P 189). This phenomenon was explained in the context of contrast effects (2.5.1.3), and the literature on entitlements (3.3.2) may help to explain this effect. Once people believe that they are entitled to a certain benefit or treatment in their psychological contract, they are likely to react negatively when their employer does not meet the expectations of this entitlement (Heath et al., 1993). Elements of fairness may be perceived as entitlements. Yet so far we know little about the processes of how expectations and anticipations of organisational justice form over time, and the assimilation and contrast effects involved.

To summarize, previous justice experiences (indirectly related or unrelated situations), anticipations of justice (before the experience of change) and perceptions of justice (in the experience of change) are expected to be of central importance for employee reactions to change. The investigation of justice anticipations and perceptions in change contexts is of interest from a practitioners' point of view, from a theoretical and conceptual perspective, and from an ethical standpoint, each of which will be elaborated on in the following.

4.2.2 Practitioner interest

Change is part of the organisational and managerial reality today (Dunphy et al., 2003; Staehle, 1992). The successful implementation of planned organisational change depends ultimately on the behaviour of the people who need to live and work with the new realities created by the changes. More often than not, however, employees do not simply accept change. The people dimension of planned change is a central challenge to be addressed and managed. Managers as change agents need to create the required buy-in from employees to the degree necessary and in the timeframe required. At the moment, we don't know much about how to manage people's experience of and reactions to change throughout the process of change. As a result, many planned changes do not realise the intended benefits.

Fairness considerations are particularly salient and relevant in times of insecurity and change. Organisational justice theory is a useful framework for gaining insights into why some organisational changes get the buy-in from employees, while others get little or no support or even meet with resistance. Conceptual and a first few empirical contributions have confirmed the important role of perceived fairness of distributions, procedures, and treatment in order to manage organisational change successfully (e.g., Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Beugre, 1998; Novelli et al., 1995; Paterson & Cary, 2002; Tekleab et

al., 2005). The anticipated and perceived fairness of a change effort is one of the factors that determine if employees support or reject an initiative (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999).

The framework of organisational justice structures employees' experience of change in a comprehensive way, and is able to shed light on the link between this experience and employee reactions to change. These insights can improve our understanding of managerial and organisational practices and actions that make people buy into change or support change, or that prevent them from resisting change. This understanding can be a step towards improved management of change at various levels, which could ultimately help organisations to achieve the intended benefits of changes.

The frequent occurrence of change in organisations also heightens the importance of understanding any temporal, interactive or cumulative effects that may result from the way in which organisational change is planned and implemented. Changes are not stand-alone events in most organisations, and managers need to be aware of any long-term or knock-on effects their management of change may bring about, as well as being aware of the "change history" and its potential impact when planning or implementing new changes.

4.2.3 Theoretical and conceptual interest

For organisational change researchers, employing the framework of organisational justice to change situations promises more comprehensive insights particularly into the often-neglected individual level dynamics of organisational change. Particularly, there is a lack of contributions to help explain the individual reactions to change at various stages of the change process. Utilizing the organisational justice framework gives a structure in which individual experiences and reactions could be investigated more comprehensively, and is also able to consider both individual and managerial/organisational perspectives. Extant change research has also been criticized for being focused on one-off changes, without taking possible spillover, interactive and cumulative effects between different changes into account. Research on long-term and cumulative effects of justice experience may help to advance knowledge in this area.

As for organisational justice theory and research, we know little about the processes by which fairness perceptions develop over time. One of the reasons for this may be the design of most organisational justice studies, as discussed in chapter four (see Cropanzano et al., 2001). The majority of studies has been conducted in a snapshot fashion, relying largely on experimental research and cross-sectional survey research. "Despite the abundance of research, longitudinal examinations of fairness are notably rare. As a result, scholars have a good snapshot of justice at any one instance but have relatively

less knowledge about the unfolding effects of justice and injustice over time." (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003, P 266). There is significant scope to broaden our knowledge and increase our understanding of both fairness and change through researching the creation, the role and the development of fairness perceptions in organisational change situations.

Looking at fairness in change involves the dimension of time. Integrating the factor of time with fairness research will result in a fuller and more realistic picture of organisational justice and the role it plays in organisational reality. Longitudinal research will be of special importance here, as it also promises insights into unfolding dynamics and causalities that often had to be assumed in cross-sectional data collections. Gaining further understanding of justice includes research into long-term effects, cumulative effects, interactive effects and relative effects of the various dimensions of justice over time. These insights not only promise increased understanding of the processes of fairness, but also a better understanding of the concept of organisational justice itself. The role of expectations of fairness vs. the experience of fairness promises further insights into dynamics involved in creating reactions to organisational change. Ultimately, a more dynamic concept of organisational justice could be developed. Cropanzano and Prehar point out: " If change is systematic, then any perspective on organizational justice that does not deal with change is inherently limited"(Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001, P 266).

Research on different dimensions of fairness and their role in change (over time) could also shed new light on the long-debated question of construct discrimination in the literature of organisational justice: are procedural, interpersonal, and informational fairness dimensions really different constructs? Finding out whether various dimensions develop differently or have different relative impacts over time would contribute to this debate.

Researching the experience of change and reactions to change through an organisational justice framework promises to enrich knowledge in the fields of organisational justice and organisational change.

4.2.4 Ethical interest

While less often discussed than practical and theoretical/conceptual interests in studying fairness in change, there is also a relevant ethical perspective (Cobb et al., 1995). The framework of organisational justice lends itself to an employee-centred perspective, a perspective that has often been neglected in change research although employees are the ones who ultimately have to live with the new realities (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999). Also, higher perceptions of fairness (lower perceptions of unfairness) have been shown to have positive effects on employee stress and well-being (Greenberg, 2005; Zohar, 1995).

The numerous negative effects that anxiety and stress in change situations may bring about for employees undergoing the changes (Cobb et al., 1995) might be counter-acted at least partially through assuming an organisational fairness perspective in management, and cases of neglecting employee interests might be detected or pointed out through assuming a theoretical fairness perspective. However, research on the actual ethical consequences of assuming a fairness perspective remains to be conducted in the context of organisational change before making any definite claims about the ethical impact of organisational justice research.

4.3 General Research Interest of this Study

The aim of this research is to investigate the link between experiences of and reactions to planned organisational change through the framework of organisational justice. This dissertation differentiates between the four dimensions of organisational justice introduced in Chapter Two - distributive, procedural, interpersonal and interactional organisational justice and will take into account both anticipated and perceived fairness. Ultimately, this research is concerned with the question "What makes people support or resist change?" Part of the research agenda will be to critically evaluate in how far the framework of organisational justice is a useful organising framework in answering this question.

4.4 Research on fairness perceptions of organisational change

A more detailed review of the contributions that have directly addressed organisational justice in change contexts will be presented in the following. Drawing on these contributions, I will then develop my general research model as well as specific research hypotheses and specific questions to be addressed in this study.

4.4.1 Conceptual contributions outlining the role of fairness perceptions for the implementation of change

Over the last years the role of justice perceptions in change, and the role of change for justice perceptions, has received increased attention in justice discourse and research. A number of conceptual contributions have outlined how fairness considerations along the various dimensions of fairness should be taken into account at various stages of the change management process in order to achieve buy-in and avoid resistance from people involved in the change (Beugre, 1998; Cobb et al., 1995; Novelli et al., 1995).

Novelli, Kirkman and colleagues (Novelli et al., 1995) structure the change process according to the five step organisational change model by Beer, Eisenstat and Spector (1990) (3.2.3), and present possible justice concerns (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and typical questions for each step of the model. Their approach is to a large degree prescriptive, proposing paths for increased justice perceptions such as joint diagnosis and outlining "dangers for justice" at each stage. A number of interview quotes support the importance of organisational justice considerations in organisational change, but the arguments made are based mainly on a review of general findings in organisational justice. A comparable conceptual approach has been taken by Beugre (1998), who points out the relevance of organisational justice in business process re-engineering. At each stage of the re-engineering process, certain fairness issues call for attention. Just as Novelli and Colleagues, Beugre provides advice for change agents.

Instrumental as well as ethical arguments have been brought forward for employing the organisational justice framework in an organisation development (OD) context by Cobb, Folger and Wooten (1995). Along the three dimensions distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, Cobb and colleagues review the implications of organisational justice findings for OD interventions, and how taking an organisational justice view could help avoid resistance to change. "Profound change, of course, almost always includes a wide range of disappointing outcomes... to the extent that accounts can reduce the "moral outrage" (Bies, 1987) and retribution often associated with those outcomes, the organization as a whole benefits" (pp 144f.). Cobb, Folger and colleagues also discuss why managers and change agents often seemingly neglect organisational justice concerns despite the negative consequences that such neglect is likely to bring about for the organisation: Reasons may include the lack of understanding of the impact that organisational justice has on the success of change projects, holding onto knowledge as a means to guard power, being preoccupied with short term performance and therefore forgetting the human dimensions, and – perhaps most fundamentally - managers may simply not know – or care -- what is perceived as unfair or fair by their employees.

Overall, these conceptual contributions strongly suggest that fairness of outcomes and procedures, and interactional fairness, are likely to decrease employee resistance and improve employee support in situations of organisational change, and that managers should therefore pay attention to fairness perceptions in change situations. The various recommendations for managers made in the above conceptual contributions remain to be investigated empirically. It remains to be tested in how far various elements of change management are related to perceptions of fairness at different stages of organisational

change planning and implementation, which elements are more important than others, and if and whether perceived fairness of a change initiative is really linked to employee resistance or support.

4.4.2 Research drawing on organisational justice theory to explain employee reactions in change

Typically, empirical contributions investigating fairness perceptions in change have focused on outcome variables (attitudes and behaviours) of justice perceptions (for a review, see Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). In the following, a few examples of this type of research that are of particular interest for this dissertation are presented:

A longitudinal study by Korsgaard, Sapienza and Schweiger (2002) investigated the role of fairness perceptions in the planning stage of organisational change on the exchange relationship perceived by employees. The first of two surveys was conducted before a steering committee had commenced its work. The second survey was administered 45 days later, after the committee's plan was announced, but before the beginning of the implementation. The variables trust in management, perceived obligations to the organisation, and intention to remain with the organisation were measured at both points in time, and procedural justice was measured at the second point in time only. Elements such as feedback and justifications are included in the measure of procedural fairness, resulting in a combination of procedural and informational fairness elements.

Korsgaard and colleagues (2002) found that among employees with low procedural/informational justice perceptions at the second point in time, employee obligations had significantly declined. Those with a high degree of procedural justice perception showed unchanged employee obligations and did not increase their intentions to leave the organisation. Further, planning change did not significantly affect trust in management when employees perceived the process as just. The authors conclude that procedural justice theory can help leaders to minimize the potential negative effects of organisational change. While the study is adding valuable insights in employee reactions in the planning stage of change, it would have been interesting to follow this study through to the implementation stage, and also to measure organisational justice at more than one point in time (this design allows no conclusions about anticipatory injustice effect and relative impact of fairness perceptions at various stages). Also, the view on fairness is limited to a combination of procedural and informational elements, not allowing for conclusions about the relative role of different dimensions. Further, the design of the study does not allow for any conclusions about the causality between the change of perceived exchange relationship

and procedural fairness. Perceived justice might have positive effects on the exchange relationship, but on the other hand in a positive exchange relationship development people might be less cynical about the process and thus perceive higher fairness. Perceived organisational justice could thus be either an outcome of or the cause for the change in the exchange relationship. The authors also propose that there may be cumulative effects from the planning stage: "executives may underestimate the impact of planning and the cumulative effect that it has on later stages of the change" (page 513). Research spanning overall longer time periods is needed to validate this statement.

Paterson and Cary (2002) investigate the effects of fairness perceptions and change anxiety on employee resistance to change, acceptance of downsizing, and other work attitudes. Cross-sectional survey data from 71 participants are utilized to test a model that integrates cognitions (justice perceptions) and emotions (change anxiety) as explanatory variables. The authors hypothesize that change events will lead to cognitive responses (procedural, interactional and distributive justice), which in turn will have both a direct impact on outcomes, and an indirect impact on outcomes via affective responses (change anxiety). The operationalisation of procedural justice relied on Leventhal criteria and a one-item overall measure. What is termed interactional justice consisted of items tapping into interpersonal sensitivity, integrity and respect, thus could be termed "interpersonal justice" according to the framework that is adopted in this dissertation. Path analyses offered preliminary support for the model, indicating that procedural justice and change anxiety explained effects of change management procedures on acceptance of downsizing, while interpersonal justice and change anxiety explained effects of quality of change communications and trust in the change managers (Paterson & Cary, 2002). According to the authors, these findings support models predicting a differential impact of the different dimensions of justice on outcomes or reactions. Possible interaction effects were not investigated. The cross-sectional design and the similarity of measures for content of procedures and content of communications with the measures for procedural justice and interpersonal justice, bears the risk of confounding between the content measures and fairness concepts (e.g., the change communications items included items that are typically used to measure informational justice, such as "extent to which information was given about the reasons for the change"). The study provides additional evidence that fairness perceptions are linked to employee reactions towards change, but at this stage we have little evidence regarding the question of differential effects of different organisational justice dimensions in relation to attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in organisational change over time. Future longitudinal studies may bring more clarity when it comes to the

relative role of various dimensions with regards to different types of outcomes. Different causalities could be possible and the relation between organisational justice, emotions and reactions to change, remains a topic for future research, in particular to be explored by longitudinal designs.

4.4.3 Research addressing the relative impact of different dimensions of fairness over time in change

A question of interest in the context of fairness in change is the relative impact of the four dimensions of justice over time. Lowe and Vodavonich's (1995) empirical study addressed the question of the relative impact of distributive justice and procedural justice, and how this might change over time. The operationalization of procedural justice in this study contains interactional elements (operationalised as product terms). The study was conducted in the context of a restructuring of job classifications for university administration and support personnel (Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995). A cross-sectional survey was conducted 2 months after the restructuring had taken place (n=138), measuring Distributive and Procedural/Interactional justice, as well as satisfaction and organisational commitment. Distributive Justice was found to be a stronger predictor of satisfaction and commitment than procedures. This finding is not in line with the "personal/system hypothesis", according to which Distributive justice is more strongly related to satisfaction with specific outcomes, while procedural justice is more predictive of institutional attitudes. Lowe and Vodanovich argue that this hypothesis may have relied on retrospective judgments of the fairness of procedures and outcomes determined several months earlier, or of organisational procedures in general (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991a) This study, on the other hand, was conducted very shortly after the respective change took place, which might have resulted in outcomes being very salient, and distributive factors being the most important ones. They reason that distributive justice could be expected to be most important immediately after the outcomes are known. Later on procedural justice may become more salient, as in the longer-term perspective people would consider how to maintain outcome patterns. Both procedural and distributive justice had significant main effects in predicting satisfaction scores, but the interaction between them was not a significant predictor. However, the interaction between outcome level (valence) and procedural justice was a significant predictor of normative commitment, but not for satisfaction. The authors propose that "fairness judgments may follow a dynamic

process, with relative significance of the components varying over time" (page 112) and call for longitudinal studies to test this.

A longitudinal study investigating the relative effects of justice over time was finally conducted by Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003), and the findings of this study appear to contradict the tentative hypothesis regarding the relative importance of procedural justice and distributive justice over time made by Lowe and Vodavonich. Ambrose and Cropanzano assessed the perceptions that untenured management professors had of tenure and promotion decisions at three times over a two year period: before, just after, and one year after the decision was made. Procedural justice, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions were measured at all three times, and for the second and third survey, questions on distributive justice and if tenure was received were added. The measure for procedural justice combined items of procedural and informational justice. Procedural/informational justice was found to be most influential on a number of organisational outcomes prior to and soon after the decision, while distributive justice was relatively more influential for attitudes one year later. Possible explanations for these findings could be information acquisition (full consequences only become evident later, new information), and the fact that direct experience with the outcome is acquired only a while after the direct experience with the process was made. Procedural and informational justice dimensions were combined in this study. If they are unique types of justice, they could show a pattern of findings distinct from procedural justice. Future studies may employ separate measures for the four types of justice, in order to investigate if such differences exist. The data was not tested for interaction effects between the predictors. The study results are also interesting in the light of long-term effects: The procedural/informational justice measure at the second point in time (T2) did not predict the final attitudes (T3) beyond the effect of the first measurement of procedural justice/InfJ at T1. These outcomes point towards the possibility that fairness perceptions at a point in time can significantly impact attitudes at a later point in time – which might be moderated by fairness perceptions at this second point in time. Also, T2 Distributive Justice was a significant predictor for T3 commitment and T3 turnover intentions. However, this second long-term effect might also be explained in the light of the specific implications of tenure decisions. Participants who did not get tenure may very pragmatically have had to prepare for leaving the organisation. An analysis of the longitudinal data also showed that for a given level of T2 procedural justice, the relationship between T1 procedural justice and commitment at T2 was negative. Contrast effects were brought forward as explanation for this finding: participants who had felt treated fairly at T1 reacted with lower commitment

when being treated unfairly at T2 than those who had already been treated unfairly at T1. Conversely, participants who thought they were treated unfairly at T1 reported higher commitment at T2 than those who had perceived their treatment at T1 to be fair. This finding appears to be in line with research by Brockner and colleagues on perceived legitimacy of elements of procedural fairness (Brockner et al., 2001). In this context, it might also have been interesting to test for anticipations of justice (e.g. anticipations of distributive justice at T1), in order to test if anticipations and fairness perceptions followed patterns of contrast or assimilation effects.

Without taking away from the value of their findings, it should be noticed that both the Ambrose and Cropanzano and the Lowe and Vodanovich study have focused on one-off-decision events that centre around an outcome decision for an individual (job title / tenure) as opposed to changes that alter "the way things are done" or that introduce a new system (e.g., a new performance appraisal system). Experiences with an outcome of a one-off decision for an individual may be made much quicker than experiences with a different type of change, and the relative importance of the different types of justice may differ. Also, reactions to change may follow different patterns for one-off distribution changes vs. changes in the way how to do things, where the processes of information acquisition, direct experiences and receiving outcomes over time are different. The procedure for making a sole decision like this may be known or not, and procedures and outcomes for this type of change may be much clearer than e.g., process changes, where implementation is lengthy and messy and new information may be received at late stages throughout the project. This must be considered when interpreting the findings.

The salience of procedural justice information may have been a moderator of the relative impact of different organisational justice dimensions over time. Lowe and Vodanovich (1995) point out that there is likely to be a lack of knowledge about procedures among their study participants. The authors estimate that most people in their study did not know the procedures for making decisions (60-70%), which may have contributed to the lower role that procedural justice seemed to play. Past studies have indicated that people simply concentrate on the justice information that is available, and use this information as substitute for other justice dimensions (Van den Bos, 2001). Ambrose and Cropanzano do not mention the degree of knowledge about the process for tenure amongst their study population, and their participants might have been much more aware of the procedures involved than participants in the Lowe study.

This points towards the importance of information acquisition and direct experience (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003) as important in altering the relative impact of

procedural justice and distributive justice over time. Analyses of organisational justice perceptions should consider when consequences of outcomes become evident, which information is acquired when, and how new information such as social accounts may affect previous organisational justice perceptions. Direct experience is another important factor - often individuals go through a process before they receive their outcome, thus they often have experience with an outcome only after the experience with the process. Future longitudinal studies in different contexts and separating out the four dimensions of justice could further advance knowledge about the relative effects of the different fairness dimensions over time.

4.4.4 Qualitative research addressing justice concerns in change

Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis (Saunders, Thornhill, & Lewis, 2002; Thornhill & Saunders, 2003) conducted a case study of a UK public sector organisation, examining positive and negative employee reactions to organisational change within the framework of organisational justice. The research was conducted over a four-year period. The first data collection took place one year after the new organisation was established, and the second data collection three years later. In a card sort exercise people had to choose which emotions they most strongly felt regarding the change. The card sort was followed up by in-depth interviews where the chosen emotions were discussed in the context of the recent changes. A content analysis was conducted that identified distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational fairness considerations that participants voiced when explaining their emotions. The participant population was then divided into a group that experienced mainly positive and mainly negative emotions with regards to the change, respectively. Overall, fairness perceptions along the various organisational justice dimensions were found to differ notably between these two groups although both the overall positive and the overall negative feeling groups considered the overall outcome of the change to be fair. But positive-feeling employees discussed both organisational and personal outcomes, while the more negatively feeling employees focused on personal outcomes only. Also, virtually all participants perceived procedural fairness. The most salient difference between the positive and the negative groups was found when it came to interactional justice dimensions. Here, participants with positive emotions seemed to perceive much more fairness and less unfairness. Particularly the role of communication and the role line managers played appeared to be pivotal. While the emotional reactions of participants were found to be similar at both points of data collection, different reasons were given for positive or negative emotions. Particularly, after the transformational

changes (Saunders et al., 2002), the focus seemed to lie more on outcomes for the organisation as a whole, while after the consequent incremental changes (Thornhill & Saunders, 2003) a local focus was more pronounced.

The findings by Saunders and Thornhill and Lewis (Saunders et al., 2002; Thornhill & Saunders, 2003) indicate that fairness considerations are indeed salient in change, that interpersonal and interactional fairness considerations may play a pivotal role for the experience of organisational change – which may have been obscured by previous conceptions of justice combining procedural and interpersonal factors into one measure. The study also poses the question whether different types of change may elicit different types of referent standards or fairness rules. Answers to this question could potentially reconcile seemingly contradictory findings from different studies.

A longitudinal qualitative study in the context of a merger has been conducted by Searle and Ball (2004). In-depth interviews with merger survivors were conducted at two points in time, and themes of trust and distrust emerged from the data collected. Searle and Ball found that sustaining trust required synergy between what was done and how it was done at an individual level. The interplay between outcomes and procedural/interpersonal justice dimensions appeared crucial for the impact on trust. Justice perceptions were a recurring theme that was useful in differentiating trusting from non-trusting experiences. Particularly interactive justice was found to be important – confirming the findings by Saunders and Thornhill and Lewis (Saunders et al., 2002; Thornhill & Saunders, 2003). Distrust was also promoted through recounting the experiences of others. This study particularly opens up questions about interactive effects between different justice dimensions – if what was done and how it was done together lead to negative reactions, this may point to interaction effects between outcomes and different justice categories over the time span of change. Also, the role of vicarious experiences in change contexts requires further investigation, as re-counting the experiences of others may form an important aspect of sense-making and judgments in change.

4.4.5 Research addressing the role of the expectation of (un)fairness, and temporal-cumulative effects

A study by Davidson and Friedman addresses the impact that a person's previous experiences may have on fairness perceptions of separate events (Davidson & Friedman, 1998). In four scenario studies, Davidson and Friedman investigated the underlying dynamics of the difference between blacks' and whites' responses to social accounts (e.g., excuses, apologies, rational justifications). The race of the manager and of the victim in a

scenario study were varied. Participants assumed the role of arbitrator in a story in which a manager apparently took credit for a subordinate's idea. Participants were then asked about their fairness perceptions and in the end were given reports describing other managers' views on the incidents. Some participants also received an additional report, that provided a reason or excuse for the manager's actions (the manager had been told that the idea would only get consideration if presented as his own). Respondents then reported their fairness perceptions again. Black respondents' perceptions of injustice were not impacted strongly by social accounts when they observed unjust behaviour toward a hypothetical black victim by a white manager. This was especially the case for respondents who reported more personal experience with injustice. Davidson and Friedman termed this the "persistent injustice effect". The effect appeared to result from two factors: in-group identification with the victim and the respondents' personal experiences with injustice. The black managers in the samples had more experience with unjust acts than white managers, and they reported higher levels of expected future injustices. Thus, although previous experiences and the stories recounted in the scenarios were apparently unrelated, there was still an impact from previous justice judgments on the way a different event was judged.

Evidence that previous experiences and expectations can influence fairness perceptions indicates that people are likely to come into any situation with their preconceptions and expectations regarding fairness. Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) coined the expression "anticipatory injustice" (see Chapter Two). In a cross-sectional study with 492 line-level employees from two organisations that had recently (average of four months) implemented self-managing work teams, the impact of anticipations of distributive injustice on employees' reactions was tested. Previous findings indicated that distributive injustice increases the likelihood of negative behaviours and attitudes – consistent with equity theory, which predicts that in case of perceived injustice, employees may reduce their effort or even leave the relationship. Shapiro and Kirkman argue that such negative work behaviours and attitudes (such as lowered productivity and work quality, lower cooperation, stronger turnover intentions, less organisational citizenship behaviours) are likely to occur even when employees anticipate unfair outcomes, without having experienced any unfair outcomes so far in the focal situation. The anticipation of distributive injustice was operationalised through the items: how concerned one is about the fairness of one's pay, promotions, and job assignments in the new team environment. The measure for procedural justice that was employed asked about sincere explanations, sensitivity, honesty, information, and whether assignments are made in fair manner. The measure of procedural justice thus also included items that could be grouped into

informational and interpersonal justice (sincerity, explanations etc). It is thus a combined measure of procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice dimensions.

Shapiro and Kirkman found that the anticipation of distributive injustice was positively related to resistance to change and turnover intentions, and was negatively related to employees' commitment. Procedural justice (combined with interpersonal/informational elements) was found to mitigate the relationship: When respondents perceived procedural unfairness, then greater levels of anticipated distributive injustice were accompanied by greater resistance, but when procedural fairness was perceived, then this relationship did not hold. The same pattern was found for commitment. This finding proposes again the existence of interaction effects between the different dimensions of justice – while most extant empirical contributions have investigated main effects. However, procedural justice did not curb all the effects of anticipated distributive injustice. The authors call for future studies to distinguish procedural and interpersonal justice, to see which type of justice may curb the effects of anticipatory distributive injustice. Also, future research may consider controlling for anticipations of outcome valence, as interaction effects may in fact be due to expected outcome positivity (2.4.6). Also, the authors question whether they indeed measured respondents' anticipation or actual experiences of injustice. Only teams that had been in existence for less than six months were included in the survey. However, while participants had no direct experience with promotion and pay yet, they are likely to have had at least some experience with job assignments in the new set-up. Longitudinal designs will be needed to investigate separately the relative impact of anticipations as opposed to actual experience. Future longitudinal studies might wish to investigate interactive effects of the different anticipated and perceived dimensions of justice over time.

Shapiro and Kirkman's findings indicate that the anticipation of injustice can already have very similar effects to the actual perception of injustice. Longitudinal studies will need to be conducted to find out a) if the anticipation actually results in later perception (as proposed by the authors), and b) in how far the anticipation determines behavioural reactions at later points in time – and whether this relationship is mediated by subsequent perceptions of justice. In particular, a longitudinal study to investigate this could address concerns about anticipation measures being affected by actual experience with change outcomes by measuring before implementation begins.

The dynamics of fairness perceptions and anticipatory/cumulative effects over time can be seen in the larger context of exchange relationships. Cropanzano and Prehar (2001) have advocated psychological contracts as a dynamic concept to utilize in research

when investigating dynamics of fairness and how standards of right and wrong evolve in work settings. They define contract as "a shared belief that one person will perform (or withhold) some actions in return for a reciprocal gesture by another individual" (P 247).

Cumulative effects over time are expected when taking this perspective: "fairness perceptions carry over into the formation of new psychological contracts once the old ones are broken. [...] Violations of contracts lead to feelings of injustice which, in turn, affect the forging of new contracts." (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001, P 251) This view further supports previous findings indicating that fairness perceptions of various events and at different points in time within an exchange relationship may be related, and that fairness perceptions of any one event are likely to carry over into and have an impact on later fairness evaluations.

Recently published research by Tekleab, Takeuchi and Taylor (2005) investigated the mediating role of psychological contract violations in a longitudinal study over a total of 6 years (3 data points with 3 years time span between them). The study was conducted as part of a study examining changes in a performance management system at a large university in the US. At T1, the procedural fairness of the performance management system was assessed through of two item-measure: "overall evaluation of fairness of system", and "satisfied with the way performance evaluations are done" (the second item may confound procedural justice with satisfaction), and interactional justice measures included items of interpersonal sensitivity (interpersonal justice, e.g., "honest in dealing with me") and voice granted by supervisor ("considered my views"). Perceived organisational support and Leader Member Exchange were also measured at time one. Procedural justice was found to be related to Perceived Organisational Support and interactional justice was found to be related to Leader Member Exchange. At time two, contract violations, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions were measured. At time 3, turnover was measured. Perceived organisational support at T1 was found to be related to perceived contract violations at T2, and Leader Member Exchange at T1 was related to job satisfaction at T2. Job satisfaction was related to turnover intentions, and to turnover (measured at Time 3).

These results propose that fairness perceptions (procedural justice and interactional justice) early on in the changes were related to the quality of the exchange relationship and reactions even at much later stages. However, it would have been useful to have measures for procedural justice and interactional justice at later stages also to see the change and development in fairness perceptions, and whether this change explained the outcomes beyond the explanatory power of initial levels. Thus, while there are indications

for long-term effects, the study does not give much insight into the processes between fairness perceptions and outcomes over time (as fairness perceptions are measured at one point in time only). We don't know if or in how far the impact of earlier justice perceptions on the exchange relationship might have been mediated by later justice perceptions, or if maybe the change in exchange relationship was independent of a change in justice perceptions.

4.4.6 Specific research interest of this study

The contributions reviewed above generally confirm that fairness perceptions are related to the reactions of people experiencing organisational change, and that perceived justice during change may co-determine a host of organisationally relevant outcomes. Also, the contributions point towards the possibility that anticipation of fairness or unfairness of a change can have similar consequences as the fairness perceptions after the fact (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999).

In most of the above contributions, only two or three dimensions of fairness were differentiated or included within the same study. This practice may obscure both main and interaction effects of the four dimensions of fairness. The effects of anticipated justice have so far only been investigated for distributive justice, and remain to be explored for procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. Furthermore, anticipated and perceived fairness of the same dimensions have up to now never been investigated in the same study, hindering insights into the relative impact and role of anticipations.

This study is concerned with investigating individual reactions to organisational change over time through an organisational justice framework. I have decided to include both anticipations of fairness and perceptions of fairness into my study of individual experience of and reactions to change and to consider all four dimensions of justice separately. For reasons outlined in chapter three, I have chosen intentions to resist and intentions to support change as outcome variables for my analyses. The terms are central to manager concerns, and meaningful to practitioners.

4.5 Research model

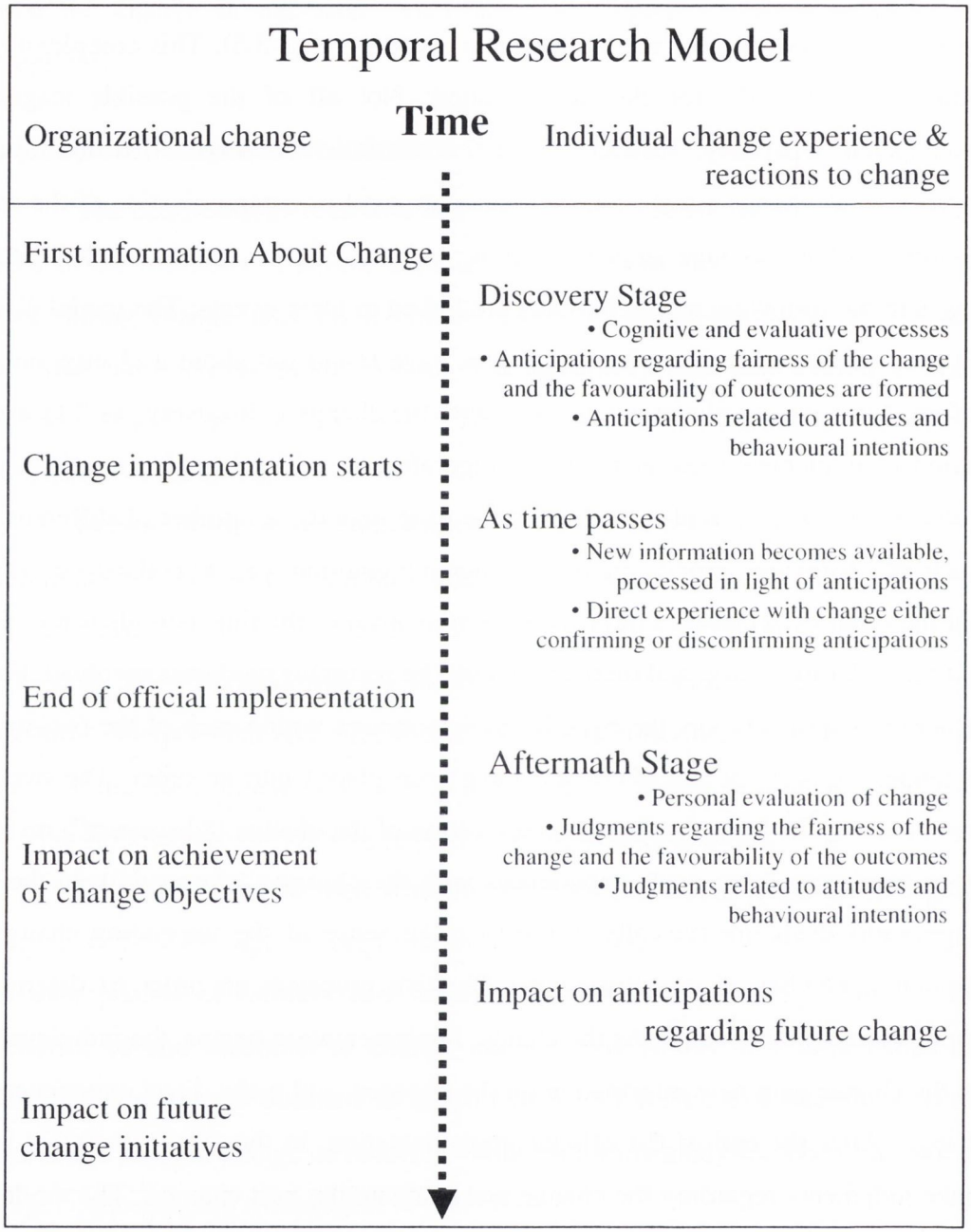
Drawing on the contributions reviewed above and in previous chapters, I have developed a broad model of justice perceptions, justice anticipations and employee reactions in the context of change. The overall research model is too broad and complex to be investigated fully in this study, but will be presented in the following in order to put my

concrete research questions and contributions into context. Specific hypotheses to guide my empirical investigation are developed throughout the model.

The model describes in a simplified chronological order how an employee may typically experience and react to organisational change from an organisational justice perspective (at the individual level). Individual stage models of change typically distinguished four or five stages of change experience (3.3.5). This complexity has been reduced significantly for this investigation: Not all of the possible stages will be investigated separately. Instead I have concentrated on stages tied to three discrete "cornerstone" change events: the first announcement or communication of the change, the beginning of the change implementation, and the official end of implementation. The stages in the following research model are linked to these events: The model distinguishes between (a) the stage just after employees have found out about a change initiative and before they have any direct experiences with the change ("discovery" or T1), (b) the time period of implementation, and (c) the stage after the official implementation is finalized ("aftermath" or T2). Within each of these time periods, a number of different processes (such as information processing or experiencing emotions) are hypothesized to take place. But the order of occurrence of processes within each of the time periods is not clear and in fact the order may vary, and there might even be recursive processes involved. For the sake of clarity of presentation, the hypothesized processes within each of the two time periods of interest (discovery and aftermath) have been placed into an order. The overall model time frame spans from the first communication of the change ("discovery") up to the time when employees have made experiences with the change ("aftermath"). In the discovery stage, individuals are typically trying to make sense of the impending changes and go through a number of cognitive and evaluative processes in order to determine likely implications of the change. As the change implementation begins, the individuals affected by the change gain new information on the changes, and make direct experiences with the change. After the end of the official implementation, in the aftermath stage, individuals make judgments regarding the change and evaluate the past changes. The model does not differentiate between the different stages that could lie between the discovery and aftermath changes. Future contributions may benefit from further differentiation of these stages. Given that consequent changes may be impacted by attitudes and judgments formed during any one change, the model proposes that there may also be implications for future changes.

In the following sections I present the overall model, and develop the concrete hypotheses and questions that will be directly addressed by my empirical investigation. Figure 4-1 provides an overview of the model that will be described in more detail below.

Figure 4-1 Temporal research model



4.5.1 "Discovery"

The chosen starting phase of the research model is the moment when an employee finds out that a new change project or initiative is to take place in his or her organisation. (Note that this step will take place for all hierarchy levels except for the people who originally came up with the idea of and the decision for the change.) This stage is termed "discovery" in Hay and Haertel's model (2000). The phase termed discovery in

the following spans the time from communication up to making first hands-on experiences with the change. (In the operationalization of this research model, the discovery stage will be labelled T1)

4.5.1.1 Finding out that a change is going to happen

The communication regarding the impending change could come from management or through the grapevine, or through any other channel such as the media. The method of discovery and the completeness of the information may have an effect on how employees perceive the change and the change agent (Hay & Haertel, 2000). The individuals who expect to be affected by the change will feel the need for dealing with the insecurity of the imminent changes and for making sense of the new situation (Weick, 1995). Depending on how much information is given, rumours might be an important part of reality construction (Isabella, 1990). In this stage, after the communication of a change and before actual experience, particularly references to past similar events are likely to guide interpretation (Isabella, 1990). Responsibility and blame for the change are attributed, which impacts the emotional reaction to implementation (Hay & Haertel, 2000). The emotional characteristics of employees such as optimism, negative affectivity, emotional reactivity, or agreeableness may impact the individual emotional reaction. The organisational environment (culture, climate, economic reality) and overall context can also have an effect on attribution and on emotional reactions. Informational cues about the change attribution may be gained from various sources, and can also re-initiate the attribution-emotion sequence. Informational cues have an effect on attributions (Hay & Haertel, 2000).

Both individual cognitive and evaluative processes and social information processing are likely to trigger and shape justice judgments as heuristics that help to reduce uncertainty and enable one to make a quick decision whether to collaborate or not (Lind, 2002). Anticipations regarding the fairness of the impending change will be formed, both individually (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001) and shared in social interaction (Lamertz, 2002)..

4.5.1.2 Fairness anticipations regarding the impending change are formed

Anticipatory injustice concerns along all four dimensions of justice are expected to arise as a new change is expected: As employees become concerned whether the distributions for outcomes and the criteria underlying distributions could change (Beugre, 1998), distributive justice concerns are likely to be triggered. Equally, employees may be

wondering whether they will have the opportunity to participate in decision making, to voice their opinion, or to appeal unfair outcomes (Beugre, 1998; Novelli et al., 1995). They are also likely to have expectations regarding their managers' sensitivity and politeness in implementing changes (Novelli et al., 1995). Furthermore, there may be concerns about being given sufficient information and explanations about the changes (Beugre, 1998).

The formation of these anticipations is expected to be impacted by the communication content and style of the change communication (and in particular any clues on outcomes, procedures, treatment, information policies that are given in this communication) and by general perceptions and previous experiences of fairness in the same exchange relationship – either fairness of the organisation, or fairness of the change agents (as indicated by the psychological contracts literature, see e.g., Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001). Other factors impacting anticipations may be previous experiences in other contexts (Davidson & Friedman, 1998), personal propensities (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), vicarious experiences, rumours, and reputations (Searle & Ball, 2004) and views and judgments of peers and colleagues (Lamertz, 2002).

4.5.1.3 Anticipation related to attitudes and behavioural intentions

Models of individual change propose that people tend to have negative emotions and reactions to impending changes (Burke, 2002; Jaffe et al., 1994), and that "people can react even to the possibility of change" (Kanter et al., 1992, P 460) . However, research conducted in the planning stages of change (Korsgaard et al., 2002) indicates that negative reactions can be avoided if fairness is perceived early on. Anticipatory injustice research suggests that the anticipated fairness of a change effort is one of the factors that determine if employees support or reject an initiative from the outset (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999).

Overall, fairness anticipations are expected to be related to emotions, cognitions, and behaviours, including attitudes to the change and the change agent, and may impact the overall exchange relationship with the organisation and the change agent, including variables such as perceived organisational support or leader-member exchange. Importantly, as proposed by fairness heuristics theory (Lind, 2001), the anticipation of fairness in the discovery stage helps people to make a decision how to act towards the changes. "The potentially deleterious effects of organizational injustice may not occur only when injustice has occurred. Rather, negative work-related attitudes and behaviours are likely when employees anticipate that injustice may occur" (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001, P 164). Similar or even identical effects to the ones that have been found for justice perceptions, are expected to be found for justice anticipations.

According to equity theory (Adams, 1965), under circumstances of distributive injustice, employees could either reduce their work effort or quit, in order to restore equity. Following this line of thinking, withdrawal is a likely outcome of distributive injustice in change. Also, negative evaluations of the organisation resulting from perceived distributive injustice can provoke negative reactions (Folger, 1987). Withdrawal and negative reactions are likely to be termed resistance in the context of change. The same or at least similar consequences are expected for anticipated distributive injustice, and this relationship has been confirmed (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). Little empirical research has so far addressed the other dimensions of anticipatory injustice. However, we can expect similar effects for these dimensions as well, paralleling the findings in the justice literature: Colquitt and colleagues (2001) found in their meta-review that withdrawal and negative reactions (which may be expressed through passive and active resistance in organisational change) were equally correlated with all four types of organisational justice: "negative reactions can occur because of purely cognitive evaluations of the merits of the organization as a whole or as strong emotional reactions to one's own treatment", and: "withdrawal can occur as a result of a thorough, reasoned evaluation of the organization as a system or on a more 'spur of the moment' basis in reaction to an unsatisfactory outcome or poor interpersonal treatment by an authority" (Colquitt et al., 2001: P. 430). The meta-reviews found that the agent-system model seems to underestimate the effects of interpersonal and informational justice for behaviour: Interpersonal and informational justice were strong predictor of OCBs, withdrawal and negative reactions. Interpersonal justice is linked to withdrawal behaviours, organisational commitment and other organisational outcomes (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2000). A similar impact on behaviours is expected to hold in the context of change.

The absence of adequate explanations has been linked to decreased cooperation (Colquitt, 2001), retaliatory behaviour (Greenberg, 1990a), and withdrawal reactions such as turnover intentions (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991b). Explanations have been shown to promote cooperation or reduce retaliation or withdrawal in a number of contexts (Shaw et al., 2003). It can therefore be expected that adequate explanations increase cooperation and reduce resistance behaviours in situations or organisational change. Cobb, Folger and Wooten (1995) point out that accounts, or explanations and excuses, are expected to reduce outrage and retribution behaviours associated with negative change outcomes.

The decision whether to resist or support the change is also likely to take into account an assessment of the impact of resistance/support, an assessment of the effort required to resist/support, and an assessment of the risks involved (Hay & Haertel, 2000).

4.5.1.4 Hypothesis 1

Taking the above findings into account, the following hypotheses specify the expected relationship between the anticipation of fairness and intentions to support/resist the change during the Discovery stage of change:

Hypothesis 1A

+ A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice regarding a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 1B

+ A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice regarding a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 1 C

+ A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice regarding a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 1 D

+ A higher degree of anticipated informational justice regarding a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- A higher degree of anticipated informational justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

The theoretical models and empirical evidence reviewed above do not provide clear guidance regarding the relative impact of the different justice dimensions on various outcomes. The outcomes resistance and support are relatively broad categories of behavioural intentions, and may be directed both against the decision-making agent or against the decision-making system – thus the agent-system model (see section 2.6.1) provides no clear guidance in this case. Various models (distributive dominance, two-

factor model, interaction model, agent-system model) compete in explaining which dimension of fairness is expected to be most influential when it comes to a certain type of outcomes (see chapter 2). The two-factor model was not supported for withdrawal and negative reactions, which appear to be directly related to resistance in the context of change. The distributive dominance model received little support in general. Given the competing predictions derived from these models, and the distinct lack of empirical evidence to ground a prediction, I decided to treat this question as an open empirical question. Thus, I am not formulating a set of competing hypotheses regarding the relative impact of the four dimensions of anticipatory justice on resistance and support. The collected data may provide a basis for resolving this issue.

4.5.1.5 The role of the positivity of outcome expectations

In chapter 2, outcome favourability was mentioned as having both main and interaction effects on individual reactions to outcomes. In general, people react more positively to favourable outcomes , and people have been shown to be more influenced by procedural elements when their outcomes are relatively unfavourable (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). This relationship was found for elements of procedural, informational and interpersonal justice elements (Brockner et al., 2001, p 193; Colquitt & Chertkoff, 2002). The effects between the elements of justice investigated and outcome positivity have been found to be multiplicative: When both outcomes and fairness elements are negative, people react particularly badly (Brockner et al., 2001). But Brockner and colleagues point out that while extant research has focused on the effects of, and moderating influences on, process control and decision control and interactional justice, currently we have little empirical evidence regarding the Levenhal procedural elements of consistency, correctability, and accuracy, and future research remains to be conducted to test for interaction effects with these (Brockner et al., 2001). Explanations brought forward for the moderating influence of outcome positivity were firstly that people's sense making activities are more focused on elements of fairness when outcomes are negative. When outcomes are unfavourable, procedural fairness is very informative. Secondly, it was proposed that procedural, interpersonal and informational fairness provide people with proxy information regarding the trustworthiness of the other party.

Even though not included in reviews of interactions between outcome favourability and justice elements, there might also be an interactive effect between outcome positivity and distributive justice. Inequity appears to matter more for people's

reactions when the inequity (i.e. outcomes) are negative rather than positive (Greenberg, 1982).

I therefore hypothesize that expected outcome favourability will have both a direct impact on people's reactions to change (main effect), but also moderate the effects of fairness perceptions such that fairness perceptions will have a stronger influence on people's reactions when outcomes are expected to be negative rather than positive. A moderating effect is understood here as "an interaction between a focal independent variable and a factor that specifies the appropriate conditions for its operation" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, P 1174). Similarly, the subjective importance of the outcome may have both main and interactive effects on individual reactions. Following the reasoning underlying the role of outcome favourability, increased sense making activities are expected for more important outcomes. Therefore, it is expected that stronger justice effects are likely to occur for more important outcomes. The potential existence of interaction effects bears important notions for empirical studies, as "perceived outcome favourability differs from individuals' perceptions of procedural fairness, their impact cannot be studied in isolation from one another. The effects of procedural justice on individuals' reactions to a decision depend on the level of outcome favourability, similarly, individuals' reactions to outcome favourability depends on the degree of procedural fairness with which the decision is planned and implemented" (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996, P 190).

The hypothesised effects of anticipatory injustice along the four dimensions of justice should therefore be studied in relation to expected outcome favourability of the change, and in relation to the extent to which individuals feel affected by the change.

4.5.2 Implementation and "Aftermath" of the change

As time passes, new information is likely to become available. Individuals undergoing the change are likely to make first hand experiences with the change. They experience how they are treated during the change, find out what their personal outcomes are, get an impression of the procedures used, and experience if they are kept informed or not throughout the changes. Isabella (1990) terms the time when individuals are personally being affected by the event "culmination" stage. Finally, after a long enough passage of time or the occurrence of derivative events, the individual feels the need for personal closure and evaluation. This is the beginning of the aftermath stage, in which evaluation of consequences serve to construct reality. In the following, the aftermath stage means the time after the official implementation of the change has been completed, and individuals

should have first hand experience with the results of the changes. (In the operationalization of this research model, the aftermath stage will be labelled T2).

4.5.2.1 Fairness judgments after experienced change

The implementation of the change, and the outcomes received in the change may either correspond to or contradict anticipations – and frequently there may be a mix of confirmed and disconfirmed anticipations and also non-anticipated events, issues, and treatments in the change. When the change experience is not fully in line with anticipations, the difference can be positive ("it is better than expected"), negative ("worse than expected"), or both, leading to ambivalent experiences. We do not have much clarity at present as to when contrast or assimilation effects are more likely to take place (2.5.1.3).

In general, people have the tendency to see what they expect to see – as has been described in phenomena such as "confirmatory bias" (Snyder & Swann, 1978), or as the "halo effect" (for reviews see Balzer & Sulsky, 1992). Unless people have unequivocal, objective evidence to indicate otherwise, they are likely to see what they expect to see. As long as people can ignore contradictory information, they may not revise original fairness anticipations. Anticipation of unjust treatment or outcomes can therefore bring about the perception of injustice, while anticipation of justice might bring about the perception of fair treatment later on, as long as there is no strong evidence to the contrary.

This view is also supported by fairness heuristics theory, which assumes a relative endurance or stability of fairness judgments (Lind, 2001). Once the general fairness judgment that can serve as a shortcut for decision making, the fairness heuristic, is built, people try to interpret all incoming fairness information in a way as to make it compatible to the heuristic. According to this theory, the fairness heuristics change only when there are either 1) signs of changing relationship, or 2) unexpected/ un-reconcilable treatment (Lind, 2001). In particular, fairness heuristics research has shown that the information that comes first exerts a stronger influence on judgments than information that comes second (Primacy effect). Quickly formed fairness judgments can be changed by information received later on, but not as easily as is the case for early information (Van den Bos, Lind and Wilke 2001). The information that serves to construct the anticipation of justice could thus be more powerful than information that comes in later, during the change.

Psychological contracts literature and research also illustrates how fairness perceptions at different points in time within an exchange relationship are interconnected. Fairness perceptions at any one point are likely to carry over into and have an impact on

later evaluations (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001). The social information processing aspects underlying fairness judgments would further support this relative stability. As long as the social environment is relatively stable over time, the social information processing effects taking place among peers are likely to increase stability. Lamertz (2002) found that the perceptions of procedural justice were significantly associated with corresponding peer perceptions. Socially constructed judgments appear to be less fickle than individually generated ones.

Drawing on the arguments and literature presented above, the anticipation of fairness developed from the outset is expected to be somewhat durable, will only be revised reluctantly, and only if clear information or experience to the contrary becomes available in a way that cannot be ignored.

This relationship has already been proposed by Shapiro and Kirkman (1999), who predict that the anticipation of (un-)fairness is likely to results in later perception of (un-)fairness. This prediction remains to be empirically investigated. In this research model, it is predicted that assimilation effects (anticipatory injustice effects) are going to be stronger than contrast effects. Thus, the perceptions of the fairness of change in the aftermath phase of the change are expected to be related to the anticipation of the changes in the discovery stage, as formalised in hypothesis 2:

4.5.2.2 Hypothesis 2

This set of hypotheses states that the anticipatory injustice perceptions in the discovery stage of change (T1) will be related to justice perceptions in the aftermath stage (T2). The mechanisms of stability illustrated above are independent of the type of justice, and are expected to hold for all four dimensions of organisational justice:

Hypothesis 2 A

A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage is positively related to a higher degree of perceived distributive justice in the aftermath stage of change.

Hypothesis 2 B

A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage is positively related to a higher degree of perceived procedural justice in the aftermath stage of change.

Hypothesis 2 C

A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage is positively related to a higher degree of perceived interpersonal justice in the aftermath stage of change.

Hypothesis 2 D

A higher degree of anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage is positively related to a higher degree of perceived informational justice in the aftermath stage of change.

4.5.2.3 The role of the strength of the justice judgment

Attitude research has found that not all attitudes are equally stable over time, and the concept of attitude strength has been developed to account for the varying stability of attitudes (Krosnick, Boninger, Chuang, Berent, & Carnot, 1993). People's attitudes are much more susceptible to context effects when they are weak (Lavine, Huff, Wagner, & Sweeney, 1998). Strong attitudes are typically based on an issue of importance, on substantial knowledge, and are held with certainty. Operationalizations of attitude strength have included the importance, certainty, intensity, frequency of thought, extremity and ambivalence of the attitude (Krosnick et al., 1993).

A first example of the use of attitude strength in the justice literature is a study on antecedents and consequences of procedural justice climate in teams (Colquitt et al., 2002). The climate level (average procedural justice perceptions in team) was found to be related to both team performance and team absenteeism. The effects of climate level were moderated by climate strength, so that the relationships were more beneficial in stronger climates. Climate strength was operationalised here as within-group variance (less variance = stronger climate).

When investigating justice judgments over time, the moderating effects of attitude strength of justice judgments may help to explain differences in effects. Organisational justice studies have typically not accounted for the importance, centrality, or strength of the justice judgments. Future research may consider this element, as it may help predict patterns over time as well as strength of effect on reactions. Following research on attitude strength, organisational justice judgments are likely to be weaker when individuals are ambivalent, when they don't have much information, or when the underlying issue is of little importance and impact. Social information processing may also play a role here, as congruence with views of peers should lead to less ambivalence. The

strength of the relationship stated in hypothesis 2 may depend on the strength of the justice judgment.

4.5.2.4 Attitudes and reactions towards the change in aftermath stage

The most straightforward interpretation of the justice literature proposes that the perceived fairness of a change is linked to emotional, attitudinal, and behavioural outcomes towards the change and the change agent. Particularly, positive perceived fairness is likely to decrease employee resistance and improve employee support in situations of organisational change (Beugre, 1998; Cobb et al., 1995; Novelli et al., 1995; Paterson & Cary, 2002). The literature referred to when justifying hypotheses 1 is equally relevant at this stage.

The perception of the fairness of change in the aftermath stage (along all four dimensions of fairness) is expected to be related to attitudes and behaviours towards the change and the change agent, and to the quality and nature of the exchange relationship with organisation and change agent at that same point in time.

4.5.2.5 Hypothesis 3

This set of hypotheses states that the perceived fairness of an experienced change initiative in the aftermath stage will be related positively to intentions to support the change and negatively to intentions to resist the change at that time.

The arguments and empirical evidence presented to support hypothesis 1 are also supporting this hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3A

+ Perceived distributive justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- Perceived distributive justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 3B

+ Perceived procedural justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- Perceived procedural justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 3 C

+ Perceived interpersonal justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- Perceived interpersonal justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 3 D

+ Perceived informational justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

- Perceived informational justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Relative magnitude of the intentions to support and resist change at discovery and aftermath stages?

Some of the individual change models (Isabella, 1990; Jaffe et al., 1994) propose that typically people start to "accept the change and begin to look for ways to meet the challenge" (Jaffe et al., 1994, P 174) as they are going through change. People may overcome their resistance and react more positively towards the change as time passes, they can make sense of the changes, and successfully cope with any loss involved. According to this literature, intentions to support change should be higher in the aftermath stage than in the discovery stage, and intentions to resist should be lower. I make no hypothesis regarding this effect of magnitude, but hypothesize that even if there should be an overall tendency towards more positive reactions to planned change over time, then the degree to which people will react more positively or not is still related to perceptions of fairness along the four dimensions of organisational justice. The analyses of the hypotheses may also give a first indication as to the relative magnitude of the effects intentions to support and intentions to resist in the discovery and the aftermath stages.

We do not know much about the relative impact of the different dimensions of fairness at different stages of organisational change. Past studies propose the existence of long-term and short-term effects and of a change of relative importance over the course of change project, but findings so far are contradictory (see e.g., Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995). I have therefore chosen not to formulate hypotheses regarding the relative importance of the four dimensions of anticipatory injustice perceptions, or the changing weight of the four dimensions of organisational justice in determining resistance to or support for change over time. However, supplemental

analyses of the data collected to test the four hypotheses may provide insights into the question of relative import and weight of the four dimensions of organisational justice at the two points in time. Equally, at present there is insufficient evidence to make predictions regarding the question whether the interaction between different organisational justice dimensions may be a significant predictor of resistance and support.

4.5.2.6 The role of outcome favourability

As elaborated above for the discovery stage (4.5.1), the perceived positivity of outcomes of the change and the perceived impact of the change at the aftermath stage is expected to have both a direct impact on people's reactions to change (main effect), but also moderate the effects of fairness perceptions such that fairness perceptions will have a stronger influence on people's reactions when outcomes are perceived to be negative rather than positive and when the impact of the change is perceived to be high rather than low.

4.5.2.7 Long-term effects of anticipation on attitudes and behaviours

In hypothesis 2 it was proposed that justice anticipations formed in the discovery stage of change will be enduring and impact justice judgments up to and into the aftermath stage of change. It can also be expected that the attitudes and the new views on the exchange relationship, as well as behavioural intentions formed in the discovery stage of change are also slow to change and will exhibit some stability.

Attitudes have an effect on information processing: Festinger's (1957) selective exposure hypothesis proposes that people will seek out information that confirms their attitudes and avoid information that would contradict their attitudes. Equally, the "unreliable phenomenon" may affect information processing through effects on memory: people have been found to better remember attitudinally congruent information (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1972). These effects propose that the overall attitude that goes with intentions to support or resist change, respectively, is likely to influence the consequent information processing of the individual that has the attitudes, and therefore exhibit some stability over time.

Past research has also found that one of the most robust predictors of behaviours is past behaviour (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Behavioural intentions are defined as attitudes in this dissertation, but are closely related to behaviours (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987).

4.5.2.8 Hypothesis 4

Therefore, it is expected that behavioural intentions formed in the discovery stage of change will be related to behavioural intentions up to and into the aftermath stage of change. This relationship is expected to hold for both intentions to support change and for intentions to resist change.

Hypothesis 4 A

Intentions to support change in the discovery stage of organisational change are positively related to intentions to support change in the aftermath stage.

Hypothesis 4 B

Intentions to resist change in the discovery stage of organisational change are positively related to intentions to resist change in the aftermath stage.

An overview of hypotheses 1 to 4 is presented in Figure **4-2: Hypotheses 1 to 4**

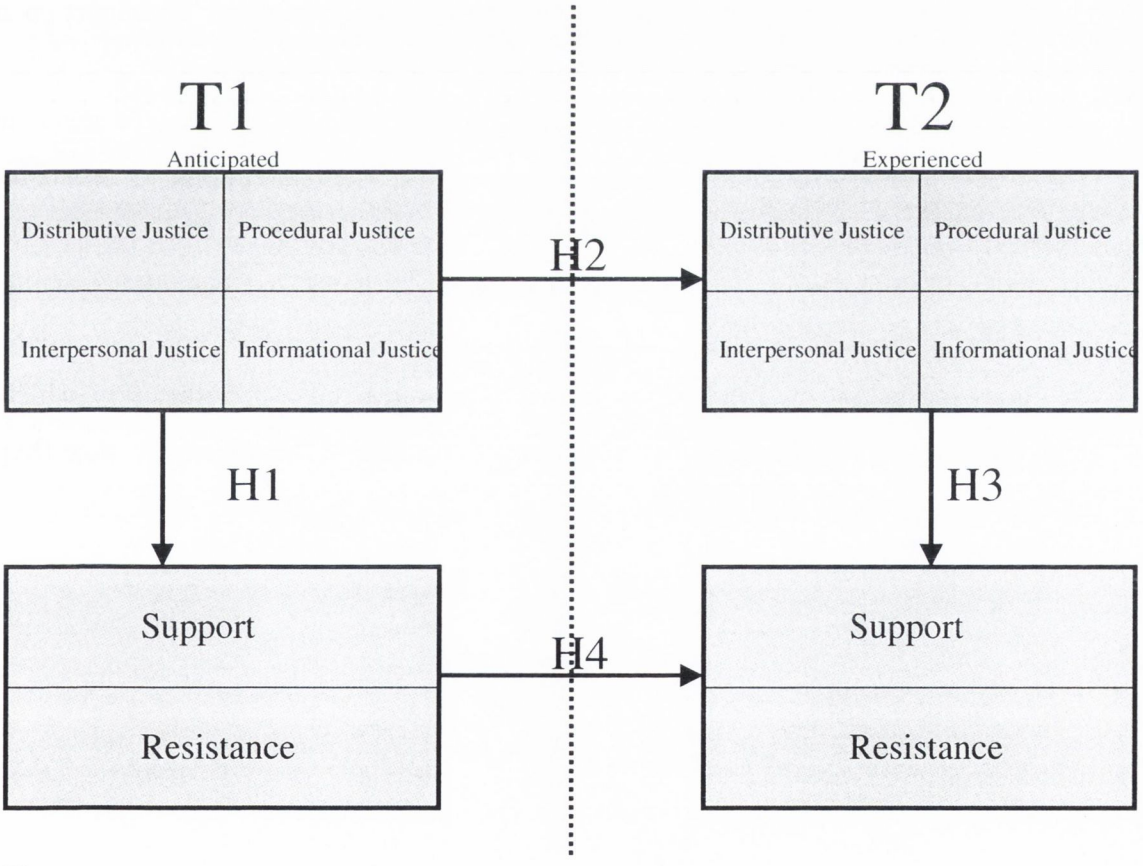


Figure **4-2: Hypotheses 1 to 4**

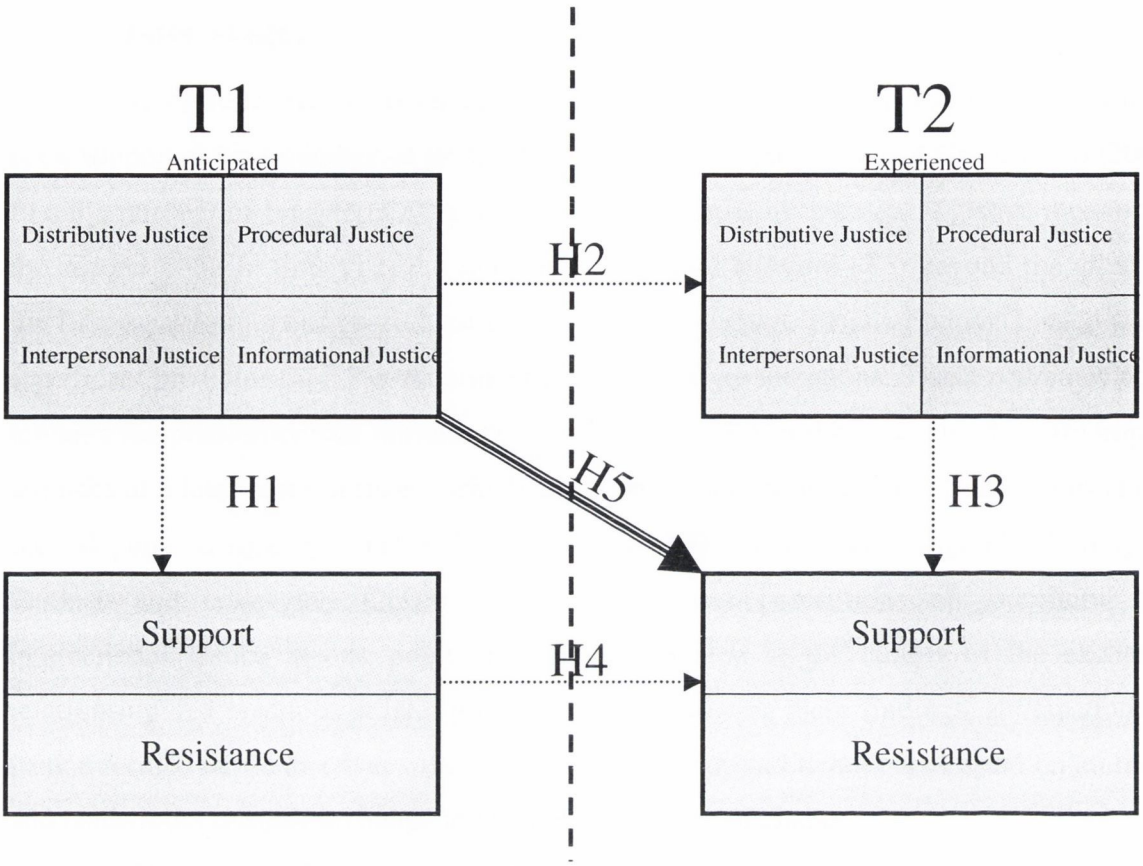
4.5.2.9 Impact of anticipatory justices via two mediators onto attitudes at later stages

Long-term effects from justice judgments onto attitudes and behaviours have been supported by a number of perspectives and studies. Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003) found a number of long-term effects, e.g., the procedural/informational justice measure at the second point in time (T2) did not predict the final attitudes (T3) beyond the effect of the first measurement of procedural justice/InfJ at T1. Also, T2 Distributive Justice was a significant predictor for T3 commitment and T3 turnover intentions. These outcomes point towards the possibility that fairness perceptions at a point in time can significantly impact attitudes at a later point in time – which might be moderated by fairness perceptions at this second point in time. (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003) The recent longitudinal study by Tekleab and colleagues (2005) found that fairness perceptions of procedural and interactional justice at one point in time were related to the quality of the exchange relationship and reactions at later points in time. Following these findings, anticipations of justice formed in the discovery stage of change are expected to have an impact on attitudes and behaviours towards a change at the aftermath stage of change.

The previously stated hypotheses propose two mechanisms of the connection between anticipations of fairness in discovery stage and intentions to resist/support in aftermath stage. Firstly, anticipations of justice are expected to impact later justice perceptions (hypothesis 2), which in turn impact attitudes and behaviours at these later stages (hypothesis 3). Secondly, anticipations of justice in the discovery stage are related to attitudes and behavioural intentions formed in the same stage (hypothesis 1), which in turn exhibit a certain stability and thus also impact attitudes in the aftermath stage (hypothesis 4). (

Figure 4-3: Hypothesis 5 provides an overview of hypotheses 1 to 5.)

Figure 4-3: Hypothesis 5



4.5.2.10 Hypothesis 5

This set of hypotheses states that anticipatory injustice perceptions in the discovery stage of change will be related to reactions to change in the aftermath stage, and that this relationship is mediated by justice perceptions in the aftermath stage and mediated by behavioural intentions in the discovery stage. [1]

Hypothesis 5 A

+ Anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage of planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

[1] Although the hypotheses 1 to 4 are pre-requirements for a mediator relationship to hold, the assumption of a mediator relationship has further requirements, such that the relationship between the variables anticipations of justice perceptions in discovery stage and reactions in aftermath stage needs to be strongly decreased when controlling for the paths via the hypothesised mediators. (This hypothesis is therefore not simply a restatement of hypotheses 1 to 4.

- Anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

Hypothesis 5 B

+ Anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

- Anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

Hypothesis 5 C

+ Anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

- Anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

Hypothesis 5D

+ Anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

- Anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

At present we do not have sufficient knowledge to make any hypotheses regarding the relative strength of the two mediators. Supplemental analyses of the data collected to test the above hypotheses is expected to give further insights regarding the question of relative mediator impact.

4.5.2.11 The achievement of change objectives

The intentions to resist or support change are linked to contextual performance, arising from personality and motivation, rather than having an impact on task performance, resulting from cognitive ability, skill and experience (Fletcher, 2001). Contextual performance includes for example non-job specific behaviours such as cooperation, enthusiasm, and persistence, and seems to be increasingly important in today's work environments. Particularly, contextual performance contributes to organisational goal attainment (Fletcher, 2001) – which, in the case of organisational change, is the successful implementation of the changes and achievement of the objectives of the changes. Overall, the reactions of the individuals undergoing the change are expected to be related to whether the change achieves the objectives it was set out to achieve and whether the change will be durable or not (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1999).

4.5.3 Impact on future change initiatives

Research indicates that previous unrelated events and justice experience can carry over into later justice judgments (Davidson & Friedman, 1998), a view supported by the psychological contracts literature (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001).

Attitudes and justice judgments formed in the course of a particular change initiative may impact reactions to consequent changes, in particular through affecting anticipations of justice for future change initiatives.

4.6 Summary of research questions and hypotheses

The above research model sets the stage for my empirical investigation of individual experiences of and reactions to organisational change, from a justice perspective.

The overall interest of this study is to gain insights into individual reactions to organisational change. An organisational justice perspective has been proposed, and this study also hopes to evaluate the suitability and comprehensiveness of this framework in explaining reactions to organisational change. Expectations, past experiences and the role of outcomes have been identified as elements that deserve particular attention in this context. Drawing on extant research and literature, five core hypotheses were developed and presented in the research model above. These hypotheses concern the relationships between anticipatory and perceived fairness perceptions, and behavioural intentions to resist or support change at different points in time. Testing the five hypotheses will form the core of my empirical investigation.

The data collected to test these hypotheses may also shed light on some additional (explorative) questions, e.g., the relative impact of the different dimensions of fairness perceptions onto support or resistance at the two different points in time, or the relative impact of anticipations vs. perceptions at later stages, or the relative impact of different mediators of fairness anticipation. However, the general and fundamental questions at the heart of this research are of a more exploratory nature, reflecting the relatively early stages of research investigating fairness perceptions in change contexts: What makes people support or resist change? How comprehensive is the organisational justice framework in the investigation of the link between people's experience of change and reactions to change? What is the role of past experiences, expectations and outcomes in relation to people's justice perceptions and reactions? A deeper discussion of these questions will benefit from the hypothesis testing, but requires rich data and inductive approaches. Therefore, both inductive and deductive approaches will be combined in this investigation. The core of the research – the testing of the five hypotheses – is of deductive nature, but will be complemented through inductive approaches. The next chapter will give a detailed overview of the methodology and methods chosen for this study.

5 Methodology

5.1 Introduction and Overview

The principal aim of the current study is to investigate employees' experience of and reactions to organisational change through an organisational justice perspective. Based on the review of extant research and literature I developed a number of hypotheses. These hypotheses address the relationship between anticipated and perceived fairness of change along the four dimensions of organisational justice and the intentions to resist the change or support the change, at different phases of planned change (discovery and aftermath stages).

To test the hypotheses and address the additional questions formulated in the previous chapter, I collected empirical data on employees' fairness anticipations and perceptions as well as data on intentions to support or resist the changes during the discovery and aftermath stages of planned change. In order to put the hypothesis testing into context, and to address the supplementary questions developed in the last chapter, additional data was also collected and analysed. This chapter outlines in detail the research methodology chosen for this study. Before presenting the research design, I will clarify the research philosophy underlying my approach.

5.1.1 Research Philosophy

Fairness judgments and attitudes of individuals towards change are likely to be triggered by observable mechanisms that I treat as real (e.g., a restructuring and consequent new responsibilities, different colleagues, move to another office space, etc.). The cognitive and emotional mechanisms involved in forming fairness judgments and in forming attitudes and behavioural intentions, however, are not directly observable. Despite their unobservable or latent character, I treat these unobservable dynamics also as real. The core research model builds on theoretical frameworks about cognitive and affective mechanisms that are expected to take place in individual's minds when they experience organisational change, and seeks out the effects of these hypothesized mechanisms.

The epistemological view taken in this project could be described as post-positivist critical realism, holding that the "social world is reproduced and transformed in daily life" (Bhaskar, 1989, P 4), but that a social reality (including change experiences) exists independently of this research effort. I will largely need to rely on the accounts of people's perceptions and reactions, and am thus making their subjective interpretations and

perceptions part of my effort to contribute to knowledge in organisational justice and in organisational change. My development of a research model, drawing on extant theory, conforms to the typical realist approach in which models are representing existing mechanisms that cannot be directly observed (Brown, 1999).

5.1.2 Multi-Strategy Research

Some researchers hold the view that research methods are interconnected with certain epistemologies, that the different methods of data collection are not reconcilable and can thus not complement each other (Hughes, 1990). While I recognise that quantitative and qualitative research are often connected with different epistemological and ontological assumptions, in this project the view is taken that research methods are tools that can be used for a variety of tasks and are not tied necessarily to one particular world view. The areas of quantitative and qualitative research can overlap in some cases and different methods can complement each other.

This research addresses different types of questions:

- The core of the research is deductive, where based on a review of extant theory and previous research specific hypotheses have been developed.
- Closely linked to the research hypotheses are specific exploratory questions (e.g., the relative impact of the various justice dimensions on resistance and support, where we have too little knowledge to make any predictions)
- The research also addresses open-ended questions and why-questions (e.g. why do people support or reject specific change initiatives).

Different methods are suitable to investigate each of these types of questions. The presented hypotheses posit relationships between variables over time and can be investigated through longitudinal research in which quantitative data is collected through survey methods and analysed using multivariate statistics. Quantitative data may also give insights into the very specific exploratory questions linked closely to the hypotheses. The open-ended elements of exploration in this research require richer data, and can be addressed by closely connecting the perspectives of the study participants with emerging concepts or by "grounding" emerging theory or models in the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, a multi-method approach will be adopted in this project. Nevertheless, testing of the hypotheses is the core research strategy.

5.1.3 Overall design

The central research questions concern the perceptions, experiences and reactions of individuals undergoing organisational change. Therefore, the individual change recipient is the unit of analysis for this research. While group processes and organisational processes are also likely to play an important role for individual perceptions, experiences and reactions, they are not the main focus of this dissertation.

The first element of investigation consists of testing the hypotheses in a longitudinal design survey research. The survey is administered at the discovery (T1) and aftermath (T2) stages of change, employing established and tested quantitative measures of organisational justice and intentions to resist and support change. This layer also facilitates supplemental analyses to address some of the more specific exploratory questions raised in the research model (e.g., the relative importance of different dimensions, interactive effects between dimensions).

The overall questions underlying this research are open-ended. As yet, little is known about the link between people's experience and reactions in change, and the influence of previous experiences, expectations or outcomes on justice perceptions and reactions in change situations. These questions are not well suited to be investigated in structured survey research and through statistical analyses. Qualitative investigations appear more appropriate here. Rich, qualitative investigation of change experiences and justice dynamics can help to connect the research to the actual experience and language of change participants. Individual semi-structured interviews have therefore been chosen to complement the investigation of the hypothesis testing. This layer is expected to enrich and further understanding of individual reactions and organisational justice dynamics in planned change situations and beyond.

The in-depth investigation of people's experiences and reactions in change, and how these reactions are linked to their justice anticipations and perceptions is not only expected to bring forward new insights in its own right, but also to help put into context and make sense of the survey results. Most fundamentally, a richer qualitative exploration can point out the value and limitations of organisational justice as a framework to describe and investigate the experience of and reactions to organisational change. For instance, the qualitative data may provide useful negative and positive examples of change experiences and reactions with respect to the justice framework employed.

Any organisational change project is unique. The survey findings and the interview findings need to be seen in their very specific organisational change context. Detailed information on the particular case in question is needed in order to interpret the

results. Both the survey and the interview-layers will be supported and facilitated by a rich description of the change projects taking place ("the research setting", see 5.2, 5.3 and 7.1). Following this description, the implications of the choice of setting for the utilization of a justice framework will be discussed. Summarising, a multi-method approach is adopted for this project for reasons of complementarity, facilitation and triangulation.

5.1.4 Research Access

I identified potential sample organisations that might give me access and were undergoing change projects through faculty members at Trinity College Dublin School of Business. I limited my search to companies in the financial services sector. The reasons for this were firstly that I had work experience in this sector and found it therefore easier to connect to people's work experience there, and secondly that financial services in Ireland are undergoing numerous change projects. Finally, populations drawn from different companies in the same sector were expected to be more comparable than populations from different sectors, which might open the possibility for combined analysis and facilitate comparisons between settings.

I approached these companies, provided them with information about my research and invited them to participate. I was able to secure personal meetings with four organisations, and in those four cases met with a relevant person from human resources or from change management to discuss the study. One company dropped out after this initial discussion, as the manager responsible for the change was concerned about the sensitivity of the changes. Three out of the four companies I approached were willing to participate in the study after the initial meeting. One of the three dropped out again because of unforeseen radical changes, which again were described as "too sensitive".

The two organisations that gave me access will be called BANK and INSURANCE. Change projects that were suitable to be included in this study were identified in discussion with management. Criteria for the choice of projects were:

- change projects with clear boundaries (either stand-alone changes or distinguishable parts of larger change projects)
- significant impact on the individuals involved in the change project
- the project was still in the planning phase (implementation not started)
- time-scale of circa 6 to 16 months for project implementation
- organisational support for access to change project team for background data collection and to change participants for survey and interview data collection

On the basis of these criteria, the "coaching introduction project" with BANK, and the "performance improvement project" with INSURANCE were identified. BANK's coaching introduction project went hand in hand with a change of performance appraisal system, and INSURANCE's performance improvement project focused on a new appraisal system, and was supported by coaching training for managers. Thus both change projects had very similar core contents. The two organisations and their respective projects will be described in more detail in the following sections.

Data about the two organisations and the respective change projects was collected through interviews with managers (four of which were recorded and transcribed, while numerous other conversations with managers were recorded through notes), through attending management meetings and attending trainings, communication meetings, through collecting training materials, company communications, and web site reports as well as annual reports, and from drawing on the information acquired in over 50 interviews with employees (the results of which will be discussed in detail in the following chapter).

When attending trainings, meetings and off-sites, my identity as researcher was clear to all others present, and I observed the activity and took notes. On a small number of occasions I participated in activities or discussions.

5.1.5 Study overview

While the individual elements of the study will be discussed in more detail below, a brief overview of the empirical work conducted is given here:

Questionnaires were pre-tested in INSURANCE even before the performance improvement change project was announced (T0), and were then distributed to the full population undergoing the performance improvement change (n=53) after the announcement (T1) and at the end of the annual review cycle (T2). In BANK, the survey was administered to all participants of the coaching change project (n=300) both after their initial training session (T1) and after the end of the annual review cycle (T2) (for response rates see section 5.4.1.2)

Participants for semi-structured interview research in both research settings were chosen by convenience sampling within the groups affected by the changes (see section 5.4.2.1). I conducted first interviews in INSURANCE even before the project was announced (T0), in April and May 2003 (31 interviews). After the first survey (T1), I conducted 7 in-depth interviews with members of the pilot team (in April 2005), and after the second survey (T2) another 5 (in June 2005).

In BANK, I conducted 11 in-depth interviews with people who had attended the coaching course after the first survey round (T1, in October 2004), and another 6 after the second survey, in June 2005 (T2). I also kept in regular, at times very intensive contact with members of the HR/change management teams in both organisations.

For an overview of when which element of investigation was conducted, see the timeline in 5.6 (Figure 5-10 Timeline for research in INSURANCE and Figure 5-11 Timeline for research in BANK).

5.1.6 Structure of this chapter

In the following, the two different organisational change projects that served as settings for this research will be described in detail, in order to create an overall picture to put the survey and interview findings into perspective. Initially, the two research settings are described separately. Later sections will describe the data collection in both companies together as the same approaches and instruments have been employed in both settings. The longitudinal survey design and collection will be described, followed by a presentation of how the semi-structured interviews were designed and conducted. Approaches to analysis will also be discussed, as well as questions of research rigour and limitations inherent in the approaches taken.

5.2 INSURANCE's Performance Improvement change Project – research setting No 1

INSURANCE is a financial services company in Ireland. Since 2001, INSURANCE is conducting a major strategic change that would take the organisation to a more favourable cost profile in the industry. The main elements of this change were technology changes, switching IT platforms and migrating work to new systems. Other related initiatives such as streamlining the sales force, and various other performance improvements related change projects were introduced under the general umbrella of the change initiative. A coaching regime was also launched in 2002, through a triangle concept, whereby a number of chosen senior coaches were trained over the time span of a few weeks by outside experts. Then line managers were sent to a two-day coaching programme. Senior coaches support the managers as coaches, and managers are encouraged to use coaching techniques with their report, in particular in the performance appraisal context. The coaching regime was introduced without advertising or announcements. A member of the HR team explains: "We would prefer to be up and running and doing this and have it seep through the organisation, rather than have a fun fair that we're into coaching, and it all falls flat on the face, so I'd be rather out there and doing

it." Employees are mostly unaware that their managers are being trained in coaching. This initiative is still ongoing.

The project that served as the first setting for this study fits into the context of this overall strategic change, but is a clearly identifiable project on its own. The project, was initiated after a staff survey in 2002 identified Performance Management as the area that employees were most unhappy with. Thus HR decided to change the Performance management system. As a senior executive pointed out:

> *"And because it came so high up on the agenda, in terms of staff, and it was the one they voted that they wanted us to tackle, we said we would also take on the Performance management system, and try to rejuvenate it, you know, re-energize it, tidy it up, make it more staff-friendly, and introduce a developmental agenda within it that really hadn't been in existence up to now. I think it complemented the (strategic change) agenda so from a (strategic change) perspective we were looking at coaching, now from a staff survey perspective we were looking at performance management. And I think the two sit very well together, and as we introduce coaching we are trying to link the two of them together so that one complements the other, and they don't sit separate to one another." (Senior HR executive)*

To follow up the results from the staff survey 2002, on the 20th March 2002, a Focus group session of 32 staff discussed the results of the staff survey and issues with performance appraisals and performance management. The report given to me by HR noted the following improvement proposals by staff: - *"have a rating scale of more than 5 ratings" (*1 to 5 previously*), "get staff more involved in (*name of performance appraisal process*)", "have clearer criteria for evaluation", "have better relationship between staff and manager", "involve assistant managers in cases where they know the work people are doing better", "open and honest process", "opportunity for challenging work", "early address instead of surprises at end", "consistency across teams"," (performance appraisal process) linked to development", "clearer communication about promotions opportunities", "different rewards such as team awards or vouchers".*

However, the focus group feedback may need to be seen with some caution, as an employee who was a member of this focus group expresses his doubts about how honest the feedback collected in this group really may have been:

"I elected NOT to be in the survey group, but my manager simply put me onto the list against my will. There was no point in the whole group, there were execs on the team,

and people tried to appease the person above. Also, a lot of people on that survey group did not have much experience themselves."

A manager focus group was also held. The possible solutions proposed by managers included *"information sharing amongst managers", "training for (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) ", "consultant involvement", "team awards", "views of staff and clients as well as managers", "developmental aspect stressed", "more regular performance management (continual process)", "clearer links of feedback to development", "involving staff in setting objectives", "possible different methods of recognition, such as awards".*

After having gathered feedback from the employee- and the managerial focus groups, in the beginning of 2003, a two-day HR offsite was held to discuss and design a first outline of a new performance management system. At this offsite, the HR managers decided that the new system was to incorporate performance evaluation and performance development and should mix formal and more informal conversations. More frequent meetings were envisaged (quarterly instead of twice a year). The coaching training administered to managers was seen as the backbone of the new system. They were also considering various rewards or bonus possibilities, but ultimately decided against these with a view to union pressures. Also, the 1 to 5 rating system was to remain in place for now – although all managers and the focus teams had been highly critical of it. This was firstly because there were different opinions on how to change the ranking, and whether such a change would really remedy the problem of managers being reluctant to differentiate between good and bad performers appropriately. Secondly, a change in ratings would have necessitated a revision of the incentive system that is linked to these ratings, and the incentive system was not to be addressed at this point, officially due to union pressures.

The director of HR was the sponsor of the project and saw a new performance appraisal and performance management system as a way to achieve a less paternalistic culture, with more responsibility and ownership for employees. Thus, the project was seen as fitting well into HR's overall agenda. Various HR managers expressed that this project could also contribute to addressing the career management and connected motivational problems that INSURANCE had been facing during the last years. Few opportunities for vertical progression were becoming available internally, making it difficult to motivate staff in an environment where promotion is still seen as the only possible reward for good work. Instead a new performance management system could offer internal development, and could – so the HR managers hoped - change the psychological contract between

INSURANCE and its employees. Furthermore, responding to the staff surveys was expected to improve the reputation of the HR team as responsive to staff needs, and to have positive motivational consequences.

The previous appraisal system had been introduced in the mid 90s and it consisted of a review cycle of 2 formal reviews (one interim, one final, in August and December respectively). Some employees told me that it had never been on time: "*you would have your start of year in January, but it could be until August or September until you have your meeting just because the manager would be busy or on holidays or anything. But I think it was hard to be graded for six months to start*", and many employees indicated that no interim conversations were taking place at all (i.e., only one annual meeting took place).

The new system was to have an emphasis on personal development. Individual development plans were introduced to this end. The HR manager describes: *"it focuses on you as a person, where you are at, where you are going, what your career aspirations are, and how the managers can help you in small and big ways within the next 12 months to move towards those career goals. I think that is what had been missing. And I think almost staff felt cheated that the conversation was wholly about task, and there was no element of them, the person in it. So I think it gives them back that piece."*

Managers were to get more structure than before, to support them in the new performance appraisal situations. HR prepared a "step-by-step guide", including information on how to prepare well and modules on "how to get the best out of your performance management", "how to avoid conflict", "how to prepare your IDP" (individual development plan). More consistency across managers was hoped to be achieved though providing these materials.

The project sponsor stated that "*From an organisational perspective – hopefully what we will get out of this is a performance improvement. But that's more a hope and an aspiration than definite. At the very least we should get a group of staff who feel that performance management is handled better in the organisation. And I think even having staff with that belief is beneficial to the organisation.*"

Overall, HR saw the so-called performance improvement change as something that they did for staff, as something with positive and beneficial outcomes for employees.

A new cycle was introduced: From now on, there were to be two major annual meetings, one of them with a main focus on individual development plan (the first one to take place in September 2004), and the second one concerned with annual review and objectives (the next one to take place, in February 2005). Importantly, employees were to

come prepared to these meetings. For each meeting, sections in their booklet were to be filled in regarding personal and professional objectives.

The reward structure was not changed. The change sponsors and agents gave two reasons for this: Firstly, the union opposition appeared strong and powerful, and the HR managers wanted to make a change that would not encounter massive union opposition, and could be taken on board quickly. Secondly, they felt that the overall change agenda would make it too difficult to change rewards at this point in time. Employees however made different attributions and perceived budgets as the main reasons why the reward system was not changed.

A pilot rollout to a smaller area in the organisation was envisaged, to begin in January 2004. Initially the pilot group should comprise circa 120 individuals. After first discussions with the unions, the pilot group was scaled down even further, to three smaller teams with a total of 53 employees, all of them white-collar administrative staff. The unions were not convinced by the project, as they would have wanted a more comprehensive change of the performance management and compensation system, including significant reward changes (which were not the changes that management intended). However, union representatives agreed to the (now smaller) pilot test of the proposed performance management system. The three managers of the pilot groups were informed of the project by the HR manager in person. The teams were invited to an information session run by two HR team members. The managers were also present.

The details of the first part of the new system were introduced in training workshops run by HR, in May and June 2004. The workshops lasted circa 1.5 hours, and circa 10 people attended each session. Managers attended the sessions with their teams' members. This first training concentrated on the individual development plan. A handbook and forms for the individual development plan were distributed at the meetings. The handout included information on the new cycle (when which reviews were to take place), guidance notes for the reviewee, individual development plan, general information, support documentation on setting objectives, guidance on giving and receiving feedback. This first training event was aimed at preparing the first meeting of the new appraisal cycle, which was to focus on the individual development plans.

At the training sessions people seemed to be particularly concerned with the distribution of grades (from 1, lowest to 5, highest) at an appraisal. Even though this was the aspect that was apparently not changed at all, it was the one that most questions were asked about and that was most commented on. Typical comments included:

"There is a lot to it, and when put in with the (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) , I think people will still concentrate on the rating."

"A lot of stuff to make you think, but with time pressure it's going to be the rating that people will be working on".

Employees at the meetings also were concerned about the use of normal distributions to budget grades. They felt that rewards and grades were not based on the achievement of objectives, but rather on the bell-curve distribution given out to managers. The HR manager leading the training finally admitted that *"Out there it isn't happening. I know that managers cannot give extra fours, but we're trying to change that."*

After the first meetings regarding individual development under the new performance management regime had taken place in September 2004 between managers and their direct reports, feedback from the managers and the teams in the pilot group was collected by the HR team. According to the feedback summaries given to me, some people found it too technical, some people thought there was too much detail or repetition, and some of them thought they had to answer all the questions –(while some of the questions were intended just to stimulate thought, and were voluntary). There was also confusion about what was personal and what was work related. The manager who collected the feedback explained that some of the questions regarding personal goals had had unexpected effects:

"Looking at the personal part, some of them found it a bit inward focused, began to question if they even wanted to be working here... are we unsettling them here? (....) You are opening a can of worms, what are you going to do with it. The manager has to be good from a coaching perspective if you're asking that kind of questions."

On the other hand, positive aspects were noted: *"But they also said that the quality of conversations with managers was much better because they had written something down themselves. They came in with something."* (HR manager who had been involved in collecting feedback from staff).

The largest problem in implementation that the facilitators who collected the feedback perceived was to get the managers' energy behind the project. *"Managers are people who are really busy anyway, in one of the pilot group cases a manager had to do an extra 24 IDP sessions. Which is an extra work load, 24 extra meetings a year, extra preparation per year, in total amounting to an extra week or two work time a year."*

The HR director, the project champion, described the project as a success after the first individual development conversations had taken place (October 2004): *"I think for the interpersonal, what is different there is the IDP conversation. And from the Pilot we've*

run to date, we've already got feedback from both managers and staff saying that managers feel closer to staff and staff feel closer to managers. That is the first time they actually sat down and had a conversation about how I – the person – feel and where I'm going and what I want. That they've never had before. And therefore managers understand their staff better, and staff understand where managers are coming from better. So I think that'll be the main one there."

Based on the feedback collected by the HR team from the pilot group, the new system was to be rolled out in the entire section of the organisation from January 2005.

In December 2004, a finger food reception was organised for the pilot teams, where the three teams were thanked for their effort and for helping to roll the new performance appraisal system out in the organisation.

From January on the HR team began to negotiate the rollout of the system to the organisation with the union representatives. The union representatives held the view that an introduction to the organisation should only happen in conjunction with a revised benefits scheme. The HR representatives saw it like this: in their view, the unions had never liked performance management, and saw this now as an opportunity to at least get money for it. It is worth mentioning that at the same time, the company was already in the labour court because of two other issues, therefore starting a third legal battle was feared. The system was therefore not rolled out, and according to HR, the pilot groups also went back to the previous performance management system. However, the managers were encouraged to try and use pieces of the system that had been introduced in the pilot team – such as development plans – in their coaching sessions with team members. The coaching introduction was still progressing in August 2005, with internal coaches test-coaching managers who volunteered to be coached. Thus, finally elements of the new system only lived on via the coaching introduction in INSURANCE.

Now the migration to a new IT system came high up on the agenda of the pilot groups as well. The migration was to happen in August 2005, and until then backlogs should be cleared and everything be in order before being moved onto the new system.

According to a manager in the pilot teams, in 2005 the new system was left completely optional: Employees could choose freely whether they wanted to fill in and discuss their individual development plan (IDP). According to the managers, everyone was given the option to do the IDP, but nobody came forward.

One of the managers in the pilot group explained that no-one in his team wanted to avail of the option of having a voluntary individual development meeting in January, because: *"The (the performance appraisal process) is viewed as work. It doesn't change*

the numbers. HR wouldn't . The IDP was dealt with very separately from the beginning, it was separate from the numbers and the objectives. The talks about personal objectives often led outside INSURANCE. It is good for them to recognise the fact though, even if they are not interested in their work, even to recognise it."

Details about employees' views collected throughout the project implementation will be provided in Chapter 7.

5.3 BANK's Coaching Introduction change project – research setting No 2

BANK is a financial institution in Ireland. This research took place in its headquarters. BANK has long tried to distinguish itself from other financial services companies through a strong ethos and moral business model. A new chief executive initiated a structural reform and strategic repositioning of BANK in 2001, in which the BANK identity and ethos were to be further re-enforced. An employee explains:

"So, I think we are going to go back to the community, and we are trying to be recognised again as an organisation who cares, and I think we were doing that 20 years ago."

Teams were physically brought together into a new large head office location, were re-structured, and the new vision and strategic positioning of BANK was communicated throughout the organisation. This included numerous sub-projects, for example a guided tour of an in-house exhibition on BANK's strategy, vision, and history for each member of the organisation. The need to adapt and change was constantly communicated.

*The (*in-house exhibition on BANK's strategy*) on the second floor was quite a good information, I suppose. There were posters and interactive and videos and you were taken around. And think about the BANK way and communicating with your m embers, and the importance of where we're rated with regards to other building societies and banks etc, so how people think of us and how we want them to think of us. I think that was quite open, whereas a lot of companies they just don't bother telling you, like where they want to go or how they are currently seen as. So I guess in that respect it was quite open with staff. That this is where we are, where we want to go.*

Q: Do you ever compare this place to any of its competitors?

*Well, with (*name of competitor A*) and all the scandals and things, I've always thought god, I wouldn't like to work there. And I think (*name of competitor B*) is kind of money grabbing, kind of in a way. So I think the ethos in here is quite nice. We're all*

together, I do think that's a nice friendly organisation, and the people who work in it, and I think a lot of people who are members as well like it that it is a building society and not a bank. So I don't think I would like to go to a bank. I think the atmosphere would be very different. I think it's a nice friendly atmosphere here.

From 2002, the change was implemented through a matrix structure: The overall programme was broken down into sub-projects, and a project programme manager was assigned to each sub-project. These managers were managing multi-disciplinary teams within the business and reporting into their managers within the business, but from a project managers' perspective. The sponsors were from the business. A change manager explains:*" And that worked very very well in terms of getting things delivered because you had dedicated full time resources working to drive the change programme. And within the business it worked well initially in that there was a lot of discretion and the energy released around the change programme, and the business units very much wanted to get ownership and get their hands on it."*

The IT part of the organisation conducted the changes in relative isolation from the rest of the organisation. When the need for change began to be communicated, this area was reviewed by external consultants, who judged that it was not ready for change. An offsite day with an external facilitator as well as numerous trust-building initiatives were conducted and opportunities for staff input were created before major changes were embarked on in the IT department. The offsite day was remembered as a turning point by a few members of the department.

"There was certain people who wanted the change and then there was much more people who didn't want it. And they treated you like you were an asshole. I am sorry for the cursing. Because you wanted the change you were looked down upon. And you felt, o god, I can't say that out loud that I like that, you know what I mean. But we all went on that course, right, with some magical guy from Cork, I can't remember his name, but he was brilliant. And we were all told, really encouraged to go so we were told, go, or if you really still want your job, this is in IT and it was a day out and it was brilliant. And lots of people didn't want to go and they went, and then after that it was like a communications day. And he addressed things. Like that. These people make you feel bad, but they're actually the ones you should feel bad for. And after that we knew that we were right, and everyone started changing over. I don't know if you understand that. But it was unbelievable."

The IT department remained largely isolated from the rest of the organisation also during further changes. An IT employee describes: "*Well, I think we see ourselves really as*

a different category of BANK employee, in IT. We are kind of on a different salary scale. And we see ourselves as kind of the forefront of change within the organisation in a way. Which is the way it is."

When I came into the organisation in the beginning of 2004, people were in the midst of the changes (summer 2004). Most research participants seemed to agree that there were many changes, and that change went fast.

On the HR side, various organisation-wide initiatives were introduced as part of the overall change agenda. These included the roll-out (in June 2004) of an employee self-service portal to manage one's career and performance appraisals, in the following this will be named "new online performance appraisal system of BANK". Employees were encouraged to register their competencies, diaries, make use of the career service, and fill in objectives for their performance appraisal.

The system was introduced as a way to structure discussions between managers and staff. Employees need to put their own comments regarding their objectives and competencies into a form and propose a grade for themselves (although the manager is the one who ultimately decides the grade). The form is sent to the manager for the end-of year review, which normally takes place in January. (There may be one or several informal "review chats" in between, but this depends on individual managers).

The unions were supportive of the rollout of the portal, as they saw it as a way to increase comparability between different managers.

After the rollout of the new online performance appraisal system of BANK, competencies and objectives needed to be set to prepare for the reviews in the following year. Based on employee comments collected in 2004, the new online performance appraisal system of BANK did not seem to be used everywhere, as the following interview extract illustrates:

The manager has to set out first your competencies and your whatever I haven't had mine.

Q: When should that have happened?

It should have happened I don't know, initially? When (new online performance appraisal system of BANK) came on board? But I do know she has managed to get more than half the team done. About two weeks ago. But it's that time of year where it's extremely busy, so it's very awkward to fit you, because it takes about 2 and a half to three hours. So that's an awful lot. If you're doing cheque issue it's an awful long time to be away from your desk, so and even for her being a manager, it's an awful lot of time for her being away, when she has work to do as well. So just time constraints, I'd say that's all. It's not that she doesn't want to do it at all.

The particular project that served as setting for this research was the introduction of a coaching regime, which was time-aligned with the introduction of the employee portals, in the midst of the change phase. The main sponsor of the project, a HR manager,

explained that they wanted to go "away from a paternalistic culture towards employee ownership", and that they wanted to "tackle interactions between employees and their managers, and between middle managers and upper managers". The HR manager came to the view that "managers don't want to do the people thing" and that even managers don't trust their managers to do this. So in order to engage people in conversations, a process to enforce conversations would be established. The idea was termed a "pull-push tension": employees were to have some control to enforce conversations with their managers. A programme was to be introduced that should help both managers and employees in how to engage with people, that should promote honest and transparent conversations and lead to happier and more satisfied relationships and exchanges between managers and employees, or managers and their managers. In particular, the new relationship should be open, people should "know where they stand".

The unions were informed of the planned introduction of coaching, but they were not involved in planning the programme. They were overall supportive of the introductory coaching course, and saw it as a tool for better management. Ultimately, the change was hoped to achieve an increase in performance. The change was implemented through a two day coaching training course administered by external consultants to all managers, and half-day introductory sessions administered to all non-management employees by the same outside training provider. The programme was rolled out since the beginning of 2004. In a first phase, the 2-day sessions for managers were conducted, and it was planned that by mid-May 2004 all managers should have attended the training.

The two days programme for managers began by stating the following objectives for participants:

- to get results from people
- to develop your own and others' potential
- to develop your role as a manager and coach.

In a workshop style, the participating managers (circa 8-10 at a time), role-played various situations of conversation and performance appraisal. Discussions of the role-playing were concluded with take-away points about how to remove "blocks to performance from management". Course contents include a brief introduction to the coaching philosophy, exercises on goal setting and focusing on goals, appraisals, trust and confidence, managing up and handling emotions.

The very first session for managers was attended by some board members. One influential individual was extremely critical about the content of the course and proposed to stop it. However, the project sponsors offered to adapt the content, saying they were

taking the criticism into account, but they continued the programme. According to the external consultants who delivered the programme, the changes made were nominal and consisted of re-ordering the appearance of the programme, without any deeper changes in content or style. The external consultants also claimed that after the first session, where they received negative criticism from a number of individuals, they only received positive feedback since.

The head of HR and some other top executives took particularly long to attend the programme, and only took part in the programme after the deadline that was initially set for managers (May 2004) had already passed. Overall, managers' appeared to show different degrees of responsiveness to the programme.

In a second phase the employees attended their half-day programmes, led by the same facilitators who had also delivered the two-day programme for managers. While the training of the managers had been planned to be finalised by then, in fact both parts of the programme were still being delivered simultaneously in summer 2004. The half-day programme for non-managerial staff consisted of groups with up to 16 participants. The course was introduced as an opportunity for personal development and growth, as being "about relationships". It was announced that managers had attended a two-day programme and it would be a "*waste of the company's money*" if the managers did not adapt their way of communicating with subordinates in a coaching way. Participants were encouraged to enforce coaching style conversations with their managers.

"*BANK wants to improve their performance, and they have identified the coaching style as a way of achieving this.*" Thus participants were to be familiarised with the coaching culture, and a "*more empowering culture*", where they could have "*adult-to-adult relationships*" with their managers in order to realize their potential. Participants were also informed that their managers had already attended a course. The main points were again illustrated in role-plays, particularly in appraisal situation role-plays. The half day course closes with tips on managing up – managing your manager.

The change champion for this project left while the courses were still taking place, in summer 2004. She handed the responsibility for the project over to the HR and training departments. The external facilitators now dealt directly with the head of HR.

However, the HR manager appeared to drive the change much less enthusiastically than the original project sponsor had. One of the external facilitators stated on the 15th of September 2004 that *"There have been problems with getting numbers, partly because of holidays, and partly because Managers have not been releasing people. D., the HR Director, will I think put some pressure on now".*

By 16th of September 2004, the coaching sessions were postponed for the remaining staff. The reason stated by the HR team was that they were putting everyone through a systems training. 180 people (non-managerial) had attended the ½ day sessions so far. All of management (120 in total) had attended.

The external trainers held the view (in December 2004) that the company seemed to be "*a bit in a muddle since (the project champion) left*". And: "*We had a scheduled day with the Senior Mgmt Group but they cancelled at the last minute! We are hoping that we will meet with them early in the new year to check how things are.*"

Towards the end of 2004, the overall change programme successes were also to be reviewed, and a new programme was to start in 2005. But then, from the beginning of 2005, the change programme at BANK appears to be stalled. The management board does not communicate the results of any review or any new change programme plans. The change programme was put on hold since January. A change manager gives the following reasons for this:

- *"Because I think the biggest part really was the organisation restructuring was created at a result of that. And people's roles changed. And therefore nobody was responsible for delivering a change programme anymore, and therefore, if it isn't there as a day job, if it is not in somebody's performance plans, then it actually doesn't get delivered. "*
- *"I think people got tired within the business who were used to working at double capacity. And I think of a lot of the people have been working at 150% capacity for the past couple of years, and they saw senior managers not focusing on the change programme, and therefore their behaviour started to reflect. Because that's what happens, you know, if you don't walk the walk. People are going to do what you do."*
- *"...new people in very senior positions came into the organisation. So we had developed a brand strategy and brand vision to which we were all moving forward. And I was at a meeting where one very very senior person came in and we were talking about the brand strategy and the response was well, I wasn't here when it happened therefore it is irrelevant. So when you have that kind of behaviour your strategy is going to grind to a slow and painful hold..."*
- *"I think what's happened with us is something fundamental has shifted underneath the strategy and it hasn't been communicated. And people are operating to an old*

one, and they are very confused now. As far as anyone in the business is concerned, there is no change programme now and there hasn't been for at least a year."

In 2005, the use of (new online performance appraisal system of BANK) was enforced (one year after the official implementation), as people would only get their increases if they used the system. Everyone had to fill in the portal before their appraisal with their manager. Reviews were put back to the end of March 2005 (instead of January), in order to give people time to deal with the new system (increases were backdated to January though).

"It was such a chore. I think because we didn't know how to use it. We weren't told how to use it properly. (...) And that is why it was a chore. Because literally, two weeks before everyone's appraisal was due, the whole building just shut down, and people were going (new online performance appraisal system of BANK), (new online performance appraisal system of BANK), (new online performance appraisal system of BANK). And they had to write a book in the space of two weeks.

You have all these different key areas, you've got your goals there and whether you've reached them or not. You have to plan your goals at the beginning of the year. Then at the end of the year you have to review them to see if you met them. But we didn't do that. What we did was, at the end of the year we set out our goals, that we should have done, and then we wrote if we met them or not. So it was double the work. And we did it like that because we were silly because we didn't know how we should have done it. So it wasn't pushed enough I think. But we all got through it.

As for coaching, there were no more introductory sessions since 2004. The remaining people have still not attended the coaching course, but officially they are still to receive their coaching training at a later point in time. Details about participants' views on the programme will be presented in Chapter 7.

5.3.1 Particular Justice Concerns and Considerations in Research Settings

The research settings described above were described with detailed information in order to provide context understanding for the quantitative and qualitative analyses to follow. The specificity of the settings may hinder transferability of the findings, and may have implications for my analyses regarding the usefulness of the framework of organisational justice for change situations. In the following, I will reflect on the implications of my research settings for this study.

5.3.1.1 Benign Changes

Both projects introduce relatively benign changes that are intended to benefit the project participants. This may be related to the approach to finding relevant change projects: companies may be more likely to give research access to a project that they consider to have "positive" outcomes for their staff. In fact my search for research setting illustrates this. The two companies that pulled out both did so because of the "sensitive" nature of their changes (which appears to be a euphemism for severe changes). Even if not all project participants perceive the changes under investigation to be positive, there are no drastic looming negative consequences such as lay-offs to be expected in these changes (as might for example be the case in mergers or restructuring programmes). The justice considerations might thus be very different ones in this case than in situations where individual outcomes have more of an impact on individuals, and are possibly much more negative. On the other hand, the literature on organisational change proposes that individuals have to go through a process of transition and loss in change, even when outcomes are benign (Bridges, 1986; Kanter et al., 1992).

The relatively benign nature of the changes is in fact very interesting from an organisational justice perspective, as the majority of past research has concentrated on negative outcomes and much less is known about "benign outcome" fairness contexts. As for testing the hypotheses regarding anticipated unfairness and relations between fairness anticipations/perceptions and reactions, a benign change appears just as valid as a negative change context would be. Overall, it is reasonable to assume that the absolute level of intentions to support should be higher in a benign change (and the absolute level of intentions to resist should be lower). However, as the hypotheses developed in Chapter 4 make no predictions about absolute values, this should have no impact on the hypotheses testing. Of course, it remains to be verified by future research if the hypothesised relationships are also found in less benign change contexts.

5.3.1.2 Performance Management and Coaching as Objects of Justice Perceptions

While the focus in INSURANCE was on performance management, and the focus in BANK was on coaching, both organisations introduced simultaneously a new performance management and a coaching regime with the declared aims to improve relationships between managers and their direct reports, and to give employees more responsibility for managing their own career. While the project sponsors saw coaching as

independent of the performance appraisal context, this was not the view taken by staff, who perceived coaching mainly as a new way to conduct performance appraisals.

Past research has demonstrated that organisational justice perceptions matter in the context of performance appraisals. "Because performance appraisal is an important human resource management practice that has implications for individual reward allocations, justice perceptions in this context are especially salient" (Erdogan, 2002, P 556). Ratings in performance appraisal are typically linked to economic and social rewards and are thus highly important outcomes for organisational members. Employees will try to determine the fairness of their own rating, for example by guessing their co-workers ratings, or by comparing with friends in other organisations or with ratings they received in past years, leading to a heightened role of distributive fairness. Often the performance appraisals are the most important personal one-to-one conversations organisational members have with their managers during the year, and the treatment they receive from their manager in this context could be seen as indicative of interpersonal respect and sensitivity (interpersonal justice). Timely and sufficient information on goal attainment and performance was mentioned by a number of interviewees in both INSURANCE and BANK, pointing towards the importance of informational justice. Also, the changed performance appraisal procedures in the cases described above are likely to heighten the salience of procedural justice, for example increased voice (an element of procedural justice) was perceived as important element of the new system: "*It allows you to give your opinions. You have input in what you are going to do. I am not saying that anything actually happens with the input... I don't think too much happened, but it is still better than no input, just getting it off your chest.*"

All four dimensions of justice are potentially of interest in the context of performance appraisals, the question is whether they can be meaningfully differentiated in the context of this study? This question is the focus of the next section.

5.3.1.3 Differentiation of the four dimensions of organisational justice?

Both changes described above centre on coaching interactions between employees and managers, and also introduced new procedures for performance appraisal. Thus, changed interactions and changed procedures were intended outcomes of changes under investigation. This renders the distinction between the fairness of outcomes (distributive justice) and interactional and procedural dimensions of justice problematic. Cropanzano and Ambrose have discussed this problematic in their monistic view of organisational justice (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001), which holds that the same event

could be viewed as a process in one context and as an outcome in another. In the quantitative investigation reported here, distributive justice will be operationalised specifically as equity in the quantitative part of the study, which should lead to a clearer distinction because the rule of equity may more specifically address distributions than a global measure.

Whether this distinction is meaningful in this particular context will ultimately depend on participants' perceptions. Previous contributions have questioned participants' ability to distinguish between procedural and interactional elements. "Because both formal procedures and individual behaviour can vary in adherence to ethical standards, the distinction rests on employees' ability to differentiate between the intention of the formal procedures and the way they are enacted by individuals. Therefore, instruments may avoid possible confounding by either differentiating clearly between the constructs, or focusing on the dimension that is likely to be more important in a particular context." (Paterson et al., 2002, P 395).

This research will employ instruments that have been found to distinguish clearly between the four dimensions of justice (see 5.4.1.4.1). The differentiation of the four dimensions still needs to be verified in this particular context. Factor analyses of the quantitative data will be employed to test whether the concepts are differentiated in this context. Separate analyses of the four dimensions can only be meaningfully conducted if measures for the different dimensions appear to have been differentiated (which will be indicated by factor loadings). Further, the analysis of the interview data is expected to give additional insights into the distinctions participants make.

5.3.1.4 The organisation and the manager as sources of (in-)justice

Recently researchers have stressed the importance of the source of justice. Justice attributed to the organisation has been found to mainly impact organisational outcomes (such as organisational commitment), while fairness from the supervisor is likely to result in supervisory-specific outcomes, such as supervisory commitment or the quality of Leader-Member Exchange (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Though the justice perceptions of supervisor and organisation are interrelated, future research should distinguish more clearly between the sources of perceived justice (e.g., supervisor or organisation) which are easily confounded with the type of justice (e.g. procedural vs. interpersonal justice). In the specific context of performance appraisal at INSURANCE, and in the specific coaching approach taken by BANK, the respective managers are the ones who enact the changes in interactions with employees. The procedures to guide the projects have been determined by

the teams managing and planning the changes (HR/general management), and the reward/bonus structure has been largely determined centrally, with employees perceiving virtually no levy in their manager's decision making. In these circumstances I expected that interpersonal and informational justice would be seen as enacted through the direct manager, while outcomes and procedures where seen as separate characteristics of the changes. Clearly indicating the respective sources of the types of justice made the distinction between the types easier. I have explicitly designated the source of justice in my questionnaires (Appendices III and IV) to help distinguish between these sources of justice, but this resulted in the measures employed sharing the shortcoming with most other organisational justice measures: interactional and interpersonal justice are related to one source (the manager), while procedural and distributive dimensions are related to another source (the organisation, the project management, general management). I acknowledge that in other circumstances the same sources may administer all types of justice dimensions, and that investigations of all four types originating from the same source will likely give a more explicit picture of the dimensionality of organisational justice.

5.3.1.5 Culture in Ireland and in INSURANCE and BANK

In both planned change situations described above, the employee participation level in the performance appraisal context and in interactions with their managers as well as more generally in the management of their own career was to be increased. Fletcher (2001) reviews research that proposes that the value of participation in the appraisal context is likely to be influenced by culture. Both the perception of the positivity of the outcome of the changes – and the procedures of the change – may thus be specific to the Irish context the two organisations operate in.

An investigation of procedural justice in the context of performance evaluations by McFarlin, and Sweeney (2001) suggests that there are both shared attributes of fair procedures and treatment, as well as culturally unique attributes. Preferred performance evaluation procedures were found to vary with the degree of power distance, collectivism and femininity in cultures. Hofstede's (1984) seminal study ranked Ireland comparatively low on power distance in comparison with other nations (rank 49 out of 53) which indicates a greater preference for egalitarianism and fewer status symbols. The same study found Ireland to be part of a group of countries that are rather oriented towards individualism than collectivism (ranked 12th on individualism, out of 53) – placing an emphasis on individual initiative, achievement, and privacy. The US (where most justice research has been conducted) forms part of the same individualism/collectivism cluster

(Hoecklin, 1995; Hofstede, 1984). Ireland has been classified as having high masculinity (rank 7/8 out of 53 in Hofstede's study), which proposes an emphasis on competitiveness and ambition, and less emphasis on co-operation and interdependence than more feminine cultures. These cultural preferences may of course result in different antecedents for procedural fairness than in cultures high on femininity and power distance and collectivism. However, this study is not concerned so much with particular antecedents of procedural justice, but rather with the consequences of perceived justice. It remains to be investigated in how far culture is also a direct or indirect determinant of these processes.

The particular organisational culture in BANK and INSURANCE is also likely to have an impact on fairness perceptions in this study. Particularly, both BANK and INSURANCE managers perceived their organisational cultures as relatively paternalistic, and were aiming for increased ownership of employees. The styles of performance management adopted are to a certain extent indicative of the paternalistic cultures, as for example no evaluations of supervisors through their direct reports are included, and employees found it often extremely difficult and countercultural to bring forward their own perspectives in performance appraisal contexts.

While the transferability of findings from an Irish financial services context to other contexts will need to be closely investigated, the investigation of justice dynamics in different cultural contexts has been called for (Greenberg, 2001a) and will contribute further to our understanding of justice dynamics. Research in Ireland represents an extension of justice research to a non-US cultural context.

5.3.1.6 Previous changes and overall change agenda in INSURANCE and BANK

In both organisations larger change agendas had been operating during the last years (see description of settings above). While the specific change projects are identifiable parts of the overall changes, it is unlikely that they could be seen completely in isolation of the overall changes. Thus, in BANK it is likely that the general drop in employee morale and the general perception of stalled changes has an impact on the introduction of coaching, and in INSURANCE the introduction of further system changes actually took precedence over the continuation of the performance improvement project. Yet the two specific projects will be investigated in isolation for the quantitative part of this study, in order to reduce complexity and for the simple reason that this limited project needs to draw a (more or less artificial) borderline to limit its scope (any change is likely to impact any other). The phrasing of the questionnaire will clarify the focus of the research. However,

any interpretation of results needs to be mindful of the overall change context which will be further explored in the qualitative investigation.

5.4 Research Design

The change projects above provided the setting in which data was collected for this study. This section describes the sample and methods used for survey and interview data collection. The procedures described here were used in both research settings. Operational differences that were necessary are identified and described as well.

5.4.1 Survey research

Survey data was collected in order to facilitate the testing of the hypotheses formulated in the previous chapter.

5.4.1.1 Population

Within the context of the two research settings (performance improvement project at INSURANCE and coaching introduction at BANK), the survey research was addressed to the full populations participating in the change projects (53 in INSURANCE and 300 in BANK).

5.4.1.2 Sample characteristics and response rates

Out of these 353 potential participants, I received the following number of responses and response rates at T1 and T2:

Figure 5-1: response rates T1 and T2

	population T1	responses T1	response rate T1	Population T2	Responses T2	response rate T2
INSURANCE	53	23	**43.40%**	53	24	**45.28%**
BANK	300	125	**41.67%**	300	122	**40.67%**
TOTAL	353	148	**41.93%**	353	146	**41.36%**

Unfortunately, not all individuals filled in the Unique Anonymous Identifier. Through the Unique Anonymous Identifier and demographic/team information I was able to clearly identify 84 respondents that had responded to BOTH the T1 and the T2 questionnaires (17 INSURANCE and 67 BANK employees), which represents an attrition of 43% from T1 to T2 (from 148 to 84). (The actual attrition may be somewhat smaller, but I could not be sure of any additional "matched" responses for T1 and T2). The overall response rates are in the middle range for this type of survey, while the attrition is at the

higher end of the range (see Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). The length of the questionnaire might have caused some of the attrition, and maybe I should have handed out the second wave of the survey in person as well instead of having it delivered via internal mail and my contacts.

First, I investigated whether respondents differed from non-respondents. Unfortunately I was not able to obtain the full set of demographic information for BANK's coaching project attendees, and therefore had to use demographic information for BANK's overall population as comparison standard. For INSURANCE, I had demographic information for the three teams undergoing the performance improvement project.

Figure 5-2: overview of demographics for respondents

	% males	Avg. tenure group (*)	Corresponds to tenure in yrs:	avg. age group (**)	Corresponds to age in yrs
Population	41%	1.998632	7.99	3.056088	33.28
T1 response	51%	2.040541	8.22	3.310811	34.55
T2 response	45%	2.513699	10.83	3.280822	34.40
Matched	51%	2.168675	8.93	3.317073	34.59

**tenure groups: 1: 0-5, 2: 6-10, 3: 11-16, 4: 17-20, 5: 20+*

***age groups: 1:<=25, 2:26-30, 3: 31-35, 4: 36-40, 5: 41-45, 6: 46-50, 7: 51-55, 8: 56-60, 9: 61+*

When conducting a number of T tests between the full demographics for the combined populations against my respondents' demographics, I found a significant difference between the overall population and the T1 respondents in terms of gender composition, and a significant difference between the T2 respondents and the overall population in terms of tenure (see Figure 5-3: T-tests comparing population to respondents).

These differences may be due to the lack of information I have about the actual part of INSURANCE to whom the survey was delivered, and this part of the company may differ in terms of gender and/or tenure from the rest of the company. But it might also indicate a systematic bias due to a tendency of female (T1) and younger employees (T2) to respond to my survey rather than male older employees. There was no significant difference found between demographics of employees who responded at both points in time ("matched"), and the overall population, indicating no systematic bias for the group of respondents who participated in both the T1 and in the T2 surveys.

Figure 5-3: T-tests comparing population to respondents

Comparing overall population to T1 data

T1	N	148			mean = mu	
	Mean	Std. deviation	Mu	T	P value	for 95% (alpha =0.05)
Gender*	1.49	0.502	1.588235	-2.37259	0.0190	**Significant difference found**
Tenure**	2.04	1.324	1.998632	0.378822	0.7054	
Age***	3.31	2.013	3.056088	1.529322	0.1283	

Comparing overall population to T2 data

T2	N	146			2 tails	
	mean	SD	Mu	T	P value	
Gender*	1.55	0.499	1.588235	-0.92267	0.3577	
Tenure**	2.51	1.559	1.998632	3.949767	0.0001	**significant difference found**
Age***	3.28	1.885	3.056088	1.430378	0.1548	

Comparing overall population to matched group

Match	N	82			2 tails
	mean	SD	Mu	T	P value
Gender*	1.49	0.503	1.588235	-1.75769	0.0826
Tenure**	2.16	1.383	1.998632	1.050117	0.2968
Age***	3.32	2.072	3.056088	1.146338	0.2550

**gender: male=1, female=2*

***tenure groups: 1: 0-5, 2: 6-10, 3: 11-16, 4: 17-20, 5: 20+*

****age groups: 1:<=25, 2:26-30, 3: 31-35, 4: 36-40, 5: 41-45, 6: 46-50, 7: 51-55, 8: 56-60, 9: 61+*

Further, I tested whether there was any significant difference in demographics between respondents at waves 1 and 2 through T-tests for the variables sex, age and tenure. The mean age group for T1 was 3.31 (corresponding to 34.55 years), and for T2 the mean age group was 3.28 (corresponding to 34.4 years). Mean tenure for T1 was category 2.04 (corresponding to 8.7 years) and 2.51 for T2 (corresponding to 11 years). The gender breakdown at T1 was 50% males at T1 and 44.5% males at T2. The difference between T1 and T2 respondents' tenure was statistically significant (see Figure 5-4: comparing T1 and T2 respondents). The group of respondents at T2 had been working longer with the organisations than the group of respondents at T1.

Figure 5-4: comparing T1 and T2 respondents

For alpha = 0.05

		N1		N2			
T1		**148**		**146**		**mean = mu**	
	mean 1	**SD 1**	**mean 2**	**SD 2**	**t**	**P val**	
Gender*	1.49	0.502	1.55	0.499	-1.02425	0.3074	
Tenure**	2.04	1.324	2.51	1.559	-2.77495	0.0062	**Significant difference**
Age***	3.31	2.013	3.28	1.885	0.131469	0.8956	

**gender: male=1, female=2*

***tenure groups: 1: 0-5, 2: 6-10, 3: 11-16, 4: 17-20, 5: 20+*

****age groups: 1:<=25, 2:26-30, 3: 31-35, 4: 36-40, 5: 41-45, 6: 46-50, 7: 51-55, 8: 56-60, 9: 61+*

In order to determine if the attrition between T1 and T2 was systematic and related to the substantive responses obtained I used t-tests to investigate whether the study population that answered at T1 differed statistically significantly in demographics (sex, age, tenure) from the group of respondents that answered both T1 and T2 ("matched"). There are no significant differences between any of the demographic variables of T1 respondents and participants who responded at T1 and T2 (see Figure 5-5). This result indicates that attrition does not appear to have systematically biased the results based on the available data.

Figure 5-5: comparing T1 only and respondents for both T1 and T2

		N match		N1		For alpha =0.05
		82		148		mean = mu
	mean match	**SD match**	**mean 1**	**SD 1**	**t**	**P value**
Gender*	1.49	0.503	1.49	0.502	0	1.0000
Tenure**	2.16	1.383	2.04	1.324	0.636549	0.5262
Age***	3.32	2.072	3.31	2.013	0.03523	0.9720

**gender: male=1, female=2*

***tenure groups: 1: 0-5, 2: 6-10, 3: 11-16, 4: 17-20, 5: 20+*

****age groups: 1:<=25, 2:26-30, 3: 31-35, 4: 36-40, 5: 41-45, 6: 46-50, 7: 51-55, 8: 56-60, 9: 61+*

5.4.1.3 Design and Procedure

5.4.1.3.1 Overview

A 2-wave longitudinal survey design was chosen to investigate the hypotheses. Additionally to the two waves, in INSURANCE a pilot survey was conducted circa one year before the rollout of the changes to test the instruments.

In both organisations surveys were conducted just after the information about the changes (Discovery stage) and after people had made experiences with the changes and after official implementation had been finalized (aftermath stage). The relationship with one's own manager and the way performance appraisals are conducted with one's manager concern not only baseline employees, but also middle managers. Past research on individual experiences of organisational change has grouped those two hierarchy levels together and have found similar psychological processes in change at different hierarchy levels (see Jaffe et al., 1994). I decided to include both groups in this study, in order to maximise power, and control for potential influence of hierarchical level on the hypothesised outcomes. To enable respondents to answer the questionnaires anonymously and still track individual responses over the different waves I included a unique anonymous identifier (UAI) in the questionnaires. This UAI consisted of a seven-digit code consisting of a participant's mother's birthday and the first initial of their mother's first name. As an example, if a participant's mother is named Deirdre, and she was born on the 3rd of August, 1949, the corresponding UAI would be 03 08 49 D.

The first survey (T1) was conducted in the discovery stage, shortly after the communication about the change: At this point (T1) I collected data in the following variables and demographics:

- Anticipated justice (distributive, procedural, informational, interpersonal),
- Behavioural intentions to resist/support the change,
- Anticipated outcome favourability and anticipated magnitude of change impact; and
- age, sex, tenure, and UAI.

The second phase of the survey (T2), took place in the "aftermath stage", after the official implementation has been completed. At T2 I measured:

- Perceived organisational justice (distributive, procedural, informational, interpersonal)
- Behavioural intentions to resist/support the change
- Experienced or expected outcome favourability and perceived impact of change
- Age, Sex, Tenure, UAI

5.4.1.3.2 Administration of questionnaires

The questionnaires were self-administered. Questionnaires were distributed as hard copies, and addressed freepost envelopes were attached.

Pilot Study (T0)

I distributed the T0 pilot questionnaires personally to a group of employees at INSURANCE in February 2004. Three brief information meetings were scheduled, each attended by circa 25 employees. I explained the purpose of the research as interest in personal experiences of change. I also explained that participation was completely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaires over time from any one individual would be linked together for the purpose of analysis via the "UAI", a unique anonymous identifier, in this case the mother's birthday and the mother's first initial.

There seemed to be a problem with the UAI only in one case, where two sisters who worked in the same team asked me how they should make their UAIs different. Participants were promised the confidentiality of their responses, and that no individual responses would be made available to anyone. The same summary report would be given to all interested parties (manager participants, employee participants, sponsors).

After the first of these information meetings some individuals voiced concerns about the identification of teams in the questionnaire. They said that for example there was only one team with 8 people in INSURANCE, so the company would immediately know how their team answered. I decided to respond to this concern by also promising that no data broken down by team would be given out either. From then on I announced this additional measure to protect participants in all further meetings and communications with both participating organisations. However, many participants chose not to indicate their team.

5.4.1.2.3.1 T1 - After the change communication – Discovery stage

I distributed the first round (T1) questionnaires in person wherever possible in order to increase response rates, but also to establish the independent nature of this research project. As in the pilot study, I explained purpose of research, confidentiality, voluntary participation, UAI, summary report, and added confidentiality of team data.

In INSURANCE I handed out the T1 questionnaires to the three teams participating in the pilot project in April 2004. The team members had been informed about the upcoming change in performance appraisal in a staff launch in March 2004, and starting in early April half-day introductory sessions had been conducted by HR. In these sessions team members were introduced to the new procedures, new documentation and

new cycle for performance appraisal (such as individual development plans). I met the teams personally to distribute the questionnaires –some of them in the introductory training sessions run by HR, and some others shortly after the training sessions in their department's coffee room. This timing was chosen to make sure employees had been informed about the changes, but had not made first-hand experience with any of the relevant outcomes (no meetings under the new system had taken place, and people had not started to complete their development plans).

In BANK I was personally present to distribute questionnaires at one of the managerial and all of the non-managerial training sessions. I informed participants about the research, handed out questionnaires, and answered any questions regarding the research project at the end of the sessions. Questionnaires were sent together with a cover letter via internal mail to all managerial training participants I could not meet personally.

5.4.1.2.3.2 After the official implementation – aftermath stage

The second round of questionnaires (T2) was administered via internal mail (in BANK) and via the team managers of the three pilot teams, who agreed to distribute questionnaires to their teams (in INSURANCE).

For the timing of the second questionnaire in INSURANCE, I decided to wait until the full cycle for performance appraisal was over – which is what the HR manager in INSURANCE recommended me to do (interview in October 2004):

"Well, to a degree (the performance appraisal process) is all very nice until at the end of the day somebody tells you I think your average is a good, or not special, or what people read into those words. So when you tell somebody they're very good, they'll hear you're very average. So people can be very, very happy with everything until that day down. So you probably get a more realistic view after they have done it. "

" Now I wouldn't do it immediately on the back of the conversation. I would let them have the conversation and come back two weeks afterwards. The day after they are probably either highly delighted with their rating or terribly upset. They should be somewhat rational two weeks later."

I therefore decided to distribute the second survey in spring 2005 (after the end of year appraisal). At that time, obviously I could not know that the project would be stalled and the development conversation would become voluntary/disappear even in the pilot group by the second survey. The annual review meetings took place in February 2005, and the T2 wave was distributed in April 2005.

Although the introduction of coaching in BANK was not officially tied to or limited to performance appraisal contexts, this is how most people appeared to perceive it. The introductory courses led by external trainers might have contributed to this perception, as most role-plays centred on performance appraisals. One employee, when asked shortly after the half-day coaching session whether the coaching project made any difference at all, said "*I suppose I wouldn't know if we don't have our reviews, you know*". Another employee answered the question if they had any personal experiences with the coaching as follows: "*Not yet. I think, I am assuming it is going to begin at Christmas that is normally when we have the appraisal.*"

Thus, even though in this case the implementation was supposed to begin straight away after the trainings had taken place, people were very focused on the formal end-of-year appraisal and saw this as the main context for the new coaching communications. I therefore decided to distribute the T2 questionnaire after the end of year appraisal, as otherwise people might be confused to be asked about the outcomes of a change that they thought was only about to happen with the appraisal. The end of year appraisal took place end of March 2005 (employees needed to complete the new online performance appraisal system of BANK form in February 2005), and the T2 wave was distributed in BANK in May 2005.

Overall, the timing of the two survey waves was very similar for both companies: The first survey was distributed personally to participants after the initial trainings/seminars to introduce the change, and the second survey was distributed through internal mail or through managers after the end-of-year appraisal as a salient indicator of the complete implementation of the changes.

5.4.1.4 Measures

I designed a questionnaire including measures for the variables directly included in the hypotheses to be investigated, as well as chosen control variables. The measures for the main concepts of the hypotheses (organisational justice and reactions to change) have been previously tested and validated and will be presented in the following:

5.4.1.4.1 Organisational Justice – anticipated (T1) and perceived (T2)

A 20 item-organisational justice scale developed and tested by Colquitt (2001) was used to measure organisational justice anticipations (T1) and organisational justice perceptions (T2). It consists of sub-scales for procedural, distributive, interpersonal and informational justice, which were developed by drawing onto the seminal contributions for

each of the dimensions of organisational justice (see Appendix III for a sample of the instrument as used in INSURANCE).

- The 7 items to measure procedural justice assess Thibaut and Walker's and Leventhal's conceptualisations of procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975).
- The 4 items to measure distributive justice reflect Leventhal's conceptualisation of the equity rule (Leventhal, 1976a).
- The 4 items to measure interpersonal justice, consisting of Bies and Moag's respect and propriety criteria (Bies & Moag, 1986).
- The 5 items to measure informational justice, containing truthfulness and justification items rely on work by Shapiro and colleagues (Shapiro, Buttner, & Barry, 1994), who found that explanations that were reasonable, timely, and specific are perceived as more adequate.

All items are assessed on a 5-point Likert scale with the response anchors 1=to a small extent to 5=to a large extent. The procedural justice scale was also used by Colquitt (2002), where it yielded a coefficient alpha of .97.

A number of issues need to be taken into account in the context of measuring organisational justice in a changing organisational setting:

1) Measure contextualisation

The need to contextualise measures of organisational justice has been discussed in Chapter 2 (2.8.4). Paterson and colleagues recommend that "the standardized measures can be customized by selecting sets of items that are relevant to the situation, and by designing overview sections that specify the context under investigation, and clarify the distinction among the procedures, treatment and outcomes". (Paterson et al., 2002, P 396)

I followed this recommendation by including overview sections for the overall justice measure and for the individual sections (e.g., the introduction to the distributive justice measure for INSURANCE read: "as a result of the new (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS, you are expected to contribute certain things, and you expect to receive a number of different outcomes, such as different types of meetings and conversations with your supervisor, a personal development plan, etc. .....")]. The wording for these overview sections was designed together with representatives of each respective organisation, in order to make sure that the language used would be clear for organisational members.

The efficacy of these overview sections was assessed in the pilot test in INSURANCE which fully supported the expectation that the questionnaire was understood as intended. The only questions arising from participants during the Pilot Test stage concerned the identifiability of team membership (see above).

Further, the overview sections not only helped to differentiate between the four dimensions of fairness, but were also used to differentiate between (future oriented) expectations or anticipations (T1) and (concurrent) perceptions (T2), respectively. Thus, for example an overview at T1 would use the phrase "to what degree do you expect to".... While a T2 overview might use the words "based on your experience, ..." or "have you".

Paterson, Green and Cary (2002) found the use of the equity operationalisation for distributive justice problematic in the context of their study in a trade union context. They reasoned that the collectivistic nature of the bargaining process and trade union context may have increased salience of equality/solidarity instead of equity. However, both the pilot survey and the pilot interviews supported the use of equity as an appropriate operationalization of distributive justice in the research context of this study. While INSURANCE is strongly unionised, the interview data suggest that people use equity as the most typical and strongest fairness rule. Some examples are:

"If you work harder than someone else, but they are on the same pay level as you, that is not fair... and you only get bonuses if you achieve a 4 or a 5. "

"The grading is from 1 to 5. A four is excellent, a five is impossible, and 3 can be either very good, or it can be good. For a four you get a 500 Euro bonus, and that is taxed, so it is ridiculously little more after tax, it is very little money extra. Then I think, I could leave every day at 4 pm like other people and get a three...For what am I staying long, and doing well... then I get a four, but I am not paid for it. It is a stupid process. "

2) organisational justice dimensionality and structural invariance

The testing of the main hypotheses for the four separate dimensions of justice is only useful if the participants in the study indeed perceived the four dimensions of justice in the measure employed to be different. While previous tests of the measure employed have supported this difference, individual differences and context differences could possibly impact how many dimensions people actually separate.

Furthermore, in order to make any conclusions on normative stability (persistence of individual ranks) or level stability (persistence in the magnitude) of data, the structural invariance of the phenomenon under investigation must firstly be established (Taris, 2000). Structural invariance would indicate the absence of beta and gamma change

(Golembiewski et al., 1976). Structural invariance is "the degree of continuity in the nature of a phenomenon" (Taris, 2000, P 40), and a construct can be considered structurally invariant when it is characterised by the same dimensions over time, which is generally tested through the factor structure in each wave of a study.

A Principal Component Analysis was therefore conducted with the 20 items of the organisational justice measure for both the T1 and T2 data. (Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization).

Data T1: A four-factor structure fit the data best. Aligned with the expectations based on previous use and analysis of the instrument(Colquitt, 2001), the items used to measure the four different justice dimensions loaded together. More specifically, the four distributive justice items loaded together on component 2, the seven procedural justice items on component 1, the interpersonal justice items on component 3, and the informational justice items on component 4.

Figure 5-6: Rotated Component Matrix T1 (**Varimax with Kaiser Normalization)**

	Component			
Items*	1	2	3	4
DJ1	.269	**.782**	.083	.123
DJ2	.268	**.887**	.067	.094
DJ3	.313	**.862**	.068	.160
DJ4	.347	**.831**	.058	.129
PJ1	**.620**	.308	.022	.206
PJ2	**.690**	.398	-.005	.127
PJ3	**.751**	.250	.187	.209
PJ4	**.785**	.178	.146	.244
PJ5	**.744**	.253	.209	.206
PJ6	**.746**	.205	.106	.209
PJ7	**.707**	.237	.381	.056
IPJ1	.154	.151	**.882**	.121
IPJ2	.195	.159	**.899**	.170
IPJ3	.187	.066	**.866**	.224
IPJ4	.049	-.096	**.685**	.265
IFJ1	.307	-.052	.263	**.460**
IFJ2	.268	.085	.267	**.721**
IFJ3	.256	.349	.268	**.652**
IFJ4	.155	.083	.134	**.844**
IFJ5	.131	.210	.126	**.793**

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations. The first four factors explained a cumulative total variance of 71.390 % (initial eigenvalues). *DJ1=1st distributive justice item, DJ2=second distributive justice item, etc.. PJ1=1st procedural justice item, PJ2=second procedural justice item, etc. IPJ1=1st interpersonal justice item, IPJ2=second interpersonal justice item, etc., IFJ1=1st informational justice item, IJF2=second informational justice item, etc.

The principal component analysis for the T2 data revealed the same structure (four factors, each dimensions of justice loaded mainly on one of these factors).

Figure 5-7: Rotated Component Matrix T2

Items*	Component			
	1	2	3	4
DJ1	.115	.234	.101	**.856**
DJ2	.101	.209	.170	**.829**
DJ3	.154	.231	.106	**.878**
DJ4	.171	.230	.207	**.836**
PJ1	.126	**.700**	.356	.186
PJ2	.153	**.796**	.162	.287
PJ3	.070	**.679**	.413	.180
PJ4	.258	**.726**	.299	.158
PJ5	.239	**.716**	.319	.221
PJ6	.281	**.526**	.128	.316
PJ7	.472	**.620**	-.090	.223
IPJ1	**.860**	.214	.307	.148
IPJ2	**.902**	.231	.246	.161
IPJ3	**.892**	.229	.244	.126
IPJ4	**.823**	.230	.251	.131
IFJ1	.430	.002	**.622**	.222
IFJ2	.277	.307	**.751**	.120
IFJ3	.384	.328	**.700**	.108
IFJ4	.074	.280	**.780**	.110
IFJ5	.261	.271	**.734**	.202

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The first four components explained a cumulative variance (initial eigenvalue) of 75.361.

*DJ1=1st distributive justice item, DJ2=second distributive justice item, etc.

PJ1=1st procedural justice item, PJ2=second procedural justice item, etc.

IPJ1=1st interpersonal justice item, IPJ2=second interpersonal justice item, etc.

IFJ1=1st informational justice item, IJF2=second informational justice item, etc.

The phenomenon of organisational justice thus appears to exhibit sufficient structural invariance in this particular context in order to proceed to test the hypotheses regarding normative and level stabilities. Furthermore, the participants of the study appear to distinguish between the four dimensions of justice, allowing for separate tests of the four dimensions. The scale appears to conform to the expected factor structure.

3) Measure performance

The internal consistency reliability for this scale was satisfactory in both data collection waves. As measured with Cronbach's alpha, the internal consistency reliability for the subscales and the scale overall exceeded 0.80 in every case. For details please see (Figure 5-8: measure performance).

Figure 5-8: measure performance organisational justice

	Distributive justice measure 4 items	Procedural justice measure 7 items	Interpersonal justice measure 4 items	Informational justice measure 5 items	Overall (all four dimensions) 20 items
T1	0.924	0.909	0.886	0.828	0.927
T2	0.921	0.895	0.964	0.890	0.945

The justice measures thus exhibit very good psychometric properties. On the basis of these positive results of the preliminary psychometric analysis of the organisational justice measure used, I proceeded to analyse the organisational justice data (see Chapter 6).

5.4.1.4.2 Resistance and Support Scale – T1 and T2

A 20 item scale developed by Bovey and Hede (2001) was used to measure the intentions to support or resist change. The scale has a copyright and was used with the permission of the authors. The scale consists of sub-scales that measure the following aspects of change resistance and support:

12 items in total measure resistance (3 each for active/overt, active/covert, passive/overt, and passive/covert resistance). Items for resistance read for example
"withdraw from the change" or "openly oppose the change" or "secretly attempt to stall the change".

8 items in total measure support (2 each for active/overt, active/covert, passive/overt, and passive/covert). Items for support read for example
"agree to the change" or "openly embrace the change" or "comply with the change"

The seven point Likert scale has the anchors 1= very unlikely, 2=fairly unlikely, 3=a little unlikely, 4=neutral, 5=a little likely, 6=fairly likely, 7=very likely.

The scale had been developed specifically for the context of organisational change, and was pre-tested and then tested in nine organisations by Bovey and Hede. Bovey and Hede used a summated scale for overt support for change, covert resistance to change, and passive neutrality towards change, which yielded Cronbach's alpha of 0.87 in their research.

I adjusted the introductory paragraph for the measure to make it fit the particular purpose and focus of this research. :

"think about the recent introduction of the (name of change). Please read each item below and indicate your intentions regarding the resulting changes based on your experience with (name of change project) by ticking one box for each statement. Based on your experience, how do you intend to react to the continued implementation of the (name of change) now and in the future...

Item 7 ("give in to the change") however appeared to have nearly no relation to either support or resistance, and was therefore not used in the following analyses. The remaining 19 items consisted of 7 items measuring support and 12 items measuring resistance, and yielded the following Cronbach's alphas in this study:

Figure 5-9: measure performance support and resistance

	Support measure (without item 7) 7 items total	Resistance measure 12 items in total
TIME 1 Cronbach's alpha	0.839	0.848
T2 Cronbach's alpha	0.886	0.893

5.4.1.4.3 Measures of Outcome favourability and Importance of outcome

In the previous chapter, outcome favourability and affectedness by outcomes have been hypothesised to have both main effects and moderating effects on reactions and moderating effects on the link between justice perceptions and reactions. I included measures for both outcome favourability and importance of outcome in my survey instrument. The item for the extent of being affected by change was previously also used in the context of organisational change by Bovey and Hede (2001) and read: "Please indicate how much you were affected by the changes related to (name of change project)."

For outcome positivity, no easily available "objective" and concrete measure could be used in this study, as outcomes in question might be different ones for different participants. I therefore chose a global measure of subjective outcome positivity, or outcome satisfaction, which read: "Please indicate how satisfied you are with the outcomes

of the changes related to (name of change project)." Both items were measured on a five-point scale with anchors 1=not at all to 5=a great deal.

Global single-item measures were preferred in this case, as the different criteria for beneficial outcomes or for impact of change were not clear in this context. Paterson and Cary for example preferred single-item measures of distributive justice in contexts where different criteria for allocations were not clear (Paterson & Cary, 2002).

While methodologists generally prefer multiple-item measures over single-item measures, the use of single-item measures has been shown to be justified when the underlying constructs are homogeneous (Loo, 2001). The two constructs concerned above are not complex, and may reasonably be assumed to be based on one factor, thus justifying the use of single-item measures in this case. In addition to this the use of single-items bears the danger of increasing type one error (i.e., rejection of a valid hypothesis). In the justice literature, single-item measures have for example been used for distributive justice, evaluating fairness of the outcome overall. These global distributive justice items had acceptable test-retest reliability and criterion validity (Paterson & Cary, 2002; Tyler & Lind, 1992).

5.4.1.4.4 Other variables measured / control measures

Another element that could possibly influence justice perceptions of individuals are demographic characteristics of the perceiver (for an overview see Greenberg & Wiethoff, (2001). I therefore controlled for the demographic differences (tenure, sex, age). For confidentiality reasons, age and tenure were assessed as categorical variables.

5.4.1.5 Approach to analysing the survey data

Hypotheses 1 to 5 are tested through a number of multiple, hierarchical OLS regressions. In order to test mediator- and moderator relationships, the procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) will be followed.

5.4.2 Interview Data – Methods

As outlined in the previous chapter, we have little knowledge at present regarding the broader questions underlying this research, such as why people support or resist change, which role fairness perceptions, outcomes or expectations play for their reactions to change. We have too little knowledge at present to even specify all relevant options for those broad questions. While the quantitative investigation outlined above will address specific elements relevant to these overall questions, additional, richer data is required to

gain better insights into the overall phenomena. Insights into participants' overall perspectives and alternative explanations cannot be attained easily in quantitative surveys.

There were both exploratory and explanatory elements to be addressed through additional data collection. Qualitative data was intended to aid the investigation of deeper meanings and why questions, and secondly to help investigate the issues addressed in the quantitative survey analysis in more depth. I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews as a method that would leave me sufficient freedom and yet provide sufficient structure to attain both of these goals.

Specifically, I pursued three purposes with the semi-structured interviews. Firstly, the interview data should help to contextualise the quantitative survey data, and to assess how comprehensive the justice framework can be as an explanatory framework in the context of these change experiences. Secondly, the interview data should help to identify tentative explanations to open questions regarding the link between employees' experience of and reactions to organisational change (inductive approach). Thirdly, the interview data should provide opportunities to identify examples and negative cases in relation to the hypotheses formulated and investigated quantitatively, thus serving to triangulate the quantitative investigation pursued concurrently (deductive approach).

5.4.2.1 Respondent selection

Convenience samples were chosen out of the change populations for the interviews. Members of the two organisations selected the interviewees rather than giving me a directory with free access. I asked my contacts who selected and contacted interviewees to make it explicit to potential participants that the participation in this research was completely voluntary and that not participating in an interview would have no negative consequences for them whatsoever. The HR contacts making the selection claimed that they selected interviewees largely at random. However, it can be assumed some bias may have been in place – even subconsciously – e.g., that they preferred to contact people they knew or they thought had time.

This may have introduced subject error (interviewees may not have had typical views and experiences), and may mean that their views are not representative of the views of other participants. The substantial number of interviews (61, excluding interviews with project managers), however, can be expected to have contributed to considerable breadth of viewpoints in both organisations, counteracting some of the biases potentially introduced through the sampling procedure.

The interviews were aimed at getting detailed accounts of work experiences and change experiences from the interviewees. While those may not be generalizeable, they help to understand the reality of the interview participants. There was an important choice involved in deciding on the timing of the interviews. As this thesis is predicated on the belief that employees' experience of change, available information levels, and their sense-making activities change over time, the timing for the interviews may have been crucial for participants views on change experiences and fairness. The data is likely to reflect participants' experiences in the particular time period of data collection, and at a different point in time perceptions could have been very different. The choice of timing for the interviews followed the choice of timing for the survey research relatively closely, in order to gain insights into individuals' thoughts and perceptions in both the discovery and the aftermath stages of change. As it is assumed that the subjective experiences during organisational change transforms overtime, only a relatively close spacing of interviews and surveys would allow to contextualise the survey data appropriately. In between the interview cycles I talked to managers in order to keep informed of developments and to determine when to schedule the next round of surveys and interviews .

5.4.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews were conducted in meeting rooms in the two organisations. At the beginning of each interview, I introduced myself to interviewees and thanked them for their time and for coming to meet me. I then explained the nature of my research as concerned with individual experiences of organisational change and pointed out that their participation was completely voluntary and that they could still now or at any later point in time choose not to participate. However, at this stage nobody decided to drop out.

Participants were made aware that they could ask me any questions at any time, and that they could also contact me any time after the interview should they have any concerns or should they have any further thoughts they wished to share with me. Nobody took me up on this offer. An explanation about confidentiality and privacy followed: I explained participants that their statements would be absolutely confidential, and only a general report that would not identify individual contributions would be made available to participating organisations as well as to participants. Finally, I asked them if it was ok for me to voice-record the interview, or if they preferred me to take notes only. A few participants preferred note taking during the baseline interviews, and one at T1 in INSURANCE, and one at T2 in INSURANCE. All the other interviews were recorded. The ones who opted for voice recording were reminded that they could stop the voice

recorder at any time during the interview for any reason. Two participants of the baseline interviews stopped the recorder during the interview, and left it switched off.

I then began the interview by asking participants about their job and day-to-day work life. Some prompts I had on my list were: *job description; exchange relationship; expectations; psychological contracts; referent standards; justice rules; relationship with and trust in colleagues, direct management and general management; experience with change; how change is handled here; concerns regarding change; impact of change; attitudes towards change; the specific change program I was interested in (see Appendix IV).*

Not all interviews covered all of these issues, and the order of subjects varied according to the flow of the conversation. No question was asked directly about fairness or justice, or about resistance to change. Thus participants were not alerted to the issues of justice or resistance. However, all interviews did touch on issues of organisational change, as I always asked questions about the specific change program of interest, and about exchange relationships. In many cases, respondents told me in-depth descriptions of change incidents they felt were important, while others had a lot to tell me about the relationship with their manager, or the culture of the company. I used open and probing questions when I felt this was appropriate for me to better understand the respondents' views. At the end of the interviews, I always asked whether there was anything else that they would like to add, and thanked them for their participation.

After each interview I also noted the interview date, the length of the interview, the job type and position of the interviewee, their gender and age group.

The interviews lasted between 30 minutes and 70 minutes, depending on the flow of the conversation and on the time the participant could spare away from their job.

In the pilot interviews a few respondents asked me whether they were telling me "what I wanted to hear", or "was I consistent?". A few of them also made comments such as "this is only my personal view". I therefore decided to slightly change my introduction in order to reduce response bias: After the pilot interviews and baseline interviews, I added the assurance to my introduction that we were "not looking for any particular answer, but for personal views", and that there was "no right or wrong when it comes to personal views and experiences." This seemed to work to at least to some extent, as I did not receive any further questions regarding the usefulness of their comments or whether they told me what I wanted to hear.

5.4.2.3 Approach to analysing the data

I decided to take extensive notes for the pilot interviews and T0 interviews in INSURANCE (before the start of the change programme), containing many accurately noted direct quotes, but for this baseline wave I prepared no complete voice transcriptions.

All of the recorded T1 and T2 interviews in INSURANCE and in BANK were fully transcribed, and only for the interviews that could not be recorded I had to rely on notes and some direct quotes that I jotted down during the interview (one person at T1 and one person at T2). All the resulting documents were saved in NVivo, and I used this programme to conduct content analyses of the data. Specifically, I analysed the data to address the following questions. (a) What determines people's reactions towards a change? (These findings may also serve to triangulate the results of the statistical analyses); (b) When do people act against or for a change? What makes the difference between negative attitudes and resistance and between positive attitudes and support? (c) In how far is organisational justice a meaningful and useful framework for the investigation of reactions in organisational change? What are the benefits and the limitations of the framework? (d) What is the role of past experiences for individual reactions to change?

Additionally, I expected the interview data to yield negative and/or positive examples of the dynamics described/predicted by the research model (e.g., are there cases where unfairness does not lead to resistance and why?), and to give substantial insights into relevant justice related dynamics, potentially uncovering additional concepts and variables. The flexible form of interviewing allowed the research to connect the phenomenon of change with the experience and language of participants, also providing a richer understanding of the context. The extensive descriptions of the two research settings relied largely on information gained through interviews.

5.4.2.4 Content analysis:

"Content analysis is any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages" (Holsti, 1969, P 14). But "problems are likely to arise when the aim is to impute latent rather than manifest content" (Bryman & Bell, 2003, P 208). Also, it is difficult to look for answers to 'why questions' through content analysis. What is theoretically most significant and important may not be measurable. As I intended to use qualitative data in my research to answer why questions, and as latent content is of considerable interest for my research objectives, I considered less rigid and formalistic forms of content analysis.

Altheide (1996) speaks of ethnographic content analysis to refer to an approach that emphasizes the role of the investigator in the construction of meaning in and of texts. This approach has been referred to as qualitative content analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Categories emerge out of the data and the significance of context is stressed. Underlying themes in the materials are analysed. The processes through which the themes are extracted are left implicit (as opposed to quantitative content analysis where detailed coding schedules are provided). The researcher constantly revises the themes or categories that are arising from the documents.

The process I followed lies more closely to the so-called qualitative content analysis than to the quantitative end of the continuum, and emerging categories are to a large extent "grounded" in the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The programme NVivo was mostly used for its convenient and efficient editing and coding functionality, but the same processes could have been followed in any normal text-editing programme.

In order to investigate individual experiences of and reactions to change recounted by interview participants in more depth, I conducted the following steps, which will be described in more detail below: Firstly, I identified and grouped different reactions to organisational change recounted by participants. Secondly, I collected the different reasons for and issues related to these reactions. Thirdly, I looked for emerging categories in these issues. In a fourth step, I looked for patterns between types of issues and types of reactions. Finally, I interpreted issues, patterns and overall insights on the background of an organisational justice perspective

Step i.: Identifying and grouping different reactions to organisational change recounted by participants

In a first step, I scrutinised the interview data for accounts of reactions to change mentioned by research participants in interviews. I included not only reactions to the particular two change projects, but any other stories that participants told me about changes in their organisation. The reason for this was that I wanted to leverage the rich data including different types of changes, past and present, in order to gain as much insight as possible into the phenomenon under investigation. However, descriptions of reactions to instances that were not clearly linked to a planned change were not included (e.g., reactions to a manager's everyday decisions). Apart from reactions to the two change projects described as research settings, the change reactions collected concerned changes such as restructuring, moving building, new system introduction, or pay structure changes.

With my research model in mind I started the analysis with the general categories support and resistance initially selected as relevant categories of potential reactions. I coded the documents in NVivo with this initial set.

I soon distinguished behavioural reactions (support and resistance, where participants recounted an actual behaviour they or others had exhibited towards the change) from positive/negative cognitive reactions and positive/negative emotional reactions to change. Finding it impossible for many instances to separate cognitive reactions from emotional reactions, I combined positive cognitive and emotional reactions , and negative cognitive and emotional reactions into one node, respectively.

There were a few cases (for overview of counts see Chapter 7), where participants indicated both positive and negative reactions that were roughly equally strongly developed. In these cases it was impossible to judge whether this was a positive or negative view of the change. I therefore introduced the node "ambivalence to change". Looking through the node ambivalence again after having coded all respective cases, I found that there were really two types of cases. Firstly, the case where people simultaneously saw arguments for and against the change, saw positive and negative sides of the change, or felt both positive and negative emotions towards the change. But secondly, there were cases where people had firstly felt negative or thought negatively about the change and then time had passed, and they changed their reaction. I decided that these cases were not describing ambivalence, but really described two different reactions, and a transition between them. This second category was then taken out of the ambivalence node again, and split into the reactions before the transition (either cognitive/emotional reactions or behaviours) and into the reactions after the transition. Thus, all the transition stories were integrated into the previous coding structure of support/resistance and positive/negative cognitive and emotional reactions.

In a few cases I double-coded stories, when participants both explicitly recounted emotional and cognitive reactions (such as "I was so worried", or "I think this is really bad"), and behaviours (e.g., "I argued with my manager and said I don't want to do this"). In the majority of cases however, only one of the two options was the case.

I thus had five main nodes:

1) Support (behaviours in favour of the change)
2) Resistance (behaviours directed against the change)
3) positive cognitive and emotional reactions (mainly positive thoughts and feelings about the change)

4) negative cognitive and emotional reactions (mainly negative thoughts and feelings about the change)
5) ambivalence (a mix of positive and negative thoughts and feelings about the change, without either positive or negative being clearly prevalent).

Reviewing all the text belonging to these nodes an additional time, I differentiated the coded nodes further. Support and resistance were either **active or passive** (e.g., promoting the change is active support while accepting it is passive support, or leaving the development plan in one's drawer would be qualified as passive resistance whereas. arguing with one's manager about whether to do it would be active resistance). All stories of reactions were either about **self** or about **others** reacting to change, and in some instances participants stressed that **oneself AND others** thought or reacted in a particular way. To make sure the coding corresponded to the overall refined structure of nodes, I repeated the process of reviewing all documents after I had determined the final coding categories for reactions.

Step ii.) Collecting the different reasons for reactions and issues related to reactions

Each reaction belonged to a story about a particular change. I took down all the issues (positive and negative) that participants told me about each of these changes in relation to their reactions, and ordered them in a table in separate columns next to the particular reaction. Participants recounted between 1 and 7 issues about each of the changes. Issues were not restricted to any area – they could for example concern the rationale of the changes, decisions during the changes, the role managers played, how they or others were directly affected by the change etc.

Step iii.) Looking for emerging categories in these issues

Within these issues, I was then looking for themes or categories. I acknowledge that my preconception was influenced by my thinking about organisational justice, but when working with the data I soon realised that the four dimensions of organisational justice might be too narrow to cover the broad range of issues mentioned by participants. Also, as I did not ask participants directly about "fairness", a lot of issues that might be concerning the organisational justice categories were simply not framed in fairness terms.

I began by identifying a group of issues as relating directly to tangible and intangible outcomes of the changes for the change participants (whether in justice terms or not), a second group as issues relating to procedures, thirdly issues relating to information,

and finally interpersonal issues. Consequently I split these out into positive/negative dichotomies (i.e., positive outcomes might be "the job is more varied, less boring" vs. negative outcomes might be "Because we think we get a fair enough deal upstairs, and I don't think that it is the same downstairs"

Positive vs. negative experiences with procedures are reflected in examples such as "staff was involved from the start" vs. "they were not asked if they needed it or liked it, not asked to participate". etc.). There were a few instances of issues that did still not fit into this categorization. Firstly, instances where participants gave reasons why they thought aparticular change worked or didn't work in their particular organisation, or why this was good or bad for their organisation (e.g., "The way the new system is, it is obviously supposed to be way better. So the jobs we all do manually now, allegedly will be done by the touch of a button. It'll speed things up", or "I don't see anything being done to address the core problems: the behaviour of the people using the systems, and their attitudes. Most of the bad data are due to staff using systems not being trained, or due to shortcuts they take. The same would probably happen with a new system." These issues were grouped in positive/negative organisational issues.

Secondly, there were instances where participants recounted that they realised they could not do anything about the change, or that it was not their place to decide these things or to do anything about these things (for example: "it is not really my place in the like to stand up and say to my manager I don't agree with this, because tough luck, it's here, and my opinions are not going to change it")

I coded these issues as power – and soon realised that this was really a misnomer, as all of these instances really described the issue of powerlessness and not of power. Thus, the final grouping of issues related to the changes is the following:

- positive/negative organisational issues
- positive/negative outcome issues
- positive/negative procedural issues
- positive/negative interpersonal issues
- positive/negative informational issues
- powerlessness

Reviewing all the text belonging to these groupings again, I realised that some of these issues were related to past events or experiences, which were not really part of this actual change towards which the reaction took place. For example, someone talking about the overall change programme in INSURANCE" said "When we heard (name of overall

change programme), we all thought (name of old change programme in 1997) again". INSURANCE had tried to implement an IT change in 1997, which failed and was abandoned. Years later, these experiences were reflected onto the newly announced programme. I thus split up each of the above issues again into concerned with **PAST vs. change in question**.

Step vi.) Looking for patterns between types of issues and types of reactions

In order to facilitate this step, I used various forms of presentation and tables, and counted various combinations of issues and reactions. While NVivo has some table- and assay-functions, the PIVOT table function in excel is more flexible. I therefore created excel tables with the interview material, and then combined the various categorizations of the data (e.g. behaviour vs. attitudes, positive vs. negative, active vs. passive, self vs. others etc) in different ways to find emerging patterns.

Step vii) Interpreting issues, patterns and overall insights on the background of an organisational justice perspective

The patterns discovered were discussed with a view to the questions formulated above. The results and analyses will be presented in Chapter 7, which provides an overview and brief discussion of the content analysis results, and in Chapter 9, which discusses the contribution, limitations and implications of the overall study including all elements of investigation.

5.5 Research Rigour

Any choice of methodology and methods has its weaknesses. While multi-method investigations can aid in counteracting such weaknesses through balancing the strengths of different approaches, multi-method investigation also have their potential shortcomings. Some of the risks in this research design are for example its overall complexity, the difficulty to differentiate between what is specific to the setting or to the individual, the possibility of personal bias, the bias resulting from single-source design (even though multiple methods are used for both data collection and analysis), finding the right spacing of measures to match the spacing of effects, or people giving socially accepted answers and telling self-serving stories.

Typically, validity and reliability are the criteria used to judge the quality of quantitative research. Reliability is the extent to which a study and its findings can be replicated, and validity refers to the extent to which the study findings can be considered

true (Stiles, 1993). The use of tested and validated instruments reduces the threats of validity and reliability, yet other dangers remain.

It has been debated whether reliability and validity are the right terms to describe the quality of qualitative research (Merrick, 1998). While the positivist position holds that the same set of criteria should be applied to all research, the post positivist position holds that there should be a different set of criteria of goodness for qualitative research than for quantitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The postmodernist position holds that no criteria exist for judging qualitative research, and the poststructuralist position beliefs that a radically different set of criteria needs to be developed and deployed. This project is conducted mainly in a post positivist tradition. In this context, the criteria trustworthiness, reflexivity and representation are seen as central criteria for determining the rigour of qualitative research (Merrick, 1998).The overall findings and results of this study will need to be evaluated in the light of these criteria (see Chapter 9).

5.6 Chapter Summary and methodology overview

In this chapter I have described the research settings in detail, and have pointed out particular implications of the research settings for this investigation. Further, I have outlined my philosophical approach and have presented and justified the methodology used to investigate the research questions and hypotheses. The core of the study consists of a longitudinal quantitative survey to test the hypotheses drawn from the research model. The survey data is also expected to facilitate additional explorative analyses closely related to the hypotheses. Semi-structured interviews with change participants at two points in time were analysed through iterative processes and brought forward concepts and categories inspired by theory but grounded in the data. Content analysis will facilitate the investigation of why people support or resist change, and in how far organisational justice is a meaningful and comprehensive framework for the investigation of support/resistance in organisational change. The different elements of data collection in both research settings are presented in an overview in the tables below (Figure 5-10 Timeline for research in INSURANCE and Figure 5-11 Timeline for research in BANK). The weaknesses of the methodology chosen have been briefly discussed, and criteria of rigour have been proposed. In the next chapters, the results of the analyses will be presented.

Figure 5-10 Timeline for research in INSURANCE

Date	Change event	Interviews	Survey research (n=53)
Apr-03		Pilot interviews	
May-03	Focus group and offsite	Pilot interviews (31)	Testing survey
Jun-03			
Jul-03			
Aug-03	Union negotiations for pilot		
Sep-03			
Oct-03			
Nov-03			
Dec-03			
Jan-04			
Feb-04	Managers info meeting		T0 survey
Mar-04	Staff launch		
Apr-04			T1 survey
May-04			
Jun-04	Training sessions for new development plans	T1 interviews (7)	
Jul-04			
Aug-04			
Sep-04	1 to 1 meetings for development plans		
Oct-04		HR managers and trainers (4)	
Nov-04			
Dec-04	Pilot teams thanked in finger food reception		
Jan-05	Negotiations with unions about roll-out to all staff		
Feb-05	Annual review meeting with managers		
Mar-05			
Apr-05			T2 survey
May-05			
Jun-05		T2 interviews (5)	
Jul-05			
Aug-05		HR manager (1)	

Figure 5-11 Timeline for research in BANK

BANK	Storyline	Interviews	Survey research n=300
Feb-04	Trainings managers		
Mar-04			
Apr-04	Trainings managers		T1 survey to managers
May-04	Trainings staff		
Jun-04	Trainings staff, roll-out of talent max		T1 survey to staff
Jul-04	Trainings staff		T1 to staff
Aug-04	The change project manager is leaving		T1 to staff
Sep-04		Change project manager (1)	
Oct-04		T1 interviews (11)	
Nov-04			
Dec-04			
Jan-05			
Feb-05	Fill in talent max		
Mar-05	End of March: review meetings		
Apr-05			
May-05			T2 survey to staff and managers
Jun-05		T2 interviews (6), change managers (2)	

6 Survey Data Analysis, Results and Discussion

6.1 Chapter overview

This chapter firstly gives an overview of the results of the hypotheses tests conducted with the survey data. This overview will be followed by a discussion of the results. Supplemental analyses are conducted to complement the discussion and to investigate some of the relationships in more depth. An overall discussion of all results of this study (drawing on all methods employed) will follow in Chapter 9.

6.2 Survey data analysis

In the following, the procedures and results of the statistical analyses of the survey data will be presented.

6.2.1 Missing values

Missing values are often dealt with through either list wise or pair wise deletion. These methods are easy and straightforward, yet they rely on the assumption that missing values are missing completely at random, which is a strong assumption to make.

Less strong assumptions need to be made for the third way to deal with missing values, imputation. This can be done either by filling in the mean value or- much preferable, because a better estimate for the missing values– by imputing a value from the predictive distribution of the overall data (Taris, 2000). This method, which gives the best estimate for missing values and is thus preferable from a statistical standpoint, also allows to retain maximum power of the analyses as less cases need to be discarded. The "impute values through matching" option provided by the PRELIS programme was used for replacing missing values in individual items in organisational justice and reactions to change. This option replaces missing item values with estimates based on the values of related items, and how these are related to the overall population. For example, for a missing item on any dimension of organisational justice all other items in this dimension were used to impute the value, and for support/resistance all other items in the variable were imputed. This procedure could not be followed where various items were missing, therefore in those cases I proceeded with list wise deletion.

6.2.2 Testing of the hypotheses

For each analysis, the full set of data available to address the hypothesis was used. This allowed me to use all relevant data and gave my analyses the maximum power

to detect the predicted effects. Comparative analyses based only on the 84 respondents who completed all two surveys shows unchanged results.

Hypotheses 1 to 5 will be tested through a number of multiple, hierarchical OLS regressions. In order to test mediator- and moderator relationships, the procedures outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986) will be followed. Before presenting these tests I will briefly discuss a few issues related to the measurement of change and interaction effects, and justify my choices for the chosen approaches for testing the hypotheses.

6.2.2.1 A note on the difficulty of measuring change

The problems associated with measuring change have made studies difficult to realise, and some statisticians have even advised researchers interested in change to frame their research questions in different ways (Cronbach & Furby, 1970). It is possible to measure change if longitudinal data are available (Singer & Willett, 2003). However, a two-wave design does not allow any conclusions about the actual development and individual growth rates over time. Two waves give merely two snapshots, and allow one to calculate the difference between them. In interpreting this difference, it is important to know whether the spacing of the measures corresponded to the effect to be measured. While I have taken great care to choose my timing (5.4.1.2.3.2), the possibility remains that various changes not accounted for took place between both measurements.

6.2.2.2 Testing interaction effects

Various approaches have been proposed in order to test interaction effects between continuous variables. In the following the main approaches will be briefly considered to put my choice of analysis into perspective.

Firstly, a so-called 2*2 median split analysis (ANOVA) can be conducted, where the variables involved are dichotomised. This dichotomization technique discards information contained in multi-point measures and leads to reduced explained variance and statistical power (Cohen & Cohen, 1983).

Another option is moderator median split analysis. Using this approach, the slopes for the independent variable for high vs. low levels of the moderator are compared after the moderator variable is dichotomised. As the medina split analysis described above, this approach also reduces the information of the moderator variable and yields less powerful tests of significance. However, if interactions are not bilinear in nature, this type of analysis may detect statistically significant differences where regression analyses do not find them (Jaccard, Turrisi, & Wan, 1990).

A final option is product term analysis in multiple regression. Using this approach the product of predictor and moderator is entered as an independent variable into the multiple regression equation. This simple product term assumes a linear relationship between the change of effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Other functions, such as quadratic moderation functions, can also be tested by hierarchical regression procedures (Baron & Kenny, 1986)

Ultimately, both pragmatic reasons and the particular purpose and theoretical framework for the analysis should be considered in choosing the appropriate moderator-test approach. As I planned to test interaction effects between outcomes and dimensions of justice, and past theory and research has claimed multiplicative interaction effects between these variables (Brockner et al., 2001), the product term analysis was a particularly suitable option. Given these theoretical considerations and the loss of precision the other options invariably entail I decided to use the multiplicative model for the moderator tests in this study.

Moderator effects are indicated when the effect of the product is significant, while the main effects of moderator and independent variable (IV) are controlled. The main effects for the predictor and the moderator are not relevant to testing the moderator hypothesis, yet the first order predictors cannot be left out, as "[i]n the absence of both first order effects, the estimate of the modifier effect is biased" (Cleary & Kessler, 1982, P 161). The beta value of the product term indicates how much the slope between the dependent variable and the independent variable is predicted to change when the moderator variable changes by one unit.

One of the problems when using multiplicative terms in regression analysis is multicollinearity, as product terms usually exhibit strong correlations with the component parts which leads to inflated standard errors for the regression coefficients (Jaccard et al., 1990). However, given the conditional nature of the interactive model, the threats of multicollinearity are not as high as in other models and may not be substantive at all (Cronbach, 1987). The properties of OLS estimates are not affected, but high correlations between predictors "can cause computational errors on standard computer programs, given the algorithms that are typically used for regression analysis" (Jaccard et al., 1990, P 31). This problem is best addressed by centering the predictor variables (Cronbach, 1987). While the practice of centering is generally recommended, the practice of standardizing the variables is problematic for the analysis of product terms, as standardization affects the interpretability of the regression coefficients (Jaccard et al., 1990). I therefore centred my

predictor variables by deducting the mean from all values, but did not standardise them. When predictor variables and moderator variables are centred, the regression coefficient for the independent variable reflects its influence on the dependent variable at the average value of the moderator.

A limitation of this approach is that it is vulnerable to ceiling effects. If participants respond extremely positively in an absolute sense under one condition (such as for example high support under the condition of fair procedures), then they cannot react even more positively when this condition is combined with a more positive level of the moderator (e.g., when fair procedures are combined with positive outcomes) (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). If the absolute level of the outcome variable has extreme values, interaction terms cannot be interpreted correctly.

Social science data are usually struggling with measurement error. The bias in the estimates of the beta value for the interaction term often undermines the significance tests of the interaction in traditional analyses, including product term analysis (Jaccard & Wan, 1996). The reliability of the product term will be lower than the individual reliabilities of its components, reducing statistical power. My data may be fraught with measurement errors resulting from the interval level scale metric assumption of the Likert scales employed. This results from random influences onto the score (associated with reliability), and through systematic variations in score that are not related with the underlying construct to be measured (e.g., social desirability bias.). All these make it less likely that existing interaction effects will be detected by the analyses employed.

A way to test interaction effects while controlling for measurement errors is the use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). Using SEM to test for interaction effects can help to offset the distorting influences of random and systematic measurement errors, and rely on less restrictive assumptions than OLS regression (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Jaccard & Wan, 1996). Unfortunately, the sample size requirement for research employing the large number of variables I have employed goes far beyond the available responses over the two waves of data collection. For larger sample sizes, however, this would be the preferred approach.

6.2.2.3 Multiple regression analyses

Multiple regression "is the most widely used method for conducting multivariate analysis, particularly when more than three variables are involved" (Bryman & Cramer, 1999, P 252). Regression is a technique to investigate relationships between predictor variables and an independent variable.

Hypotheses 1 to 5 are predicting linear relationships, some of which are expected to be moderated or mediated. Multiple regression was employed to test these relationships. Each hypothesis was tested through hierarchical multiple regression procedures. The statistical package used for these analyses is SPSS for Windows (version 12). All p-values reported with regard to hypothesis testing regression coefficients are based on one-sided tests because of the directional hypotheses. For the testing of all hypotheses, summative scale scores were formed for the support and resistance scales, and for each of the justice dimensions. Multicollinearity did not appear to be a problem for the regression analyses, as for all analyses the variance inflation factors were below 10 (as discussed above, predictors were centred to counter potential multicollinearity problems).

Relevant descriptive statistics and correlations between the study variables are shown in Appendix III.

6.2.2.4 Hypothesis 1

This set of hypotheses states that the anticipated fairness of a change initiative at T1 will be related positively to intentions to support the change and negatively to intentions to resist the change at T1. The expected positivity of outcomes (PO) and the expected degree of being affected by the change (AC) are expected to moderate the relationship.

In multiple regression analysis, control variables should always be accounted for first to avoid overestimation of the utility of the independent variables of interest (Stevens, 2002). Control predictors should not be pre-selected according to their explanatory power in the specific sample, as this tends to make results sample specific (Stevens, 2002). On the basis of theoretical considerations, age, tenure, gender, AC and OP are chosen as potentially relevant control variables and will be entered first. This will help identify the specific added power of the justice concepts and the relevant interaction terms (justice*AC) and (justice*PO) for predicting ratings of behavioural intentions to support or resist change.

T1 Support

For T1 data, there were 147 useable cases for the purpose of the hypotheses testing (after imputing values where possible, and deleting non-imputable cases list wise). One case was excluded from these analyses because outlier analysis suggested that it would exert undue influence on the analyses. An investigation of the respective plots

proposes that a normal distribution can be assumed. In a first step, I entered the control variables age, sex, tenure, "affected by the change" (AC) and positivity of outcome (PO).

These variables together accounted for 20.7% (unadjusted R square)/ 17.9 % (adjusted R square) of the variance in support (at significance level 0.0005). Significant predictors at the 0.05 level were only AC (beta = -.152, p≤ 0.04) and OP (standardized beta = 0.347, p≤ 0.0005). Gender, tenure and age were not significant predictors.

T1 Resistance

For the outcome variable resistance, the control variables accounted for 24.8% (or adjusted R square 22.1 %) of the variance (alpha 0.0005). Only AC (standardized. beta 0.185, p≤ 0.29) and OP (standardized beta -.371, p≤ 0.0005) were significant predictors in the equation. No outliers were found for the outcome variable resistance. There were 147 total DF for tests including resistance.

The above variables were entered in a first step in the following hypotheses tests.

6.2.2.4.1 Hypothesis 1A

+ A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change (T1)

I entered distributive justice after the control variables for an increase in the explained variance of 2% (adjusted: 1.5%) for a total R^2 of 22.7% (adjusted R^2= 19.4%). The model is significant at p ≤ 0.0005. Despite the small absolute increase in explained variance distributive justice (DJ) proved to be a significant predictor (standardised beta = -.157, p ≤ 0.029) While OP remains a significant predictor (p≤ 0.001, standardized. beta -.296), AC is no longer significant at the 0.05 level.

Neither of the two interaction terms (OP*DJ) and (OP*AC) increased the explained variance significantly. Overall, evidence for a relationship between anticipated distributive justice and the intention to support the change could be found, so that support (reverse coded) is higher when perceived distributive fairness is higher and when perceived outcome positivity is higher. However, no evidence could be found for an interaction between distributive justice and OP (DJ*OP) or distributive justice and AC (DJ*AC).

- A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change (T1).

When adding distributive justice as a predictor to the control variables, 29.1% (adjusted R square: 26.1) of the variance of resistance to change were explained. This

represents an increase of explained variance of 4.3% (or 4% adjusted), at the significance level of 0.0001. The beta value for Distributive justice (-.231) was highly significant at 0.002. OP remained significant (beta –.294, p≤ 0.001), but AC was no longer significant at the 0.05 level.

When adding the interaction term for (OP* DJ), a slight increase in R Square was achieved (29.7 / adjusted 26.2), but the product term was not a statistically significant predictor. No increased variance could be explained through adding the interaction of (AC *DJ).

Overall, support was found for the prediction that anticipated distributive justice of a change would be negatively related to behavioural intentions to resist the change, but there was no evidence found for an interaction between distributive justice and outcome positivity.

6.2.2.4.2 Hypothesis 1B

+ A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change (T1)

The model with procedural justice as a predictor explained 23.1% of variance in support (adjusted: 19.8), at a significance level of 0.000, an increase of 2.4% (1.9%) from the model with control variables only. The standardized beta for Procedural justice (-.171) was significant at the 0.02 level. (OP standardized beta: -.291, p≤ 0.001.) No increase in explained variance was found when the two interaction terms were added.

Support has been found for the hypothesis that anticipated procedural justice regarding the change would be positively related to behavioural intentions to support the change.

- A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

When entering procedural justice (PJ) anticipation as a predictor for the outcome resistance to change, the explained variance was increased to 32.2 (adjusted: 29.3), representing an increase of 7.4% (adjusted: 7.2%), at significance level of 0.0005. The standardized beta of procedural justice is larger than for OP (at -.304, p≤ .000), OP standardized beta = -.271, p≤ 0.001.

When adding the interaction term for (PJ * OP), R squared is increased to 32.5, but adjusted R square is reduced to 29.1, and the interaction term is not a significant predictor. The same is true for adding the product term (AC* PJ)

Support was found for the hypothesis that anticipated procedural justice regarding planned change would be negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

6.2.2.4.3 Hypothesis 1 C

+ A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change (T1)

Anticipated interpersonal justice (IPJ) of the change as a predictor increased the explained variance in the intention to support the change to 25.6 (22.5 adjusted), an increase of 4.9% (4.6%), at significance level 0.000 (total df = 146). Interpersonal justice had a standardized beta coefficient of -.231, at p≤ 0.0015 (OP: beta 0.325, p≤ 0.000). Adding the interaction term (IPJ*OP) brings the explained variance to 29.1% (25.5% adjusted), which represents a further increase of 3.5% (3%). The coefficient of (OP*IPJ) is just significant at the 0.05 level (standardized beta 0.189), and multicollinearity represents no problem in this case (VIF 1.031). Adding the interaction term (IPJ* AC) lead to a very slight increase in R square to 25.8, but a decrease in adjusted R square to 22.1, and the interaction term was not a significant predictor at the 0.05 level.

Overall, there is support for the hypothesis that anticipated interpersonal justice would be positively related to intentions to support the change, and some support is also given for the existence of interaction effects between interpersonal justice and outcome positivity.

- A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change (T1).

The explained variance of intentions to resist the change was increased to 28.5 (adj 25.5) when adding anticipations of interpersonal justice as a predictor, an increase of 3.8%.. The model was significant at the 0.000 level (total df: 147). The predictors AC (standardized beta -.173, p≤ 0.036), OP (standardized beta –.352, p≤ .000) and IPJ (standardized beta -.201, p≤ 0.0035) were significant.

When adding the interaction factor (IPJ*OP) to the regression, R is increased slightly to 28.7, but adjusted R square is decreased to 25.2. The interaction term is not a significant predictor at the 0.05 level (p≤ .516). (IJPJ *AC) is not a significant predictor either (p≤ .848).

Support is found for the hypothesis that anticipated interpersonal justice are negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

6.2.2.4.4 Hypothesis 1 D

+ A higher degree of anticipated informational justice regarding a planned organisational change (T1) is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change (T1)

When entering the predictor anticipated informational justice (IFJ) after the control variables, 25.3% of the variance in the intentions to support the change are explained (adjusted 22.1%), representing an increase of 4.6% (4.2%). The model is significant at .000, and the standardized beta of -.223 for IFJ is significant at .002 (OP: standardized beta = -.302, p≤ .000, AC: standardized beta = -.143, p≤ .091). Neither the interaction factor (OP*IFJ), nor the interaction factor (AC*IFJ) contributed significantly to explaining the variance in the intentions to support (OP IFJ): p≤ .641, beta 0.036, and (AC*IFJ) p≤ .387, beta -0.066).

- A higher degree of anticipated informational justice regarding a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

When entering anticipated informational justice as a predictor for intentions to resist (after the control variables), the explained variance was increased to R=30.4% (adjusted: 27.5%), representing an increase of 5.6% (adj 5.4%). The model is significant at the .000 level, and at the 0.05 level the predictors AC (standardized beta=-.174, p≤ .033), OP (standardized beta= -321, p≤.000) and IFJ (standardized beta=-.248, p≤ .0005) remain significant.

Adding IFJ OP or the IFJ AC interaction terms did not significantly increased explained variance (OP*IFJ: standardized beta -.0.62, p≤ .396) and ((AC*IFJ) slight increase in R square to 31.5 and adjusted to 28.1, but standardized beta of -.108 not significant at .137)

The hypothesis that anticipated informational justice would be negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist change has been supported.

6.2.2.5 Hypothesis 2

This hypotheses states that the anticipatory injustice perceptions at T1 will be related to justice perceptions at T2. The mechanisms of stability are expected to hold for all four dimensions of organisational justice:

6.2.2.5.1 Hypothesis 2 A

A higher degree of anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage (T1) will be positively related to a higher degree of perceived distributive justice in the aftermath stage of change (T2).

In a first step, the control variables Age, sex, tenure, OP (T2) and AC (T2) were entered. These accounted for 24.9% (adjusted 19.9%) of the variance in Distributive justice perceptions at T2. (model significant at 0.001 level). When adding distributive justice (T1) as a predictor, no additional variance in distributive justice (T2) was explained (beta DJ 0.009 and p≤ .935).

No support was found for the hypothesis that anticipated distributive justice would be positively related to perceived distributive justice.

6.2.2.5.2 Hypothesis 2 B

A higher degree of anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage (T1) will be positively related to a higher degree of perceived procedural justice in the aftermath stage of change (T2).

To test hypothesis 2b, the control variables Age, tenure, sex, AC (T2) and OP (T2) were again entered in a first step and accounted for 30.7 % of the variance (26.1% adjusted). No increase in explained variance could be achieved through adding procedural justice (T1) as a predictor. No support was found for a positive association between anticipated and perceived procedural justice.

6.2.2.5.3 Hypothesis 2 C

A higher degree of anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage (T1) will be positively related to a higher degree of perceived interpersonal justice in the aftermath stage of change (T2).

The control variables accounted for 22.3% (adjusted 17.1%) of the variance in IPJ T2. Adding IPJ (T1) as a predictor increased R square by 0.6% (decreased the adjusted R square by 0.5%), a non-significant increase at p≤ .479 (IPJ standardized beta 0.78, p≤

.24). No support was found for a positive association between anticipated and perceived interpersonal justice.

6.2.2.5.4 Hypothesis 2 D

A higher degree of anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage (T1) will be positively related to a higher degree of perceived informational justice in the aftermath stage of change (T2).

The control variables accounted for 26.2% of the R Square for IFJ (T2), adjusted 21.2%. No additional variance could be explained through adding IFJ (T1) as a predictor. The hypothesis that anticipated informational justice would be positively related to perceived informational justice was not supported.

The above analyses did not provide any support for hypothesis 2. As explained in the previous chapter, hypothesis 2 relied on the assumption that there would be mainly assimilation effects, and relatively few or no contrast effects. Potentially a larger group of people than expected could have experienced contrast effects, and this group could have made it impossible to detect any relationship for the population. In order to investigate this issue further additional analyses were conducted. They are discussed in 6.3.6.

6.2.2.6 Hypothesis 3

The third set of hypotheses states that the perceived fairness of an experienced change initiative in the aftermath stage (T2) will be positively related to intentions to support the change and negatively to intentions to resist the change at that time (T2).

In a first step, I entered the control variables age, sex, tenure, "affected by the change" (AC) and positivity of outcome (PO). These variables together accounted for 20.3% (unadjusted R square)/ 17.4% (adjusted R square) of the variance in support (at significance level 0.0005) at T 2.

Significant predictors at the 0.05 level was only OP, with a standardized beta of -.385 at significance 0.0005. Gender, tenure, age and AC were not significant predictors (though Age failed the significance test marginally with 0.075, standardized beta -.174). For T2 data, there were 145 cases that were useable for the purposes of the hypotheses testing (after imputing imputable values and deleting non-imputable cases list wise). Two cases with high standardises residuals were excluded after outlier analyses, resulting in a total DF of 143 for the tests including support.

For the dependent variable intentions to resist change, the control variables accounted for 24.3% of the variance (adjusted R^2 21.6) (model significant at 0.000).

However, only OP was a significant predictor at the 0.05 level (with standardized beta -.456, p≤ .000), the second largest beta was held by tenure (standardized beta -.152, p≤ .112). No outliers were identified for the outcome variable resistance. There were 145 total DF for tests including resistance.

6.2.2.6.1 Hypothesis 3A

+ Perceived distributive justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change at T2

When adding Distributive Justice as a predictor for support, the resulting model explains 25.9% of variance (adjusted 22.7), and is significant at the .000 level (increase of explained variance of 5.6% or 5.3% adjusted). Distributive justice has a standardized beta of -.176, at p≤ 0.018. The largest beta is held again by OP, -.348, p≤ .000 and Age was marginally significant (beta = 0.185; p ≤ 0.052). Adding the interaction terms (DJ*OP) or (DJ*AC) does not add any significant explained variance.

Support was found for the hypothesis stating that distributive justice perceptions would be positively associated with behavioural intentions to support change.

- Perceived distributive justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Inputting DJ as a predictor for resistance increases the explained variance to 26.5 (increase of 2.2), and the adjusted R square to 23.3 (increase of 1.7). The increase is significant at the 0.05 level. DJ is a significant predictor with standardized beta of -.164, and sign 0.024. OP remains the largest predictor with standardized beta of -.383 and p≤ .000.Adding the interaction term for (OP*DJ) does not lead to a significant increase in R and neither does (AC*DJ) (standardized beta of -.04, 2-tailed sign 0.611). Thus, the hypothesis that perceived distributive justice would be p negatively related to intentions to resist change was supported.

6.2.2.6.2 Hypothesis 3B

Perceived procedural justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change at T2

Entering procedural justice as a predictor for perceived intentions to support the change led to an increased R square of 24.8 % (an increase of 4.5%), and adjusted R square of 21.5% (an increase of 4.1%). The model is significant at the 0.000 level, but the predictor procedural justice (standardized beta -.135) is only marginally significant (p≤

0.064). After entering procedural justice Age is significant (beta -.190, p≤ 0.048), and OP still contributes the highest percentage of explained variance with a standardized beta of -.358 at sign .000

Adding the interaction (OP* PJ) does not lead to a significant increase in R squared (OP*PJ has standardized beta of 0.026, at p≤ .735 two-tailed). However, the interaction term AC*PJ increases R square to 26.8 (an increase of 2% through the interaction term), and adjusted R square to 23% (increase of 1.5%). The interaction term has a standardised beta of 0.149, at a two-tailed significance of 0.056 (1-tailed 0.028). Thus, while procedural justice alone could not be supported as a predictor, the interaction between procedural justice and AC was shown to be significant, even though the effect is small. There is thus some support for the proposition that the degree to which a respondent feels affected by the change has an impact on the strength of the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and intentions to support the change.

- Perceived procedural justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change at T2.

Adding procedural justice as a predictor to explain resistance, increased R square by 1.3 % (to 25.6%) and Adjusted R square by 0.8% (to 22.4%). However, this change was only marginally significant (p <= 0.07). (standardized beta for procedural justice was -.131). Equally, the product term OP*PJ did not add any significant explanation of variance (OP*PJ had a standardized beta of .074 at sign .334 two-tailed or .17 1-tailed.

As for support, the product term AC*PJ increased R square significantly, in this case to 27.8% (an increase of an extra 2.2%), adjusted R square of 24.1 percent (increase of an extra 1.7%). This change was significant at 0.042 two-tailed or 0.021 1-tailed. The standardized beta-value for the interaction term was .157 (the second largest beta value in the model after OP, of -.414, with sign .000).

While there is no support for the hypothesis that procedural justice perceptions would be negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist, there is some support for the proposition that the degree to which change participants felt affected by the change had an impact on the strength of the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and intentions to resist the change.

6.2.2.6.3 Hypothesis 3 C

+ Perceived interpersonal justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change at T2

Adding interpersonal justice as a predictor for support lead to an R square of 23.8% (adjusted 20.5%), an increase of 3.5% (3.1%), which was however not significant at .43. The predictor IPJ did not add significant variance (standardized beta of 0.063, P≤ .21). The interaction term IPJ*OP did not add any significant explained variance either, with standardized beta of 0.01 and p≤ .908 (2-tailed).

Adding the interaction term IPJ*AC lead to an increase R square of 24.9% (adjusted 21%), but this increase was not significant (standardized beta = .106; p≤ .173 two-tailed, .09 1-tailed).

No support was found for the hypothesised positive association between perceptions of interpersonal justice and behavioral intentions to support change.

- Perceived interpersonal justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Adding IPJ as a predictor for resistance did not produce any significant increase in R square (R square 24.9%, adjusted 21.7%, but sign .304 two –tailed), neither did the predictor product term IPJ*OP with a standardized beta of (leading to R square of 25.2, adjusted 21.4, sign .45). Adding the product term of AC * IPJ did not result in a significant increase in explained variance either (F change significance .813). (AC*IPJ had standardized beta of 0.018, p<= .813 two-tailed)

The hypothesised relationship between perceived interpersonal justice and behavioural intentions to resist change was not supported.

6.2.2.6.4 Hypothesis 3 D

+ Perceived informational justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change

Hypothesis 3 D predicted a positive linear relationship between perceived informational justice and intentions to support the change at T2. While entering IFJ lead to an increased R square of 24.3% (adjusted R square 20.9), IFJ was still not a significant predictor at the 0.05 level (standardized. beta of -.099, with p≤ .12). Adding the interaction term OP*IFJ lead to R square 24.4 (adjusted 20.5), which was not a significant increase (sign .643 two-tailed). standardized beta for the interaction term was -.037 (sign .643 two-

tailed). The interaction term AC*IFJ brought the R square to 25% (adjusted 21.2), but the increase was again not significant at .238 (two-tailed), with standardized beta AC*IFJ of .092, p≤ 2-tailed .238. No support was found for a positive association between informational justice perceptions (T2) and intentions to support the change (T2)

- Perceived informational justice regarding experienced planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change.

Hypothesis 3 D predicted also a negative linear relationship between perceived informational justice and intentions to resist the change at T2. Entering informational justice as additional predictor for resistance increased R square to 24.4 % (by 0.1%), but decreased adjusted R square, there was no significant increase (beta for IFC was -.024, sign 1-tailed .38). Adding the interaction term OP*IFC did not lead to any increase in R square. Adding AC*IFJ increased R square slightly, to 24.9 , but this increase was non-significant (F change p≤ .312). AC*IFJ had a standardized beta of .078, at 2-tailed significance .312. No support was found for the hypothesized negative relationship between perceived informational justice (T2) and behavioural intentions to resist the change (T2).

6.2.2.7 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis four claimed a relationship between the intentions to support and resist change at T1 and the intentions to support and resist change at T2.

6.2.2.7.1 Hypothesis 4A

4+ Intentions to support change in the discovery stage of organisational change (T1) are positively related to intentions to support change in the aftermath stage (T2).

As for the previous tests, in a first step the control variables Gender, Age, Sex, OP (T2) and AC (T2) were entered. These accounted for 30.5% (adjusted: 25.9%) of the variance in support at T2 (model significant at .000 level). When adding support at Time1 as a predictor, an R square increase of 10.1 % was achieved (adjusted: 9%). Coming to 40.6% explained variance (adjusted: 35.8). This increase was significant at 0.001. While OP (T2) had the highest standardized beta (-.403, p≤ .001), the standardized beta of support (T1) came close with the value of .338, p≤ .001. Support was found for the hypothesized positive relationship between intentions to support change at T1 and intentions to support change at T2.

6.2.2.7.2 Hypothesis 4B

4- Intentions to resist change in the discovery stage of organisational change are positively related to intentions to resist change in the aftermath stage.

The control variables explained 33.8 % of the variance in resistance to change at T2 (adjusted R square: 29.4%, model significant at .000). Adding the intention to resist change at T1 as predictor increased R square to 41.5 (increase of 7.7), adjusted R square 36.7 (increase of 7.3). This increase was significant at the 0.003 level. Resist (T1) was the second largest standardized beta coefficient (.285, with p≤ .002, after OP (T2) with -.574, p≤ .000). Thus, there was support for a positive association between behavioural intentions to resist change at T1 and behavioural intentions to resist change at T2.

Overall hypothesis 4 has been supported, both for the intentions to support and the intentions to resist change.

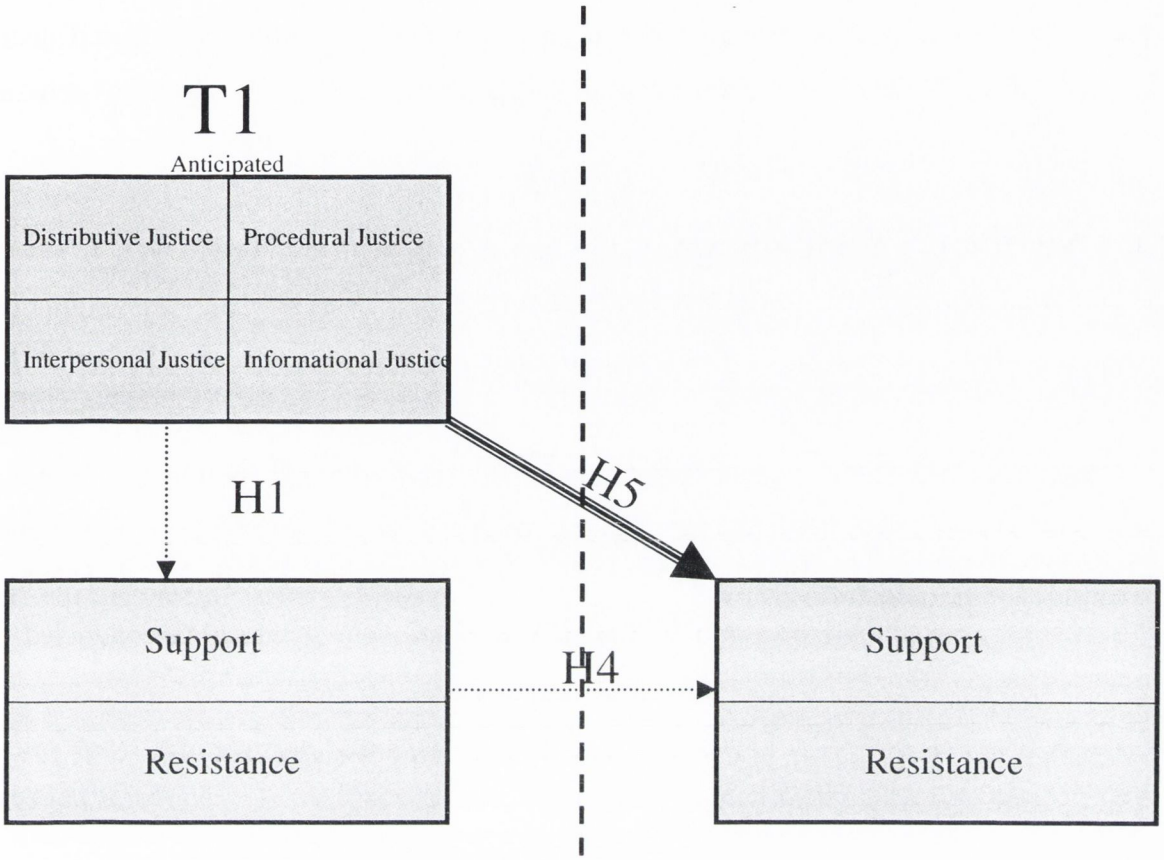
6.2.2.8 Hypothesis 5

This set of hypotheses states that anticipatory injustice perceptions in the discovery stage of change will be related to reactions to change in the aftermath stage, and that this relationship is mediated by justice perceptions in the aftermath stage and mediated by behavioural intentions in the discovery stage.

The control variables gender, age, tenure, AC (T2) and OP (T2) were entered first. These accounted for 30.5% of the variance in support at T2 (25.8 adjusted), and the model is significant at the 0.000 level. Both OP and Tenure are significant predictors at the 0.05 level (standardized beta OP -.516 and standardized. beta tenure -0.328) For resistance, they accounted for R square 34.5% (adjusted 30%), and OP and tenure are strongest predictors (standardized beta for tenure -.31, and OP -.62)

By stating that Reactions at T1 and organisational justice at T2 are mediators, the relationship between organisational justice at T1 and Reactions at T2 need be such that when the paths of hypotheses 1 to 4 are controlled, then the previously significant relationship between organisational justice T1 and Reaction T2 is no longer significant, or at least the significance should be strongly decreased. Each of the two paths (via Reaction T1 and via organisational justice T2) is expected to decrease the relationship between organisational justice (T1) and Reaction (T2) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). As there was no support for Hypothesis 2, it makes no sense to test fairness perceptions at T2 as a mediator. Only Intentions to support and resist change at T1 remain thus to be tested as mediators (see Figure 6-1: Hypothesis 5 and mediator test)

Figure 6-1: Hypothesis 5 and mediator test



6.2.2.8.1 Hypothesis 5 A

+ Anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage of planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

Adding distributive justice anticipations as a predictor to the variables gender, age, tenure, AC and OP, no additional variance could be explained. There is no support for the hypothesis that anticipated distributive justice at T1 is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support change at T2. As there is no support for a relationship, no mediation tests remain to be done.

- Anticipated distributive justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

When adding distributive justice anticipations as a predictor for the intentions to resist at T2, a very slight change in R square (to 35.8/adjusted 30.5%, i.e. an increase of 1.3 or adjusted 0.5%) can be observed, but this change is not significant at the 0.05 level.

There is no support for a negative association between anticipated distributive justice at T1 and behavioural intentions to resist at T2. No mediator tests remain to be conducted.

6.2.2.8.2 Hypothesis 5 B

+ Anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

Adjusted R square could not be increased through adding procedural justice anticipations as a predictor for support intentions at T2. No support was found for a positive association between anticipated procedural justice at T1 and behavioural intentions to support change at T2. No mediation tests remain thus to be conducted.

- Anticipated procedural justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

...the same was true for intentions to resist at T2, the adjusted R square could not be increased by adding the predictor anticipated procedural justice (T1). The hypothesized negative relationship between anticipated procedural justice at t1 and behavioural intentions to resist change at T2 could not be supported, and no mediator tests could be conducted.

6.2.2.8.3 Hypothesis 5 C

+ Anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

A very slight increase in R square (0.15%) and R square adj (0.05%) was achieved when entering interpersonal justice anticipations as predictor, but this change was not significant at the 0.05 level. No support was found for a positive association between anticipated interpersonal justice at T1 and behavioural intentions to support change at T2.

- Anticipated interpersonal justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

Interpersonal justice anticipations were a marginally significant predictor of behavioural intentions to resist at T2, at the significance level of 0.038 and with a standardized beta of -.179. R square was increased by 2.8% through adding IPJ (adjusted R square increase 2.1%). As this provided support for the hypothesised negative relationship between anticipated interpersonal justice at T1 and behavioural intentions to resist change at T2, mediator tests could now be conducted. If behavioural intentions to resist at T1 are a mediator of this relationship, then the relationship between IPJ at T1 and behavioural intentions to resist at T2 need be such that when the paths via intentions to resist T1 controlled, then the previously significant relationship between IPJ (T1) and Reaction (T2) is no longer significant, or at least the significance should be strongly decreased.(Baron & Kenny, 1986)This is in fact the case. When entering behavioural intentions to resist at T1 before entering interpersonal justice anticipations as predictor, then the intentions to resist at T1 are a significant predictor at the 0.002 level (standardized beta .410), while interpersonal justice anticipations are no longer a significant predictor ($p \leq$ .446, standardized beta 0.088). Thus, the relationship between interpersonal justice anticipations and behavioural intentions to resist at T2 is mediated by behavioural intentions to resist at T1.

6.2.2.8.4 Hypothesis 5D

+ Anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is positively associated with behavioural intentions to support the change in the aftermath stage

Adding anticipated informational justice could not significantly add explained variance to the control variable model (increase of 0.5% R square, but decrease of 0.3% adjusted R square). No support was found for the hypothesised relationship between anticipated informational justice at T1 and behavioural intentions to support at T2.

- Anticipated informational justice in the discovery stage of a planned organisational change is negatively associated with behavioural intentions to resist the change in the aftermath stage.

Anticipated informational justice did not explain any additional variance in intentions to resist at T2 either. No support was found for hypothesis 5d.

6.2.3 Summary of the results

Support has been found for Hypotheses 1 a, b, c and d regarding the relationship between anticipations of fairness along the four dimensions of organisational justice and behavioural intentions to support and resist change at T1 (for an overview, see Figure 6-2:Summary hypotesis one test).

Figure 6-2:Summary hypotesis one tests

Hypothesis 1			main hypothesis			interaction term with AC	interaction term with OP		
	Added predictors*	Dependent variable	R2 change	std beta	Significance level		R2 change	Std beta	sign
a	**ant DJ**	support	2%	-0.157	0.029	not sign	not sign		
		resistance	4.30%	-0.231	0.002	not sign	not sign		
b	**ant PJ**	support	2.40%	-0.171	0.02	not sign	not sign		
		resistance	7.40%	-0.304	0.001	not sign	not sign		
c	**ant IPJ**	support	4.90%	-0.231	0.0015	not sign	**3.50%**	**0.189**	**0.05**
		resistance	3.70%	-0.201	0.0035	not sign	not sign		
d	**ant IFJ**	support	4.60%	-0.223	0.002	not sign	not sign		
		resistance	5.60%	-0.248	0.0005	not sign	not sign		

**ant DJ=anticipated distributive justice, ant PJ=anticipated procedural justice, ant IPJ=anticipated interpersonal justice, ant IFJ=anticipated informational justice*

There has been little support for the existence of interactions between dimensions of fairness and outcome positivity/affectedness by change: Only for the relationship between anticipatory interpersonal justice and intentions to support has an interaction been found, such that for more favourable outcomes the impact of interpersonal justice on support is larger.

No support has been found for hypothesis 2. Anticipations of fairness of each dimension were not significant predictors for the actual perception of these dimensions of fairness at a later stage.

Figure 6-3:Summary Hypothesis 2 tests

Predictors		DEPENDENT Variable	
a	Anticipated Distributive Justice	Distributive justice	not significant
b	Anticipated Procedural Justice	Procedural justice	not significant
c	Anticipated Interpersonal Justice	Interpersonal justice	not significant
d	Anticipated Informational Justice	Informational justice	not significant

Little support has been found for hypothesis 3, which proposed a relationship between each of the four dimensions of organisational justice and intentions to support or

resist change at T2. Only distributive justice was found to be a significant predictor of behavioural intentions to support and resist at T2 (at the 0.05 level). As for interaction effects, a marginally significant interaction between the degree to which participants felt affected by change and procedural justice has been found, such that procedural justice had a larger impact onto support and resistance at T2 when people felt more affected by the change.

Figure 6-4:Summary Hypothesis 3 tests

	predictor	Dependent Variable				Interaction with AC**			Interaction with OP**
**			R2 change	Std beta	Sign	R 2 change	Std beta	sign	
a	**DJ**	support	**5.60%**	**-0.176**	**0.018**	not sign			not significant
		Resistance	**2.20%**	**-0.164**	**0.024**	not sign			not significant
b	**PJ**	support		not sign		**2%**	**0.149**	***0.056**	not significant
		Resistance		not sign		**2.20%**	**0.157**	***0.042**	not significant
c	**IPJ**	support		not sign		not sign			not significant
		Resistance		not sign		not sign			not significant
d	**IFJ**	support		not sign		not sign			not significant
		Resistance		not sign		not sign			not significant

**interaction significance for two-tailed tests.*

***DJ=distributive justice, PJ=procedural justice, IPJ=interpersonal justice, IFJ=informational justice, AC=degree to which affected by outcomes, OP = positivity of outcomes*

Support has been found for the hypothesised relationship between behavioural intentions in the discovery and aftermath stages of the change. Behavioural intentions to support at T1 were significant predictors of behavioural intentions to support at T2 (at 0.05 level), and the same was true for behavioural intentions to resist.

Figure 6-5:Summary Hypothesis 4 tests

Predictor	Dependent variable	Change R2	Std beta	Significance level
a Intension to support at T1	Intension to support at T2	10.1	0.338	0.001
b Intension to resist at T1	Intension to resist at T2	7.7	0.285	0.001

Very limited support has been found for hypothesis 5: only anticipatory interpersonal justice appeared to be a significant predictor for behavioural intentions at T2 (in the aftermath stage) and only for intentions to resist (not intentions to support). This relationship was moderated by behavioural intentions to resist at T1.

Figure 6-6: Summary Hypothesis 5 tests

	Predictor variable *	Dependent variable	R2 change	Std beta	Significance level	
a	ant DJ	Support (T2)	not sign			
		Resistance (T2)	not sign			
b	ant PJ	Support (T2)	not sign			
		Resistance (T2)	not sign			
c	ant IPJ	Support (T2)	not sign			
		Resistance (T2)	**2.8**	**-.179**	**0.038**	**Resistance at T1 is moderator of this relationship**
d	ant IFJ	Support (T2)	not sign			
		Resistance (T2)	Not sign			

**ant DJ=anticipated distributive justice, ant PJ=anticipated procedural justice, ant IPJ=anticipated interpersonal justice, ant IFJ=anticipated informational justice*

Concluding, the research model has received partial support (see Figure 6-7: Support found for research model).

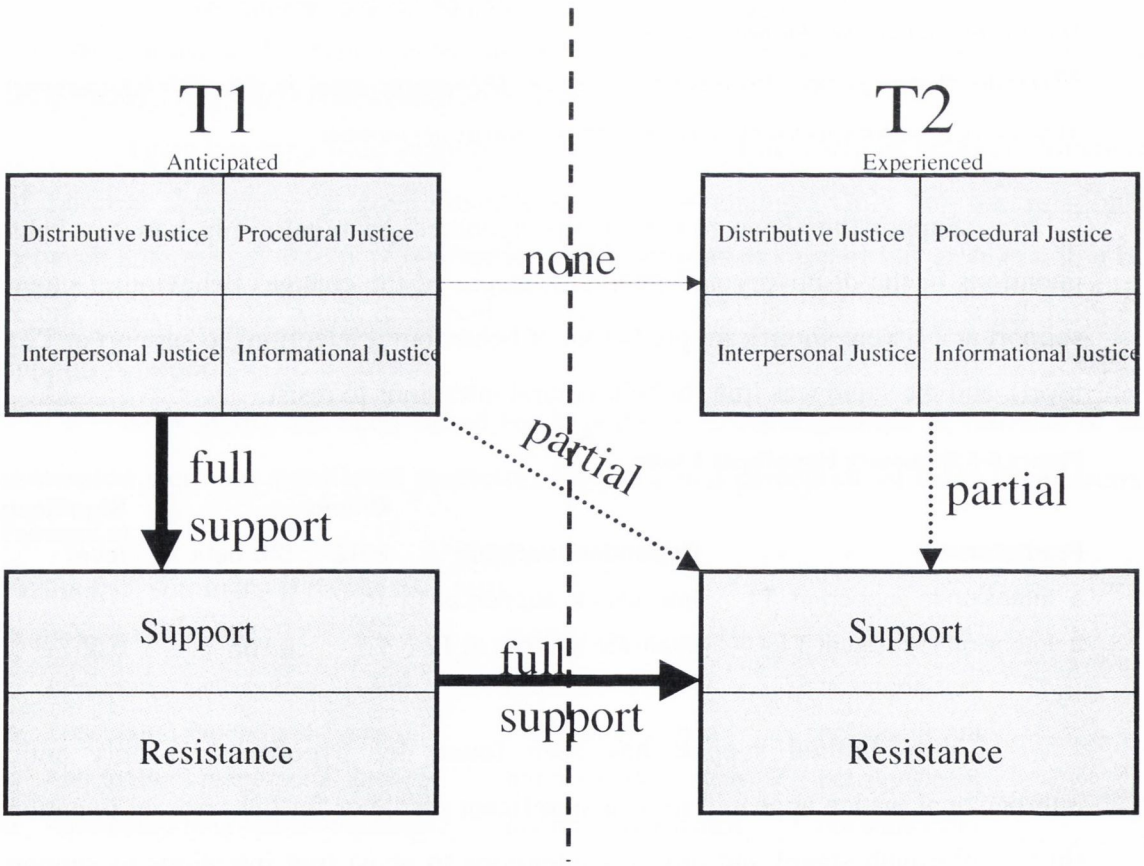


Figure 6-7: Support found for research model

6.3 Discussion of survey research results:

In the following, the results from the survey analysis presented above will be discussed and complemented by supplemental analyses to explore specific aspects of the relationships investigated in more depth.

6.3.1 The role of anticipations of (in)justice

This study investigates the impact of the anticipation of fairness for dimensions other than distributive anticipatory injustice. All four dimensions of anticipations were measured after the initial information meetings, but before the change was implemented. The measure of anticipatory informational justice regards informational justice through the supervisor/manager, and while first general information was available at the introductory meetings, participants did not experience informational fairness through their supervisor/manager regarding the change project at these meetings. The measure of anticipated informational justice in the changes is thus unlikely to be polluted with experiences due to the information meeting. For anticipations of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, effects on behavioural intentions have been found. This result provides support for the hypothesised role of anticipations of organisational justice in the beginning of organisational change.

6.3.2 The relative impact of the four justice dimensions at T1 and T2

At T1 (discovery stage), all four dimensions of fairness anticipations were significant predictors of behavioural intentions, while at T2 (aftermath stage), only the dimension of distributive justice was a significant predictor of behavioural intentions. This result suggests an increased focus on outcomes at T2 compared to procedural, interpersonal and informational aspects.

All four dimensions of justice anticipations were significant predictors of the intentions to support and resist change at T1. For resistance, anticipatory procedural justice has the strongest standardized beta coefficient, and for support, anticipatory interpersonal justice has the highest standardized beta.

In order to find the strongest overall predictors of the intentions to support and resist change at T1, all of the control variables and the four dimensions of justice anticipations were entered in a stepwise procedure into SPSS (Age, tenure, sex, OP, AC, DJ, PJ, IFJ and IPJ). In stepwise procedures, the factors with the highest predictive value are added to the model. Further factors are added as long as each contributes significant change in adjusted R square. The same procedure was followed for all control variables

and the four dimensions of perceived organisational justice at T2. The models created for intentions to support and resist at Times 1 and 2 are presented in Figure 6-8: Stepwise model intention to resist).

Figure 6-8: Stepwise model intention to resist

	Model for intentions to support *(reverse coding for support explains negative betas)*	Model for intentions to resist
TIME 1	OP (Std beta -.354, P≤ .000) IPJ (std beta -.211, p≤ .002) DJ (std beta -.155, p≤ .027)	PJ (std beta -.249, p≤ .0015) OP (std beta -.262, p≤ .001) AC (std beta -.144, p≤ .036) IPJ (std beta -.134, p≤ .039)
	Model explaining 26.9% of the variance (25.4 adjusted), the model was significant at 0.000	The model explained 32 % of the variance (adjusted 30.1), at a significance level of 0.001
TIME 2	OP (std beta of -.319, p≤ .000). AGE (std beta of -.254, p≤ .001). DJ (std beta of -.178, p≤ .016).	OP (std beta of -.379, p≤ .000). Tenure (std beta -.192, p≤ 009). DJ (std beta -.164, p≤ 023).
	The resulting model explained 24.9% of variance (adjusted: 23.3), p≤ 0.000	25.9% of variance (adjusted: 24.3), being significant at 0.000

DJ=distributive justice, PJ=procedural justice, IPJ=interpersonal justice, AC=degree to which affected by outcomes, OP = positivity of outcomes, AGE=age group of respondent, Tenure=tenure of respondent

At T1, participants' intentions to support change is in particular determined by how positive they expect their outcome to be, by how interpersonally fairly they expect to be treated, and by the expected distributive fairness of the change. People's intentions to resist change at T1 was mainly determined by anticipated procedural fairness, anticipated outcome favourability, how much they expect to be affected by the outcome, and how interpersonally fairly they expect to be treated.

At T2, participants' intentions to support was likely to be higher when they were more satisfied with outcomes, when they were older, and when they perceived the change outcomes to be fair. Their intentions to resist were likely to be lower when they were less satisfied with the outcomes, had worked there for a long time, and perceived outcomes to be fair.

This pattern is similar to the pattern over time found by Ambrose and Cropanzano (2003), who investigated perceived procedural and distributive justice shortly after and one year after a decision. Their measure for combined procedural/informational justice was found to be most influential on a number of organisational outcomes prior to and soon after

the decision, while distributive justice was relatively more influential for outcomes one year later.

While I measure anticipations (instead of perceptions shortly after implementation has begun), and I measure all four dimensions of organisational justice separately, the rationale behind the findings may be similar because consequences of outcomes often become evident only with experience. In relatively early stages of change, people are more likely to experience procedures and information, or even to be able to make estimates of procedural and informational fairness. These dimensions may thus have increased importance in early stages, and may also be used as proxies for other fairness dimensions (as proposed by fairness heuristics research, e.g., by Van den Bos, 2001), and for long-term outcomes (as proposed by instrumental model, e.g., Tyler, 1987). In this particular case, at T1 employees have been informed about the new procedures in a first information meeting and they may use previous treatment and information provision by their supervisor or manager as proxy for estimating how interpersonally and informationally fair that person is going to be during change implementation. However, the expectations of distributive justice were also significant predictors of behavioural intentions to support and resist already at the first point in time.

The reduced role of other dimensions, or the strong outcome focus found after outcomes were experienced appears to support the instrumental model of organisational justice (Tyler, 1987). According to this model, people mainly care about fairness because it promises to help secure favourable long-term outcomes.

AGE and TENURE seem to play a role especially at T2, such that in the discovery stage of the observed changes older participants were more likely to support the change and participants who had worked with the organisation for a longer time were less likely to resist the change than others. As both variables are moderately strongly correlated with a Pearson correlation of .624 (2-tailed significance at the 0.01 level), they seem to be partly tapping into the same phenomenon as the employees who have been with the organisation for longer typically are older as well. Possible explanations are that these employees may feel higher commitment to the organisation and/or their manager overall, or they may simply have been more socialised into exhibiting behaviours that are encouraged by the organisation. In fact, the measures of behavioural intentions at T2 are probably more likely to be closely related to actual behaviours during the change, as at this point in time respondents will be prompted to think about their actual behaviours exhibited during the change. Future research investigating actual behaviours is necessary to test this proposition.

6.3.3 The relative impact of the four justice dimensions for resistance vs. support

At T1, distributive and procedural justice anticipations were the relatively stronger predictors for intentions to resist change, while for support, interpersonal and informational justice anticipations were relatively stronger predictors. Various explanations could be brought forward for this.

In the operationalisation of this study, the source of distributive and procedural justice is the organisation, while the manager/supervisor is the source of interpersonal and informational justice. Thus, increased justice from the supervisor appears to be more likely to be rewarded with support. Support may be a reaction directed in the first instance towards the supervisor, who may also be the person most likely to notice the support. The organisation on the other hand is the source of procedural and distributive justice. For injustices in these dimensions, resistance appears to be more likely to result at T1. Resistance may be seen as directed against the overall organisation, stalling the organisation's projects. This explanation follows the agent-system idea, according to which interactional justice dimensions are more closely related to reactions directed towards the supervisor, and procedural justice is more closely related to reactions directed towards the organisation as a whole.

A second explanation could be that support and resistance may underlie fundamentally different psychological mechanisms at the early stages of organisational change, and follow different patterns that are independent of the source of justice in this operationalisation. According to this hypothesis, support may be more closely linked to respect, sensitivity and sufficient information, no matter where these elements come from, while resistance is more strongly based on unfair procedures and unfair outcomes (and again, the source of these does not matter).

Thirdly, contextual pressures and conditions may have contributed to the differences measured between predictors of support and resistance at T1. Individual's perceptions of obstacles to behaviours have not only direct effects on behaviours, but also affect behavioural intentions (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). Forming the intention to support or resist change is likely to take into account an assessment of the impact of resistance/support, an assessment of the effort required to resist/support, and an assessment of the risks involved (Hay & Haertel, 2000). It is likely that the manager and/or organisation will reward or encourage support, while there may be risks involved in resistance. These processes may interact with the justice mechanisms posited.

Concluding, at T1 there is some indication for different (psychological, social and environmental) mechanisms for behavioural intentions to support vs. behavioural intentions to resist change. The exact nature of these differences requires further in depth investigation. The differences found here may be simply due to chance, and may be sample-specific.

However, while these differences appear worthwhile to be investigated in future studies, the commonalities between predictors of support and resistance intentions at T1 deserve just as much attention. After all, both intentions to resist and intentions to support were related to the full set of organisational justice anticipations and to the expected positivity of outcomes. This study thus gives indications that in order to increase support and decrease resistance in the beginning of organisational change, all four dimensions of organisational justice anticipations need to be taken into account.

At T2, however, the relationships between the study participants' fairness perceptions and behavioural intentions to support and resist change appeared to be very similar. For both types of behavioural reactions, distributive fairness was the only dimension of fairness that was a statistically significant predictor. Thus, the increased focus on outcomes appears to hold both regarding intentions to support and to resist the change. Due to the design of this study, we cannot know when the other dimensions of fairness began to decrease in importance. This may be an interesting question for future investigations, and it may be crucial for change agents to create first "wins" or positive outcomes relatively early on in organisational changes in order to secure positive reactions towards the change – and to create "small wins" (Weick, 1984).

6.3.4 The role of the favourability or positivity of outcomes

The expected favourability of outcomes, while not part of the justice model, was the single strongest predictor of behavioural intentions to support change at T1, and the second strongest predictor (after procedural justice anticipations) of behavioural intentions to resist change at T1. Perceived outcome favourability was the single strongest predictor of behavioural intentions to support and resist change at T2. These results stress the important role of outcome favourability as determinant of individual reactions to change, but they also highlight the importance of controlling for this determinant. Failing to do so may lead to inflated estimates for other predictors.

Figure 6-9: Controling vs. not controlling for OP and AC

		T1 for the dependent variable support	T1 for the dependent variable resistance	T2 for the dependent variable support	T2 for the dependent variable resistance
Distributive justice entered after controlling for OP and AC	Added R square through DJ	2%	4.3%	5.6%	2.2%
	Overall R square of model	22.7%	29.1%	25.9%	26.5%
	Std beta of DJ	-.157	-.231	-.176	-.164
Distributive justice entered without controlling for OP and AC	Added R square through DJ	9.7%	15.6%	10.4%	11.4%
	Overall R square of model	11,5%	17.3%	17.4%	15.1%
	Std beta of DJ	-.312	-.396	-.323	-.338

DJ=distributive justice, OP= outcome positivity, AC=degree to which one feels affected by the outcomes

As detailed in the above table (Figure 6-9: Controling vs. not controlling for OP and AC), a significantly higher percentage of overall variance in the dependent variable (DV) is explained when accounting for the favourability of change outcomes and for the degree of being affected by the change. However, looking at the unique contribution of distributive justice perceptions or anticipations, a higher explanatory value results when not controlling for outcome positivity and the degree to which participants feel affected by the change. Thus, by being prudent and including the control variables, less support will be found for hypotheses regarding relationships between perceived or anticipated organisational justice regarding a change and reactions to the change. Much of past research has not controlled for the favourability of outcomes and for the impact of outcomes, and is thus likely to have over-inflated estimates of the predictive power of organisational justice. The actual fairness of outcomes should be distinguished from the valence of outcomes in future research in order to increase the clarity of findings.

6.3.5 Interaction effects

Only very few interaction terms were statistically significant in the hypotheses tests. The interaction between the positivity of outcomes and interpersonal justice anticipations at T1 seemed to be a significant predictor for intentions to support the change. At T2, the interaction between procedural justice perceptions and the degree of

being affected by the outcomes of the change was a significant predictor both for intentions to support and for intentions to resist the change.

Unfortunately, issues of measurement error make the investigation of interaction effects particularly difficult in multiple regression (see Chapter 5). Further, the effects appear to be relatively small, making it even more difficult to detect them. It would be premature to make any conclusions on the presence or absence of interaction effects on the basis of this study alone.

Future research with larger sample sizes may employ methods such as structural equations models, which are able to account for measurement error. This type of research is also able to investigate different elements of a model simultaneously and promises much clearer insights into the relative interaction effects between justice dimensions and outcome favourability, or among various justice dimensions.

Past research has reported interaction effects of distributive elements with procedural, interpersonal, and informational elements of organisational justice, without discriminating between favourability of distributions and fairness of distributions. While I have argued in Chapters 2 and 4 that interactions are more likely between the favourability of outcomes rather than the fairness of outcomes and other dimensions, there is a possibility that I did not find significant interaction effects because this assumption was wrong. I therefore conducted supplemental analyses in order to investigate whether any interaction effects between distributive justice and the other dimensions of organisational justice might be prevalent in this data set. I entered the regressions as in hypotheses 1 and 3 (control variables, age, gender, tenure, AC, OP), then added the individual dimensions for which an interaction was tested – firstly separately – and then the interaction term. The following table (Figure 6-10:Interaction effects between justice dimensions) gives an overview of the standard betas of the interaction term, and the significance level.

Figure 6-10:Interaction effects between justice dimensions

Interaction effects	T1, support	T1, Resistance	T2, support	T2, resistance
PJ * DJ	-.049, p≤ .533	-.006, p≤ .931	-.001, p≤ .987	Std beta 0.074 p≤ .358.
IPJ * DJ	.014, p≤ .848	-.021, p≤ .772	-.093, p≤ .322	Std beta -.155, p≤ 0.92
IFJ * DJ	-.048, p≤ .531	-.124, p≤ .087	Std beta -.105, p≤ .184	Std beta -.084, p≤ .285

DJ=distributive justice, PJ=procedural justice, IPJ=interpersonal justice, IFJ=informational justice,

The table above (Figure 6-10:Interaction effects between justice dimensions) shows that none of the interaction terms of Distributive Justice and other dimensions of justice are significant predictors of intentions to support or resist change at times 1 or 2 (at the 0.05 level). I could not find any support for the existence of interaction effects between distributive justice and the other dimensions of organisational justice in my data. Future investigations are necessary to investigate the nature of interaction effects among various dimensions of justice, and between dimensions of justice and outcome positivity and significance of outcomes.

6.3.6 The stability of fairness judgments over time

Hypothesis 2 had proposed a positive relationship between justice anticipations at T1, and justice perceptions at T2, for each of the dimensions of organisational justice. In the analyses conducted above (multiple hierarchical regression), no support was found for this hypothesis. One possible explanation is that the assumptions underlying Hypothesis 2, which expected the prevalence of assimilation effects, did simply not hold. Hypothesis 2 was developed based on anticipatory injustice theory and on the literatures of the halo and confirmatory bias effects, which hold that people only change their judgments significantly if they receive information to the contrary that they cannot ignore. The assumption underlying Hypothesis 2 was thus that participants in this study would not receive salient information or make very unexpected and salient experiences to the contrary of their initial justice judgment. In other words, there would be no or very few contrast effects.

The lack of support for hypothesis 2 may simply be due to the fact that more people than expected *did* actually revise their justice judgments very significantly, and thus more contrast effects took place than expected. However, the analyses do not propose that everyone underwent contrast effects: If all participants had experienced contrast effects, then a negative but significant relationship between anticipations of fairness and perceptions of fairness, expressed through negative beta coefficients for anticipations in the regressions predicting perceptions, should be present.

Figure 6-11 standard deviations for the four justice measures

Justice measure *	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	2 standard deviations
DJ	84	4	20	13.94	3.648	**7.296**
PJ	84	7	35	23.11	6.072	**12.144**
IPJ	84	12	20	18.33	2.008	**4.016**
IFJ	84	11	25	20.12	3.316	**6.632**
Valid N (listwise)	84					

**DJ=distributive justice, PJ=procedural justice, IPJ=interpersonal justice, IFJ=informational justice,*

Figure 6-12 supplementary analyses for Hypothesis 2 for cases without major change in justice perceptions

	2a: distributive justice	2b: procedural justice	2c: interpersonal justice	2d: informational justice
Number of unselected cases	19	12	16	25
Change in R square	.194	.03	.095	.238
Std beta	**.480**	**.188**	**.326**	**.502**
Significance level	**.000**	**.110 (2 sided)**	**.016 (2 sided)**	**.000**

Thus, for the cases that did not exhibit a major change in justice judgment between times 1 and 2, the anticipations of distributive, interpersonal and informational fairness were significant predictors for the respective justice dimensions at T2, at the 0.05 level. The anticipatory predictors explain as much as 32.6% (interpersonal justice), 48% (distributive justice), and 50.2% (informational justice) of the variance in their counterparts at T2 (see Figure 6-12 supplementary analyses for Hypothesis 2 for cases without major change in justice perceptions). This points towards a strong stability among the anticipatory judgments made by this group. Only procedural justice anticipations were marginally insignificant predictors of procedural justice judgments. While this analysis pre-selected the group of participants on the basis of small changes, the finding is still pointing out an interesting dynamic that exists *within* this group.

When testing the relationship for the cases excluded in the analysis above, i.e., cases with a greater difference than two standard deviations, the standardised beta coefficients of the anticipatory predictors are negative (i.e., there is a negative relationship between anticipation and perception). Due to the small power of the analyses (very small group selected with more than 2 standard deviations difference), no statistically significant

R square changes can be detected, but the negative betas indicate that strong changes from fairness anticipation to fairness perception may lead to particularly strong revisions of the justice judgment, i.e., a contrast effect.

The research setting may help to explain the simultaneous existence of assimilation and contrast effects: In general, past studies of fairness perceptions in change situations have dealt with interventions that were much more unified across participants. The particular changes in this study depended very much on the individual manager, and on the rapport with this manager. Also, circumstances of the manager-report dyads are likely to have varied in that different things could have happened in each manager-report dyad, and intervening variables and chance are likely to differ from setting to setting.

Unfortunately the design of this study does not afford any insights into the questions for how long the anticipations of individuals were relatively stable and at which point in time some individuals began to experience contrast effects. People's impressions might just have changed after their performance appraisal meeting towards the end of the year, or already at a much earlier stage. More than two measurements would be needed to better understand individual trajectories.

One of the reasons for the relatively low level of stability of justice judgments in this study may have been the relatively small impact of the changes. As outlined in Chapter Four, the strength of justice attitudes may be an important moderator to measure in future justice research over time (Krosnick et al., 1993).

Future research is needed to investigate under which circumstances contrast vs. assimilation effects hold, and what are the contingency factors and moderators of the stability of fairness perceptions. In particular, more controlled investigations (e.g., experiments or scenario studies) may be helpful in advancing knowledge in this area of mechanisms of contrast and assimilation effects of organisational fairness perceptions.

6.3.7 The level change and relative stability of behavioural intentions to support/resist change

In this study, the behavioural intentions between times 1 and T2 were relatively stable (Hypothesis 4 received strong support). As fairness perceptions did not exhibit the same degree of stability, other variables may have contributed to this stability. Personal propensities and volitional control may play a role here. Some personalities may be more likely to react in a certain way, and the social environment and power structure that enables or inhibits individual reactions may have been relatively stable over time. Alternatively, people may simply be reluctant to revise their behavioural intentions, once formed. It is

also possible that these behavioural intentions in part relied on well-developed schemata that were not consciously reviewed in the research setting. The nature of the stability of behavioural intentions needs further investigation before any conclusions can be drawn. If for example intentions to support or resist are very unlikely to be revised in general, then a large managerial effort may be required -- and justified -- to impact these intentions in the very early stages of planned organisational change.

The general trend for changes in behavioural intentions between Times 1 and 2 was from relatively more positive towards the change to relatively more negative (see Figure 6-13:**Descriptive Statistics**).

Figure 6-13: Descriptive Statistics

Behavioural intentions	Number of observations*	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
T1 support (reverse)**	84	6	30	15.98	5.974
T2 resist	84	12	55	25.32	9.171
T2 support (reverse)**	84	7	40	19.18	7.309
T2 resist	84	12	54	28.10	11.993

*cases that were "matched" via the unique anonymous identifier only

**support was reverse coded

People were in general more likely to resist and less likely to support the change after the passage of time. This finding is in contrast to the predictions from individual stage models of organisational change, which predict that individuals will go through an initial process of suffering from the loss, and will then eventually accept the new situation (e.g., Bridges, 1986). However, both of the change projects in this study were ultimately stalled and not fully implemented, as top management support faded. Individuals in these settings may thus never have reached the stage where they would reap the benefits of the changes, and have made only the initial negative experiences.

Also, the intentions to support or resist change exhibited larger standard deviations at T2, which may again be due to the fact that some individuals' reactions followed contrast effects, while the majority followed assimilation patterns.

6.4 Summary and implications of survey data analysis

In this section, I summarise the implications of what I see as the three most important contributions of this part of the research project. The data provides new evidence on the role of anticipations of justice, new evidence on the relative impact of the four

dimensions of fairness over time, and new evidence regarding the stability of fairness judgments over time.

6.4.1 New evidence for the role of anticipations of justice

To my knowledge, this is the first longitudinal empirical study to investigate the impact of anticipations of procedural, interpersonal and informational justice anticipations. It extends previous findings on the impact of distributive justice anticipations (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). All four dimensions of justice anticipations have been found to be significantly related to behavioural intentions to support and resist change. This result provides support for an important role of organisational justice anticipations in organisational change, particularly in the early stages of planned change.

For both theory and practice, the finding that organisational justice anticipations along all four dimensions matter even before the change has begun has important implications. Organisational justice theory may integrate anticipations into process models of justice, and future research is needed to gain knowledge on how these anticipations are formed. One antecedent already proposed in the literature are previous experiences (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999).

The integration of the anticipations of fairness into theories of organisational justice will contribute to make our conceptualisations of fairness more dynamic and more suited to investigate and describe changing environments and organisations. For change practitioners, it is important to be aware of the role of anticipations of fairness in order to be able to manage them. Change readiness may need to be created before any major change announcements, and this change readiness should take into account the management of the four dimensions of fairness in order to improve initial reactions to the change.

6.4.2 The relative impact of the four dimensions of fairness over time

For the data collected in the discovery stage of change (T1), all four dimensions of fairness anticipations were found to be significant predictors of the concurrent intentions to firstly support and secondly resist change, yet with different relative impact. For the data collected in the aftermath stage of change (T2), only distributive justice was found to be a significant concurrent predictor of behavioural intentions to support and resist change. After participants had experienced the change and change outcomes - in the aftermath stage of change - procedural, interpersonal and informational justice dimensions had no significant association with the reactions measured. In the light of content theories of

organisational justice, the strong outcome focus found in the aftermath stage of change appears to support the instrumental model of organisational justice (Tyler, 1987). The initial impact of other fairness dimensions seems to vanish once the outcomes are received. However, only a very specific type of outcomes has been investigated. Other types of outcomes (in particular attitudinal outcomes) should be included in future studies.

The various models linking types of outcomes to dimensions of organisational justice make predictions regarding the relative impact of dimensions of organisational justice on different types of outcomes. The T1 data may be seen as (very limited) support for the agent-system model, if one would see support as directed mainly towards the supervisor and resistance towards the organisation. However, both types of outcomes are linked to all four types of fairness anticipations. The data at T2 seems to support Leventhal's (1980) view, according to which distributive justice is generally more salient and likely to be more influential in determining overall fairness judgments (distributive dominance model).

The timing of measurement may be a hitherto neglected variable in explaining when which dimension of fairness has which relative impact. Maybe outcomes have more impact further down the line, and information for example has more relative impact in the beginning of change. Future research is needed to investigate this issue. Finding out about when which dimension of fairness impacts which types of reactions will be particularly useful for managers of organisational change who have to prioritise the use of their resources and time at different stages of the change.

Both T1 and T2 data give no support to interaction models according to which different dimensions of fairness are supposed to interact in their impact on outcomes. Some limited evidence is however found for interactions between outcome positivity and the degree to which one is affected by change and dimensions of organisational justice. As pointed out above, the power of the tests conducted in this research was potentially weakened by measurement error, relatively small effect size, and a limited sample size. Future research that is less hampered by these factors should help to further investigate the various possible interactions.

6.4.3 Implications of the findings regarding stability of fairness judgments over time, contrast and assimilation effects

Hypothesis 2 proposed that anticipations of fairness (T1) would be significant predictors of perceptions of fairness (T2), for each of the four dimensions of organisational justice. There was no support for hypothesis 2 when conducting a multiple regression on

all data. Supplemental analyses revealed that in fact there were two different groups in the sample population.

For the larger group, anticipations of distributive, interpersonal and informational fairness were strong and significant predictors of later perceptions of fairness, such that positive anticipations were linked to positive perceptions at a later stage. This group exhibits an assimilation effect.

A smaller group of individuals however showed opposite effects. Their anticipations were related negatively to later perceptions. This group was too small for statistically significant tests, but contrast effects appear to be at work here, such that for particularly positive (negative) expectations, the revision of information was stronger and lead to particularly negative (positive) judgements.

Unfortunately the design of this study does not afford any insights into individual trajectories. Future research with more than two measurements is necessary to gain insights into when and how people revise their judgments. In particular, an important field for future investigations are moderators of the stability of fairness judgements, in order to be able to predict this stability better. The strength of justice attitudes may be one such moderator (Krosnick et al., 1993). Future research is needed to investigate under which circumstances contrast vs. assimilation effects hold, and what the contingency factors and moderators of the stability of fairness perceptions are. In particular, more controlled investigations (e.g., experiments or scenario studies) may be helpful in advancing knowledge in this area of mechanisms of contrast and assimilation effects of organisational fairness perceptions. This proposed future research will contribute to making organisational justice a more dynamic field and enable more prescriptive inputs to practitioners of organisational change. For practitioners, the knowledge on how and when positive (negative) anticipations can be changed is a crucial factor in their management of organisational change.

A discussion of the combined study, including survey research, interview research, and supplemental data analyses, will follow in Chapter 9.

7 Interview Data Results, Analysis and Discussion

The qualitative data collected in this study poses the challenge that results and discussion are closely and maybe inextricably intertwined. Also, the qualitative data fulfilled the double-purpose of contextualising the results from the longitudinal survey study, and providing more generally insights into the drivers of individual reactions to organisational change. In this chapter, I will firstly give a brief overview of respondents' views of the two change projects that were the focus of the longitudinal survey research. Secondly, I will present the results and discussion of the content analysis of the accounts of change reactions that were collected throughout the interviews. The categories and distributions of the content analysis will be introduced before I expand on the findings of the content analyses, organised by themes and interpreted in the light of the research questions. I will also discuss various dynamics of potential relevance for the link between change experience and reactions to change, followed by an analysis of what differentiates various types of reactions. Finally, I will identify issues that go beyond the presently common framework of organisational justice.

7.1 Research context

The interview data helped to contextualise the survey data. The interview schedule followed the survey schedule relatively closely (see overview of research timelines in Figure 5-10 Timeline for research in INSURANCE and Figure 5-11 Timeline for research in BANK). The following discussion of participants' views will therefore use the same denotations as the description of the survey study, i.e. T0 for the time before the changes were announced, T1 for research conducted in the discovery stage of the projects, and T2 for research conducted in the aftermath stage of the projects.

7.1.1 INSURANCE's Performance Improvement change Project

I conducted interviews with change participants at INSURANCE at T0 (31), T1 (7) and T2 (5).

7.1.1.1 T0 views on performance management

From the interviews I conducted personally with employees in 2003 (before the change project of central interest to this study was introduced), I received amongst others issues feedback about performance management. In Figure 7-1*: Areas of concern regarding performance management* I have given some examples of this feedback, grouped into the main areas of concern mentioned in these interviews.

Figure 7-1*: Areas of concern regarding performance management*

Development and promotion opportunities	• *"But there are no training or development plans. It is infuriating. What the fuck am I doing here, I could bang my head against the desk. There is (The performance appraisal process) every year, and they think if they give you a four you are happy..."* • *"They can be fair giving out opportunities as a reward for hard work...but every year the same people get a four. There is never any push or motivation behind the smaller performers. They should develop and push people more."* • *"A lot of senior administrators have nowhere to go now, too many consultants and too many managers are there. People only wait so long until they get an opportunity or a new challenge. Management does not acknowledge this problem, they do not address it. At the moment there is no personal development, just a PR exercise called "your career path". At the moment you can move only sideways, not upwards."*
Transparency and comparability	• *The whole (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) is not objective. You get a low rating if your manager does not like you. And as mentioned before, there is a lack of transparency, you do not know why, and you do not know averages and standards.* • *I have no faith in the Performance Appraisal it is not a fair system, there is too much politics. The amount of 5s, 4s, and 3s you can give is fixed. So even if there is two brilliant people in your team you may only be able to give one of them a four.* • *I would rip the whole P.A. apart and start again, that would be best. Two different 3s could be completely incomparable. It is not fair and equitable. Maybe they should expand the rating scale,* • *If you work harder than someone else, but they are on the same pay level as you, that is not fair... and you only get bonuses if you achieve a 4 or a 5. Sometimes it is not very transparent why some people get a 3 and not a 4. Appeals are not likely to succeed. I have only heard of one person who appealed... and this person got the same as before. There is an appeal process, but I do not know how it works.*
Equity of rewards	• *The grading is from 1 to 5. A four is excellent, a five is impossible, and 3 can be either very good, or it can be good. For a four you get a 500 Euro bonus, and that is taxed, so it is ridiculously little more after tax, it is very little money extra. Then I think, I could leave every day at 4 pm like other people and get a three...For what am I staying long, and doing well... then I get a four, but I am not paid for it. It is a stupid process.*
Criteria of evaluation	• *The (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) is stupid. If you are a quiet person, you will get 3s forever. Only because I am outspoken I get 4s. They are picking on people who are quiet.*

7.1.1.2 T1 views on performance improvement

In the conversations I had with employees in the focus group after their initial training sessions (in June 2004), employees were sceptical about the impact of the changes, although most of them appeared to appreciate the increased frequency of conversations.

Figure 7-2: views on organisational changes in June 2004

Increased input and more meetings – less surprises	*"we are in the pilot process this year. We've got more input . And I think we're due to meet our managers to discuss our rating again on the (the performance appraisal process) on two more - occasions in this year than we would in any other year, and that is definitely an improvement. I think that was lacking. It used to be on a half yearly basis, but dependent on who your manager was it would not necessarily have been every half-year. But I think it is important to have an idea of what road you are going down so you don't get any nasty surprises."* *"I think it is a lot better to go three months, and letting people know more regularly."*
But no impact on outcomes expected…	*"I would like it to make a difference, but I am not sure whether it would. I am a bit sceptical. But in reality I am not sure the budget is there. A couple of years ago if you said I want to do this course or that course you might have gotten it quicker than you would now."*
Small change…	*"Just for the amount of work that they have put into it. It is a pilot etc…I don't think it changes a lot. I don't really see why they actually needed a pilot and would not simply roll it out in the company. Because they're quite small changes. They are good changes."*
Afraid of personal questions…	*(…)"Because to be honest, for the type of person I am, job is literally just a way of getting money. My outlook on it is, and I have always got a good mark. I want to work as hard as everyone else, and I would definitely be a good performer and all that…But that's just a small pride, my job would still not be my life. But I think that is very badly received. I am aware that a lot of that is talking, you don't have to do it, but I feel that you might be at a disadvantage, even though you are told not."*
Ratings still the main problem	*"Because the (the performance appraisal process) creates problems every year anyway."* *Q: What kind of problems?* *"The whole thing of they got a four and I only got a three, or allegedly a high but somebody who they might not think a good performer just scrapes the three, but there is no distinction, like a high three is the same as a low three, you don't get any financial reward for it. There is always that kind of they got, whatever rating, and I got this."*

Management might need more training for this kind of conversation...	*"I doubt if anyone could be totally honest with this. And if anyone would be totally honest, I doubt [the manager] would be qualified to deal with it."*
Doubts as to whether change will last...	*"The more meetings will be the big thing, so you get a bigger perspective on how you are doing and your manager as well. I think that's going to be the biggest change. I hope that's going to stay, like the first year will be good, and then the second year it's put back....."*

However, even the people that were not positive about the change mostly just went with it and prepared their development plan. As one team member remarked: "*There was just general moaning about it, but most people just got on with it and did it*".

7.1.1.3 T2 views on performance improvement

I talked again individually with a few pilot team members after a passage of time – in June 2005. Although HR and managers had explained to me that employees could choose freely whether they still wanted to fill in and discuss their individual development plan (IDP), employees appear to have had the perception that the new system of IDPs was simply stopped, and without any further communication there were no IDP meetings taking place.

"We didn't have any. Well, I haven't done an IDP this year. I haven't been asked. It hasn't been discussed. I asked once at the start of the year what the situation was and where it was with, I think, the union or HR, to roll it out completely to retail, but I think it just has fallen by the side, that's the impression I get anyway."

In line with the statements of the manager, the new system wasn't missed terribly. One employee explains:*"And then I had my objectives with (manager name) in mid February. But the IDP was never mentioned, it was only mentioned by me, because staff that are under me as a consultant were asking me what the situation was as well, and I wanted to know for my own."*

Q: "Was it something that staff wanted?"

"I think they were just wondering whether they actually had to do it or not, I don't think there was a big push in favour of it. I think some people kind of didn't really see the benefit behind it. Everybody is different, I suppose."

Some of the pilot group members developed their own reasons as to why the new system was stopped. One of them explained: *"I'd say it is just the negative feedback. And I just think I don't know it is not for everyone I'd say anyway. Like when I did mine, it was an awful meeting, because I felt I had to make up stuff, and (manager name), wasn't getting nothing out of it either, like the two of us sitting there looking at each other half of the time, like I don't know, I think it can be a good idea - I think if it is compulsory well, it wasn't compulsory, but you had to write a letter and say you wouldn't do it, that is why a lot of people it made them do it. And they wouldn't' want to feel that someone was going, why are you not doing this? Now you are probably getting different feedback from other people, I am just giving you my own."*

One employee didn't even really notice that the change had been reversed, for her the system had never changed and had always been the same anyway: *"They didn't really talk about it, in the interview, still the same system of being graded from 1 to 5, and it is and a few people might get a four."*

Overall, the views in June 2005 on the PA system change was that the new system did not really address the "real problems", even if some saw it as an improvement and others as a pain. However, some of the "new style of conversation", where they were asked for their own views and input and career orientation, seemed to have remained:

Figure 7-3: different views on the new PA system in June 2005

Asking an employee about the changed conversations, what is obviously on her mind is the grade..... and this problem is unchanged.	*With my manager, yea, no, at the time when I talked to (manager name) it was more in general and he wanted me to think about what it was I wanted to do- if I wanted to continue with my exams or in here or travel or - he just thought I performed throughout the year. I was a bit disappointed. I was happy enough I got the three, you know, that's what I deserve to get. But I was kind of asking how do you go about getting a four?* ... *When I have my (the performance appraisal process) meeting, and I walk away from it, I always have the same feeling. I don't feel good about it. It is always the same. I would like to see a change. I think you think yourself you will never get the four. Once I was a three and a half. You think, well, one, two , three, four. It is very I don't know, if I hear the word three, I go, o god. And then you are told that is good that is great, but you can't help but think it is the same as last year and you think if I haven't improved in a year....All the time.*

Change in conversation doesn't make a big difference	*Q: And the kind of conversation you had.... You said he was asking you where you want to go, what you want to do with your life? Is that better than before or worse than before or just neutral?* *It's neutral - he'll talk about the work obviously. He'll explain about where the team is going. It was a bit more personal, you know, what do you want to do yourself. I think that was a result of the new way of doing things. The questions he asked in your (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) would be different slightly. Because he said this is about you and what you want to do. So Like you - almost like a normal conversation.*
Career progression shortage still very much on people's mind...	*And so far it is just a bit disheartening every time you have your (THE PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL PROCESS) you are getting the same grade, even if he is saying, it is hard, every year they'd expect more of you, so getting a three again is good cause it means you are not slipping back, you are keeping up your standards for what you are meant to know. But somehow, yea, it is nice to say it, but you still want the next step up for me would be a consultant job. And we've been told (INSURANCE) isn't giving out consultant roles for the next foreseeable future, because they have enough consultants at the moment. So for me, to improve, I am senior administrator now, there is nothing much out. And if you're more ambitious. There is no incentives there.* *"I didn't' want what I was thinking would appear negative, the fact that I didn't have any ambition while I was here, because that wasn't the case... but I was asked what was my goal in 2-3 or in 2-5 years. And if I'm being honest, my goal certainly isn't to be here at that state. Or I couldn't see beyond like two to three. So I didn't want that to reflect like I didn't have ambition in here. It's just there is very few opportunities, especially at the consultant level, they are reducing the management, the level of managers. And the natural progression from consultant is manager."*
Voice - but no real impact on grade... (no outcome control)	*It is not negative. It allows you to give your opinions. You have input in what you are going to do. I am not saying that anything actually happens with the input... I don't thing too much happened, but it is still better than no input, just getting it off your chest.*
It depends on your relationship with your manager	*I was just kind of middle of the road. But personally it was a positive enough experience for me because I think a lot of it was linked to the relationship you had with your manager and how open and honest you would feel you could be with them. But I suppose it does help to reinforce where you were what your goals would be. Although most of my goals were kind of outside of work.*

Overall, in the retrospective interviews the change was not seen as addressing the real issues (of rewards and progression opportunities). It appeared to depend on the individual's career orientation and on their relationship with their manager whether the development conversations were perceived as positive and as an actual improvement.

Staff did not blame managers for the normal curve distribution of grades or for restrictions in bonuses or for limited career progression opportunities – all these issues were attributed to company policy, company budgets, and organisation level decision making. A main reason for upset seemed to be the differential treatment of different areas within the organisation, which one employee summarized as follows:

"I think sometimes definitely think that they are not getting things because of budgets. Retail and Corporate Business, that they might be getting nights out and stuff like that... They got their offices painted and little small things like that, although we are all the same company. They all got new flat screen PCs and we didn't. And we're on the same floor."

Q: Is this something that people would talk about in general, or is it just on your floor because you sit next to them?

"I think other people in the company would feel a bit like that... like one year they got Easter Eggs, and we didn't... I don't know, it is kind of small things, but all the small things build up and then...you feel: But if I am working as hard as them and they get a different treatment to me, that isn't fair. "

Q: And you think that is the same also for (the performance appraisal process) or bonuses?

"Our Corporate business got a bonus this year. They get shares or so. They get more dividends from their shares or something. They get a lot more money back from their shares. I don't know what system it is that they have for ratings and things. I am just saying that people are discontent if they think that Corporate get different treatment than we do."

This discontent appeared to be widely shared (the story about the differential dispatch of Easter eggs alone was recounted in my interviews by four different people).

Some people also created social accounts for the fact that their organisation did not really create a system to address their problems – a phenomenon that could be described as "leap of trust" (Searle & Ball, 2004):

You can't really fight your corner- it's not going to change, because the limits are there. But of course if you give managers too much scope for discretion it would cost a fortune, the share prices would go down. At the end of the day, it ain't gonna change that much.

Summarising, a few people in the pilot group perceived an improvement in communications with their manager, but in the interviews there was not much indication for increased satisfaction with the system overall, or of a change in psychological contracts (which had been intended by HR). The system did not seem to have remedied the main concerns of employees, such as career progression opportunities, equitable grading scale and compensation.

7.1.2 BANK's Coaching Introduction change project

I conducted interviews with change participants at BANK at T1 (11) and T2 (6). My initial interviews with individual employees of BANK in summer 2004 (T1) reflected the ethos of the company:

*"I believe now I would have a very positive opinion of them (*BANK*) as an employer. I think one of the things that stands out for me is that they're very ethical. And that makes it very easy to work for them. There is an understanding that usually one has to do the right things, and that is great. I think they treat people reasonably well. I certainly don't find it cut throat in any way. I am sure there is an awful lot of politics that goes on, but that's you know, that's going to happen anywhere, but it's I wouldn't tend to be worrying about having to watch my back Or I wouldn't be very questioning of people's moral. Normally people I do meet are fairly reasonable."*

Or:

"But I also fell for the BANK as a company. Because I met with our HR manager, and he spoke about (business model of BANK), and about the culture in BANK, and really, I felt for it. It's a lovely idea. And that after working for years for shareholders in various places, it was nice to think that in BANK the focus is on the customer. It's very theoretical, but it's nice to have that. I certainly fell for the BANK the (business model of BANK) of BANK. So it was as much the company as the job I went for."

Although some employees felt cynical about the ethical branding:

I think it they sell "trusted financial institution", if they want to put that in place, they have to start with their staff, which I think they don't do most of the time.

When I came into the organisation in the beginning of 2004, people were in the midst of the overall change programme (summer 2004). Most research participants seemed to agree that there were many changes, and that change went fast.

Figure 7-4*: different views on overall change programme in summer 2004*

Changes fast	*"It is working because they drive these changes and they are driving them hard and they are driving them fast. But that's why it's working. "*
Changes good	*I don't think you could tell above to slow down. There is no way, because we are going so fast. And at the moment we are doing very, very well. You know, we are everywhere at the moment. In the papers, TV, everywhere, and we are doing so well for the* (customers of BANK). *So I don't think we can slow down.*
Changing for change's sake?	*I think we're slightly at times changing for change's sake. I think we'd need to sit down and say "all right, where are we at right now?" You know, there is a whole change department. And sometimes you know, you have to justify your existence. You know, to some degree.*
Change dangerous	*I think we will fall down with a frenzy of activity from this change strategy, so with a frenzy of activity I think there's an awful lot going on which is necessary, we need to put tight timeframes in place. But somehow somewhere along the line a lot of people have forgotten the plot and are a little confused as to where they are. Huge amount of change going on. And some people will be left behind, some won't be. Some will actually relish in it. I think that could be a dangerous thing. That's really it I think.*

7.1.2.1 T1 views on coaching

The initial two day programme to introduce managers to coaching took place in 2004. Reactions were mixed.

In the following extract, a manager describes why he thinks that his manager got nothing out of the course: *"I think he just if he doesn't hit it off with the person giving the course initially, he just doesn't belief in the course. And that happened. He thought your man was off the wall, he thought he was an ex Christian brother, and he didn't even know him. But he forms all these opinions of him, so he wasn't even listening. He got nothing out of it. And I wanted him to get something out of it. I wanted him to be able to mentor me."*

This manager describes how certain types of his colleagues benefited, the "people people": *"So, it didn't change people dramatically, but the people who were ready for it, yes, it was just what they needed. And they got it. They actually came out and said I got it, I now need to talk to them every day, check in with them, coach them, look out for those*

opportunities where they're looking for help right now. I'll step in right now, because this will be useful, you know, really coach them. So some of them got that, and that was powerful. And a couple of others, would be not people people, if you know what I mean, and they find it harder. They are more matter of fact, more working off check lists, instead of listening to people. So that is different styles as well. "

As for the role-out of the coaching programme to employees, many participants did not seem to have clear expectations – they just knew they had to attend a half-day course, without having much of an idea what about. There were both negative and positive surprises:

"What I would have liked in the course? I think not just myself, but others had the expectation that it was going through competencies, the strategic competencies, that were agreed some time ago.(...) I think the objective of the course or what we were supposed to get out of it was never clearly defined. People came to the course with numerous different expectations and I don't know if many were actually satisfied at the end. I am vague about it because I've come to forget about it to be quite honest. I do vaguely just remember kind of sitting there. And I think a lot of us started to role-play and we swapped turns and someone was doing a review with you and you were being reviewed then. And in an artificial environment like that, people just had a little chat with each other."

And positive surprises:

"I didn't understand that it was such a good course before I went. It wasn't explained to me correctly how good it was. So I feel that people went because they thought they had to. But if they had known the background behind it before, they would have wanted to have gone and not go before they had to. So I feel there wasn't enough emphasis put on the course of how important it was. "

When talking to employees a few weeks after they had attended the courses (in October 2004), I heard both positive and negative views on the introduction of coaching:

Figure 7-5*: different views on the introduction of coaching in October 2004*

Course strikes a chord with some people:	*"Initially when I went to that course, I thought an awful lot out of it, because I was thinking you are talking about be, because that was the way I felt at that time. "*
Positive impact in performance appraisals?	*Most managers, when you ask them what's the part they hate most in their jobs, they will say this is it (performance appraisals). I have known from various managers they hate it. They just see it as you are having to sit down, and think about it."*

Some people saw positive changes in their managers	*(talking about managers)* *Like I have noticed this: They've changed in the coaching courses. Fantastic change. Very, very good change. And very positive. Because now your hand has been let go and you can go wherever you want. Because even though you've tried to push the hand away so many times, like leave me alone, I can do it myself, they wouldn't let go. So now they're letting go, which is fantastic.* *But with the coaching course then I did notice a huge difference because I think it trained her how to manage me better. And how to let go of that feeling that I can do the job better than her. And just get on with it. Her role is to manage, my role is to do the job. And so I think she let go of the fact that let me do the job and she can manage me, and that's very good.*
And felt they learned something in the course…	*I brought to attention some of the issues that were discussed.* *Q: So it encouraged you to discuss these?* *It coached me, yes. For instance, an underlying problem, which there was, I discussed it there, and the coaching course said, don't hold it in, discuss it with your manager. Which I did.* *Q: And that seemed to work?* *Ahm. Definitely.* *Also with the coaching I learned that I wasn't afraid to go and talk to her about any issues that would bother me. That's the relationship you should have with your manager. Because before, I would have bit my tongue, I would have said fine, and whatever. So I felt that I was like can we have a meeting, and she was oh yes, and we talked and discussed and we literally agreed to disagree which is fine because we both had our own opinion. But that was good because we were being a bit more positive with each other. So I definitely find it beneficial*
Some people sat in course and thought this is not going to work:	*"I was in the room with a whole group. And at the end of it, in the training course, he said "I know I haven't convinced you." He actually had to say this. I know you're not on board. But that should have fed somewhere. "* *Q: It's quite honest and fair of them to say…* *"Totally. O god, the guy who was giving it was so right, I think he needed a closure because half the room were and half the room weren't and half the room needed to know is he missing that these few aren't on board? So that was closure. But you know, their manager should be tipped off, these guys aren't on board, you need to work really hard here to get them on board.* *And have them find out why aren't they. And they were very logical guys, you know, they weren't just saying it to be fussy, they just thought it wasn't going to work."*

Some felt that coaching course did not have any impact	*Q: Did you feel that any of these changes already started or not yet?* *From the point of view of the coaching. To be honest with you, I see absolutely no change at the moment, where I am lying. I took absolutely nothing out of that course, I thought it was a waste of time. Probably it was one of the worst courses I attended for quite a while. I thought it was pretty awful. So, but is it happening? No, not really.*
..nor would it have any I impact	*Q: expect the coaching to happen for you in the near future?* *Well, no, I don't think so. Again, my own role I obviously would like to develop my career and have a number of key resources to drive forward the e business agenda and so on... and I will need resources and structuring. Absolutely I would like to be in a situation where I would need those skills and develop them. But right now, that doesn't seem to be in the near future. And as for being coached by my manager, I don't see that happening, really. I mean, managers or my line manager will always be there, they are very approachable that way to talk about things. And you know, my manager will always point out that he is always there. And he is. But really what you get out of it... personally I think I don't get out of it when I do have conversations like that.*
...it even caused cynicism in some....	*Again, it was one of those things, it really impresses you, the philosophy. I was really impressed with the method of speaking to your manager and this feedback process. But I'm going to really be sarcastic, but it doesn't happen very often, I think. It's a great theory, but it doesn't happen in practice. I remember listening to him, and I could see that wouldn't work, like people wouldn't observe that. And I spoke to people in the group who were saying that's fine, but my manager is never round, and he's around he's busy. So from that point of view, it's a lovely philosophy. It's one of those things that after a while, I sounds awful, but they make you more angry than anything else, because they speak so well about them and it all sounds so positive and you might go back with a spring in your step and when you get to there, it doesn't work and nothing actually happens.* *"if they actually said "look, we're busy employers, we don't have any time for the employees, do your best, you might get the odd review, off you go." I think we'd be a lot happier. They keep telling that we're going to give you loads of time to discuss this, up and backward feedback, and you're going to help us improve, and then the lip service is paid to that's something to none. So that's my impression of coaching. (...). I mean, I can't speak for everyone in the organisation, people I've spoken to say that it doesn't really go on. It if it is done, it was happening before with the managers, so it depends on the managers, there is no way the managers are measured on "do you coach properly" I think."*

7.1.2.2 T2 views on coaching

Reflecting on the implementation of coaching in summer 2005, only very few people felt that there was a long term impact on the organisation – with some exceptions, as exemplified by the following interview extract:

Q: So you think it is more useful for other people?

"Yes, like I don't know if you know, the phones team, they are a lot younger, and they feel like they can't do anything without asking somebody. But now I think that's changed a good bit, and I think that coaching has helped for that."

Q: Do you think that from talking to them?

"Yes, from talking to them and like when I would start here I couldn't believe how things went on, and now they are starting to change. And they have like they have one- to-one five minutes with their manager, and it's like a coaching session, and that really helps. No more people are going mad, they are just like calm, and everyone knows what is going on."

Both employees and managers identify a number of problems and reasons that in their opinion had stalled the introduction and utilization of coaching, even for the ones who did attend the introductory trainings in 2004:

Figure 7-6*: issues with coaching project*

People at the top are not behind it?	*"For me, they didn't crack the real nut. And that is back to the trust thing as well. And that's it always filters down from the top. If the top guys aren't trusting each other, and (manager name) is one of them. Well, then when (manager name) is talking to us, he is carrying that around in his head, that he is fighting his battle with his peers, and then he is talking to us not saying that he doesn't trust us but it just changes everything for him. (...). My point is that at the top here it is not like that in my opinion. And that it is not getting down to managers then. It is a complete block. Because there is all sorts of personal agendas going on. And it is probably the same in every big company. So I did think (CEO of Bank) would change that, when he came in first. I now don't think he has."* *"In terms of (BANK's business model), I think it failed. The reason I think it failed has nothing to do with the course itself, or people who delivered the course. I think it's down again to what I said about integrity of behaviour at a senior management level. Some senior managers are better than others. But the vast majority of them have not time. Therefore don't do it. Therefore a lot of people who work for them model their behaviour and then pass it on. So I think it's been a failure from that perspective. And a lot of people would say they've never been coached. "*

Whether it works depends on your manager	*"It still does exist within BANK. That particular course. You can see it more in some areas than in others though. Some people are quite old-fashioned, and like to stick to their ways of management. I think the younger managers were more open to that coaching. The old managers think that you are you to tell me how to manage, I have been managing for so long, and I can do it fine. So I think that they've come back to their old ways, the old managers. And you could see that now with certain areas and stuff."* *"I think it depends on the department that you're in. Some places, like I would feel my manager does this. But I wouldn't say in every department in BANK it's the same. And because it really depends on your manager."* *"I think it is the personality of the managers, and I don't mean only the very high managers or the execs, at various levels. And because managers are only driven by performance, I just can't see how once you have the human nature to do this some managers are very good you know, some people are very good at talking to you and communicating and others aren't and I don't' think that coaching can change human nature."*
Reward system not aligned	*"I think if the senior management team had prioritised people development, and you know, when you develop the strategy, a huge important aspect of developing the strategy is looking at who delivers, and I think that was a huge blind spot. And I think even though there was coaching done for the senior management team, I don't think it helped them because they went along and there heart wasn't in it, at least for most of them. I think the HR people would say the same thing. So it's a combination of pressures on them to deliver other things, again, the business as usual will compete with strategy, and we weren't saying strategy is more important than business a little bit, not to put the business aside completely, but a is more important than b, therefore your behaviour needs to reflect a more than b."* *I think that managers who are told this is how you're treating an employee, whatever, but they're being rewarded for business performance. They're going for business performance first, quite rightly, before listening to their employees, getting feedback, helping and encouraging, coaching them, you know, pat on the back, you can do it very well...; They are going to give more time to the day job than that. And most managers the managers who would have time for that kind of thing beforehand, before coaching came in, would also have time afterwards. So I don't see how you can.. unless you actually measured it and said well, how long did you spend with your employees this month? Did you have half an hour review with every one of them? With your staff and your team? If not, that's a block mark. That doesn't happen. Therefore who's going to do it?*

Follow-ups would be needed	*Like, you can put a manager on a course, but if someone isn't following up with them then I don't think it's gonna work, and I don't think (new online performance appraisal system of BANK) is going to work, because no one follows up with the managers. Like it will work for some people because their managers will use it, but no one is checking to see if their managers use it. So unless someone's checking I don't think it will work.* *Q: Do you feel this is going to have a large impact on the organisation overall, or just in a few cases, like yours?* *I would think that if it's I would think that you would need a feedback, a follow-up. With everybody who did the course. Otherwise it is going to fade in the background* *"A lot of our managers are very good at their job, but probably aren't great at managing people. So you'd wonder, should somebody be with the manager doing it? You know what I mean, or should they have more training on handling people?"* *Q: Do you think there is going to be any kind of holding hands of people while...* *"No, I don't think so. I think it is going to be "right, guys, get the meetings done." And I think it is going to be the people who ....even on the training course, you could already see the managers who are going to avoid it, and the ones who weren't. "*

As in INSURANCE, some people created social accounts for their company not doing all the changes that would be in their personal interest:

But if BANK was looking for people who had good interpersonal skills, who are good educators, those softer skills I guess. If they were looking for people like that that would be very different and that would improve communication and personal relations between managers and employees. But they award performance, and they obviously promote on performance. But would I do it any differently, I am not sure I would. Because you want to have an organisation that performs very well, that encourages hard work, or you want to have an organisation that has very very strong two way feedback and that's very good. I think to get both in one manager is difficult, because they're just different skills.

It is worth to note the concerns that participants voiced in summer 2005, with regards to the overall change programme. Respondents were mostly worried about the people changes, described an overall low morale, and felt badly informed (see Figure 7-7: impressions from interviews in summer 2005).

Figure 7-7: impressions from interviews in summer 2005

Long term employees feel left out	*There is definitely a sense in the oldies, people who are here a long time, there is definitely a sense that we can't bring true value to the organisation anymore. It is the new people that* (CEO of Bank) *is looking to. There is definitely a sense of that. I don't know whether they'd say that to you, but that is what I believe, and a lot of others believe it as well. Many others.*
New executive directors	*Like there is only two left at the top six, if you like,(manager name) and (manager name). (manager name), who was number two spot went a month ago, he is only 52 or something. He didn't go of his own choice I'd say.*
Old managers leaving	*It is just the way it just seems to be that big part of the change has now become replacing people. Whereas in changing the way we do business, or changing our processes, or products, or the market, it is now a lot of changes people connect with people now, and that we're moving on means more new people. More old people gone.* *And I think the problem is that all of a sudden there are so many changes happening, these people who have a lot of experience are then pushed aside for new people to come in, the likes of* (employees from BANK's competitor)*, you know, and they're going, hey, why aren't you working with me? I've been here for a long time, I've committed myself to BANK, and I think because that's happened and there has been so many changes, and people haven't been rewarded correctly. That's why the long-term people are starting to go, I am leaving.*
Changed strategy?	*I am not naïve as well. The chairman of any organisation, the chief exec, you don't know what their real agenda is, anyway. Like some of the general managers may not know what the real agenda is.*

Morale low	*"there hasn't been fun happening in the organisation at all since January. And people are kind of lacking that bit of a buzz, bit of a drive, and why I'd be working here, what are you giving me, I'm not even getting a wage increase... things like that, why should I work here. So there is that kind of thing missing. Although all the change is happening, maybe management are forgetting their staff are working to their bone, and they have been working for the past five years, but yet they haven't been rewarded. That's only my opinion."* *"The whole organisation just went into a lull. Everybody was unhappy and talking really negatively about it. It seems as if everybody hates working here. And I think that people have worked so hard for five years because we had the five-year strategic plan, everybody was working to their maximum capacity, and they were staying really late getting the job done, doing so much for BANK. Not getting the money first, because they wanted to. So they were doing so much. So five years are finished now, since December. People are going, well, look at what we did. Hey, we got you here, do we get a little reward, or do you want us to do it again? You know, this kind of thing. I feel we are at that stage now. And an awful lot of big people have left BANK in the past three months. They were key people and they've left BANK. And they were people who were here a long time, and they were here just under 7 years, or over, or maybe 5 years."* *...and there has been no "well, how did we get on with the old one", and "by the way, guys, very well done". You know, you have been doing all this work. So I think there is a huge, huge challenge, I think morale has dropped quite a lot in the last six to eight months or so.*
Ethos lost?	*And I think a lot of people now are beginning to see that maybe it was just a marketing ploy.. and that using it as central to your vision is not that you believe in (BANK's business model), but that you belief it's a good differentiator from a marketing perspective. So really, you're not bought into it at all at a very senior level. And I think there is maybe a bit of resentment on the ground that staff brought into that that staff thought do these guys really belief that at all, because the actions aren't aligned to the view that this is a special organisation. So I think that has been badly tarnished.*

Thus, overall, for a few individuals the coaching project brought about improved conversations with their managers, but in most cases there appeared to be no perceived long-term changes. Also, over the course of the project I observed a general disenchantment of staff with their organisation, as the overall change project came to a still-stand, and the original company ethos appeared to erode.

7.2 Overview of content analysis results

Figure 7-8 shows the distribution of story type across collection times. T0 was before the announcement of performance improvement project at INSURANCE, therefore there was no mention of this particular project at that time.

Figure 7-8 number of stories related to change reactions

Time	Coaching	Other	Performance improvement	Grand Total
T0		40		**40**
T1	6	17	9	**32**
T2	3	39	5	**47**
Grand Total	**9**	**96**	**14**	**119**

7.2.1 Types of reactions to change described

Figure 4-1 gives a brief overview of how many of each type of reactions I recorded for each time period and company:

Figure 7-9 Types of stories told over time

Time	company	ambiv	neg emot cog	pos emot cog	Resist	support/ accept	Grand Total
T0	INSURANCE	4	27	6	2	1	**40**
T0 Total		4	27	6	2	1	**40**
T1	BANK	3	8	4	4	3	**22**
	INSURANCE	2	2	2	2	2	**10**
T1 Total		5	10	6	6	5	**32**
T2	BANK		10	11	7	6	**34**
	INSURANCE	2	4	1	3	3	**13**
T2 Total		2	14	12	10	9	**47**
Grand Total		**11**	**51**	**24**	**18**	**15**	**119**

7.2.2 Stories about self vs. others

Figure 7-10 shows the amount of vicarious reactions vs. reactions of self vs. reactions of self and other per type of reaction.

Figure 7-10 Type of reaction for self and others

who displays the reaction	ambivalence	negative emotions and cognitions	positive emotions and cognitions	resistance	support/ acceptance	Grand Total
other		10	7	14	6	**37**
Self	11	24	15	2	7	**59**
self and others		17	2	2	2	**23**
Grand Total	**11**	**51**	**24**	**18**	**15**	**119**

7.2.3 Emerging categories of reasons

Through the process described in chapter 5, I grouped the various issues recounted about the changes into the following categories: organisational issues, informational issues, interpersonal issues, procedural issues, and outcome issues. In each of these categories I also distinguished between positive and negative comments, and comments that concerned either the change in question or past experiences. I also added the category 'powerlessness'. Figure 7-11 presents the categories of issues according to their occurrence in the accounts about different types of reactions

Figure 7-11: ***Frequency of type of issue for different reactions***

neg/pos	Ambiv	neg emot cog	Pos emot cog	resist	support/ accept	Grand Total
org issues	13	32	7	10	8	**70**
outcome issues	19	57	26	19	18	**139**
interpers issues	7	15	8	14	9	**53**
info issues	4	24	10	8	5	**51**
proc issues	7	10	10	6	10	**43**
Power	1				6	**7**

Outcome issues were the single most frequent category (139 occurrences), named nearly twice as often as the second category, organisational issues (70).

Out of the 363 issues in total, 41 referred to past events not directly linked to the change centrally related to the reaction described.

7.2.4 Preponderance of negative issues and reactions

Both the majority of reactions to change, and the majority of issues related to the changes were negative. Out of the 119 reactions, 51 described negative emotions and/or cognitions, and 18 described resistance. Out of the 363 issues, 248 were describing negative issues, 107 positive issues, and 7 powerlessness.

Figure 7-12: Frequencies of reactions

	ambivalence	negative emotions and cognitions	Positive emotions and cognitions	resistance	support/ acceptance	Grand Total
Number of occurrences	11	51	24	18	15	119

The data is skewed towards negative reactions, and – as would be expected with negative reactions - towards negative issues that are recounted about the changes towards which the reactions are directed. The change literature describes how even changes that are intended to benefit employees often create a sense of confusion and loss and result in negative reactions (Bridges, 1991; Kanter et al., 1992). To a certain extent, the fact that the research on reactions to change has focused on resistance as opposed to support may simply reflect the phenomenon that negative reactions are much more likely or prevalent. Of course, no generalisations can be made from the distribution of this limited group of interview respondents.

7.3 Linkages between change experience and reactions

The following sections describe three mechanisms that I observed in the interview data. The three types of dynamics revolve around the role of (1) vicarious experiences, (2) past experiences, and (3) expectations in the process of experiencing and reacting to change.

7.3.1 Role of vicarious accounts

Figure 7-13 shows the frequencies for types of reactions that the research participants described as either their own reactions ("self"), or others' reactions ("other"), or as reactions that they shared with others ("self and other").

Figure 7-13: Stories about self and others

Who has reaction	Ambivalence	Negative emotions and cognitions	Positive emotions and cognitions	resistance	support/ acceptance	Grand Total
Other		10	7	14	6	37
Self	11	24	15	2	7	59
self and others		17	2	2	2	23
Grand Total	11	51	24	18	15	119

The table indicates that positive reactions (cognitions/emotions and support) were more often told about "self" as actor (22 out of 39), while resistance was much more often described as a reaction of others (14 out of 18). This tendency may be a sign of social desirability bias, but can also reflect an internalisation of company ideology or socialisation, which typically pictures change as good and resistance as bad. The promotion of self through the stories about others has been particularly evident in a couple of instances where stark contrasts between "self-pro-change" and "others-against change" were painted within the same interwoven story. An example below is the statement of an employee who underlines the good role of people undertaking changes in the department (including herself) by contrasting it against the people against the change:

"They were doing a shit job. They didn't want to be there. And they didn't want change. They didn't care. And then there was like reports - nobody was answering these reports. And my manager went back and put up a big board in the middle of the room, that showed everybody named and shamed. And she said, well, we can't paint the walls, so this is what we're doing. And it was such a huge change. And nobody then laughed or said that's crap, take that down. Whereas before they would have and it would have been taken down. But that helped.....(...) They knew now that this couldn't continue, that this couldn't go on. And they didn't like having to answer to people like us, or to anybody, even their managers. You know what I mean. Who are you to ask me. I am actually this person, ok. But then there was everybody working together rather than just for themselves. I think they were afraid for being caught out for the little work they were doing, and they were happy enough to plot along and get paid for it."

In other cases, the stories about others were rather used to underline a point made or to give evidence for a statement made. An example is given of an employee who

underlines her point that her employer is not treating staff well and is not paying well with the help of a story about other teams:

"I think it they sell "trusted financial institution", if they want to put that in place, they have to start with their staff, which I think they don't do most of the time. (...) It is absolutely ridiculous what you can start in this company for, it is just painful. How they expect anybody to live on that wage is beyond me. (...)But they had agreed to increase a certain percentage of the operations team, their wages to a straight level. So that was kind of in the pipeline. But it wasn't for the rest of the operations team. So there was an awful lot of people that felt a bit put out and weren't very happy at all, and the thing was they weren't advised previously. It was just kind of sent out: This is what it is going to be now. And so the rest of the four like phones team was only one aspect of customer services! And then you've got cheque issue, you've got insurance and life, and the internet support team, they were all very unhappy and said what was going on and why nobody had told them that they were getting something. Nobody still has told them whether or not they are to be getting anything, but as far as I know it was left at one department being happy because and it didn't even matter if you were here three weeks, you'd get the same wage as somebody who's been here three years! Which was to me it's wrong. It's like going yeah, you're trying to make them valued, but it's an extreme. It's not making a person that was here longer feel more valued. So the change took a while to come into play and it didn't go according to plan."

One of the ways in which impressions are formed or promoted may be through stories about others, or stories that others tell us. Searle and Ball (2004) describe how mistrust is promoted through stories about others in organisations. The same promotion effects may be true for general attitudes and also reactions towards organisational change.

Stories describing ambivalence, on the other hand, were only described for "self" as actor. This might be due to a number of reasons. Others may in general be seen as less differentiated. Also, the stories about others might rather have been told with an agenda than stories about own experience – to clearly illustrate negative or positive points. In general, ambivalent attitudes may be less shared ones. If many others are of an opinion too, it may be easier to be clearly positive or negative (Colquitt et al., 2002; Lamertz, 2002)

7.3.2 Role of past experiences

A second mechanism of interest appeared to be past experiences. In the course of their description of a present change, participants often mentioned past experiences that were not directly related to the change in question (see Figure 7-14 for a distribution). This

was the case for 41 out of the 363 issues identified (11.3%) – thus it is not a negligible amount and the link to past changes seems to be quite present in people's mind. Temporal comparison theory may help to explain this phenomenon. Albert (1977) described how people rely on comparisons to the past to make judgments about the present. Also, Isabella (1990) describes how old vs. new comparisons are an important aspect of sense making in organisational change.

Figure 7-14: Issues regarding the focal change vs. past changes, for different reactions

	Ambivalence	Negative emotions and cognitions	Positive emotions and cognitions	resistance	support/ acceptance	Grand Total
present change issues	46	121	52	51	52	322
past experiences issues	5	17	9	6	4	41
Total						**363**

I found two main rationales behind bringing the "past issues" into the description of present changes. The past was used to illustrate either that things are now much better or much worse than in the past (a contrast effect), or to illustrate that a judgment is right because it has always been like this (an assimilation effect). Both will be illustrated in the following.

a) Examples of contrast effects

I found examples of both negative and positive contrast effects, as the following interview extracts illustrate:

A negative contrast effect: This employee illustrates why people who have known the better times before are more disappointed about present changes:

"And it's those people who are here five, six years, that's what happens, because new people coming in wouldn't know what the organisation was like before, therefore they can't compare, whereas the old people can compare. And I think they love now because it is much busier and we are going somewhere as BANK, but they don't like it because they are not being noticed or the work they're doing. And they feel as if anyone could come in and do their job, and they are a little more vulnerable now. And they're not being guaranteed anything here in BANK either, whereas before they were guaranteed a life of work. Now they don't know what's going to happen, whether their job will be gone, so it's that kind of vulnerability."

A positive contrast effect: This employee, explaining why he supports the present change of the performance appraisal system, begins by counting the bads of the old system:

"The old (Performace management system at INSURANCE), I think it needed to be changed, to be updated, it was never on time, you would have your start of year in January, but it could be until August or September until you have your meeting just because the manager would be busy or on holidays or anything. But I think it was hard to be graded for six months to start, I think it is a lot better to go three months, and letting people know more regularly."

b) Examples for assimilation effects:

I also found examples both for negative and positive assimilation effects.

Negative assimilation:

"I do not have much confidence in the IT end, I have seen to many things go wrong."

"When we heard "(overall change project at INSURANCE)", we all thought "(PREVIOUS change project at INSURANCE) again". In (PREVIOUS change project at INSURANCE) they did not get enough input from the business. A group of people were isolated to create something the business was then supposed to use."

And positive assimilation:

"Because I moved from IT, they had gone through a good change. And it worked really, really well, and if you've seen before now, it is unbelievable, and how it all happened. And then, when I came to the new floor, it was like going back to the before part of IT. So I said I know how to change that, they did it down in IT"

The following table (Figure 7-15) provides counts of the various types of assimilation and contrast effects found in the interview data:

Figure 7-15: *Assimilation and Contrast effects*

	Positive experiences in the past	Negative experiences in the past
As argument that the present change is positive	**"positive assimilation"** "it worked in the past so I expect it to work now"(1, referring to overall change project)	**"positive contrast"** "this organisational issue (3), outcome (2), process (7) , interpersonal treatment (3) , information (1) has been worse before, better now" (16 overall)
As argument that the present change is negative	**"negative contrast"** "better before - worse now" (2, both referring to organisational issues)	**"negative assimilation"** "this process (2), employer (5), type of projects (11), manager (2), change in general (2) has been negative in the past, so people don't expect nothing good from it (overall 22)

Extant literature in organisational justice has focused on negative assimilation effects (e.g., anticipatory injustice effects, Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999) and on negative contrast effects (Brockner et al., 1994). The above table provides examples for four types of effects including positive assimilation and positive contrast effects, which have not been described in the literature of organisational justice.

The foci of negative assimilation were often overall entities (the organisation, the manager), while the foci of positive contrasts were more often particular issues, traits or events. In fact, assimilation effects may be much more likely for overall entities. Cropanzano and colleagues (Cropanzano et al., 2001) have pointed out that justice judgments can be made regarding events or entities and that in general, people distinguish between long-term behaviour and one-off events. While these two different subjects to justice judgments are easily confounded in measurement, future research clearly distinguishing the two over time may help to clarify when assimilation vs. contrast effects are most likely.

7.3.3 Role of expectations

The third mechanism I observed in the interview data was the role of expectations. Issues described were often not based on experiences, but rather based on expectations and estimates. Some examples of expected issues:

- Negative future outcome expected: "The main concern is that maybe I do not get what I wanted in my next transfer"
- Positive future outcome expected: "But just because maybe it is very different. It's only the first year, and we only had it a couple of months ago, we're the pilot, when it irons out it will probably be a bettering for the staff, but at the moment I suppose the change is probably hard to take."
- Negative procedural issues expected: "And then people in my team who work on INSURANCE policies might get preference, and people on the other heritage system may be left out."
- Positive procedural issues expected: "The more meetings will be the big thing, so you get a bigger perspective on how you are doing and your manager as well. I think that's going to be the biggest change."

Figure 7-16 shows how many instances coded as informational, interpersonal, outcome and procedural issues were based on experiences vs. expectations.

Figure 7-16*: Frequencies of expected vs. experienced issues*

	Informational issues		Interpersonal issues		Outcome issues		Procedural issues	
Data	expected.	experienced	expected.	experienced	expected.	experienced	expected.	experienced
Negative issues	0	35	7	29	49	47	8	20
Positive issues	1	15	1	16	17	26	2	13

Figure 7-17: Percentages of expected vs. experienced issues

	Informational issues	Interpersonal issues	Outcome issues	Procedural issues
Negative issues	0.00%	19.44%	51.04%	28.57%
Positive issues	6.25%	5.88%	39.53%	13.33%

While in general, experienced issues were mentioned more frequently than expected issues, this relation is reversed for negative outcomes. In general, outcomes are often the last element that is experienced in organisational change, and therefore participants may need to rely on expectations more for outcomes than for other elements (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003), particularly in earlier stages of change. However, this does not explain why the percentage of negative expectations is higher than for positive expectations: Negative outcomes were more often expected than experienced in this data. While this pattern could simply reflect the reality of the two settings (lots of negative outcomes might really be about to happen for participants of the interviews), it could also be due to psychological and social processes. The high number of negative outcome expectations could point towards a defensive motive on the side of participants, and could have important implications for the management of change: The management of outcome expectations may need particular attention, and maybe the management of expectations is not sufficient. Positive outcomes may actually need to be *experienced* early on in organisational change. This argument has been brought forward for example by Kotter (1995), whose stage model of change incorporates the step of planning for and creating short-term wins as an important step that cannot be skipped without jeopardizing the change result.

The differentiation between experience and expectation has not been made for organisational issues, as most of the organisational reasons given by participants could not be placed into this categorisation. Arguments referring to culture and processes were often not clearly rooted in either past, present or future and were rather "timeless" statements. Therefore organisational issues were broken down into different sub-categories, which will be described in section 7.5.2.

In the previous sections, mechanisms related to vicarious experiences, past experiences, and expectations were introduced as potentially important determinants of individuals' experience of change and their reactions to change. Any one individual's experiences of and reactions to change do not appear to be fully explainable through issues that this person has experienced in the focal change, which have typically been the sole focus of organisational justice investigations. Future research in organisational justice and in organisational change may attempt to investigate these processes further with a view to developing theory that could integrate them.

7.4 Differentiating different types of reactions

The following sections explore in how far accounts for different reactions differ. The differences between positive vs. negative, between cognitive/emotional vs. behavioural, and between active and passive reactions will be discussed.

7.4.1 The difference between positive and negative reactions

A straightforward interpretation of the justice literature would suggest that negative reactions differ from positive reactions along the dimensions fairness of outcomes, procedures, interpersonal issues, and informational issues, respectively. In Figure 7-18 I combined the reactions positive cognitions/emotions and support/acceptance into a "positive reactions" column, and the reactions negative cognitions/emotions and resistance into a "negative reactions" column. The table below largely supports the predictions of the organisational justice literature– although it should be noted that the outcome issue category is broader than fairness of outcomes, and includes any other outcome concerns.

Figure 7-18 Frequencies of negative and positive issues, related to current or past change, for positive vs. negative reactions

Current or past change	Negative or positive?	issue type	Ambivalence	Negative reaction	Positive reaction	Grand Total
Current	Neg	informational issues	2	29		31
Current	Pos	informational issues	2		14	16
Current	Neg	interpersonal	3	28	1 (A)	32
Current	Pos	interpersonal	3		14	17
Current	Neg	organisational	7	33	4 (B)	44
Current	Pos	organisational	5		9	14
Current	Neg	outcome issues	9	68	8 (C)	85
Current	Pos	outcome issues	9	1 (D)	33	43
Current	Neg	procedural	3	12	3 (E)	18
Current	Pos	Procedural	2	1 (F)	12	15
Current	powerlessness	Powerlessness	1		6	7
Past	*Neg*	*informational issues*		*3*	*1*	*4*
Past	*Pos*	*informational issues*				
Past	*Neg*	*interpersonal*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*4*
Past	*Pos*	*interpersonal*				
Past	*Neg*	*organisational*	*1*	*8*	*2*	*11*
Past	*Pos*	*organisational*		*1*		*1*
Past	*Neg*	*outcome issues*	*1*	*7*	*2*	*10*
Past	*Pos*	*outcome issues*			*1*	*1*
Past	*Neg*	*procedural*	*2*	*3*	*5*	*10*
Past	*Pos*	*procedural*				

Most of the issues that were related to stories about negative change reactions were negative statements about outcomes, interpersonal issues, informational issues, procedural issues, and also negative organisational issues. The positive reactions largely appear together with positive statements about all of the above, and also a number of times in conjunction with the mention of powerlessness.

However, there are a few negative examples to this general trend. When I began to investigate the counter-intuitive instances of positive reactions and negative instances (or vice versa), I realized that the apparently counter-intuitive instances for PAST changes were really contrast effects, e.g.:

- *"before were in a terrible building" (explaining positive reaction to move into new building)*
- *"they had felt powerless and did not have channel to voice problems before this" (explaining teams' positive reaction to introduction of a change)*
- *before it was just kind of hazard creating changes on systems and stuff like that, you know (explaining why new structure is better)*
- *in IT we were all scattered all over the place, so we had no kind of coherent policies in the department or anything like (explaining why now group works better)*

I now investigated the counter-intuitive instances referring to PRESENT change issues in the table above in more detail:

- (A): 1 instance of positive reaction, with negative interpersonal issue. In this instance, management is seen as lacking sensitivity and not giving any encouragement, but very positive interpersonal treatment by the direct manager is contrasted with this.
- (B) 4 instances of positive reactions, but negative organisational issues. These people think that in principle the changes would be a good idea, and they would like them to make a difference, but they are convinced that for reasons of culture, company policies, internal structure etc the changes are not going to work (three passive acceptance, one positive cognition).
- (C) 8 cases of negative outcome issues in accounts of positive reactions. One of these respondents sees negative outcome issues compensated by positive issues. None of the respondents blamed their direct managers for the outcomes, and described good relationships with their managers. Two of them described powerlessness. These eight instances will be investigated further in the section dealing with outcome issues, section 7.4.1. (6 of these are passive acceptance, not support)
- (D) 3 instances of passive acceptance despite of negative procedural issues. All three of these describe issues of powerlessness.
- (E) 1 case of passive resistance while mentioning positive outcomes. Explains how circumstances would make participation in the change difficult (I am too busy).
- (F) One case of negative cognitive reaction, but positive procedural aspect: This person assumes that the project would bring an increase in voice, which he appreciates, but is convinced it is not going to work for several organisational reasons.

Overall, people appear to weigh multiple motives against each other. In some cases, positive motives outweigh negative ones and *vice versa*. A lack of organisational fit (in the view of the respondent) can influence their reactions. Powerlessness in particular seems to be frequently linked to counterintuitive cases of reactions. Nearly all of the counterintuitive cases appear to be cases of passive support/accepting change, rather than active support or active resistance.

In conclusion, the data shows most negative issues to be linked to negative reactions, and positive issues to be linked to positive reactions. A different logic may apply to the mention of unrelated past events and past states, as these can serve as contrasts. However, for some present issues counter-intuitive reactions were found, particularly when issues of powerlessness came to play. A straightforward interpretation of the justice literature would not be able to explain these issues.

7.4.2 The difference between emotions/cognitions and behavioural intentions and reactions

A second differentiation of interest for this research is the one between emotions or cognitions and actual behaviours. In general, research participants were more likely to describe feelings and cognitions than behavioural intentions. Out of the 119 reactions to change described, only 33 were behaviours. This divide was very large for stories told about "self" (50 instances describing cognitions/emotions vs. only 9 instances of behavioural reactions), while for others more behaviours (20 instances) were recounted more often than cognitions/emotions (17). This may be due to the fact that others' actions are usually much more salient than their cognitions. However, for self and others, the number of cognitions/emotions was much larger again (19 vs. 4), which points towards a large degree of socially shared attitudes (see Figure 7-19)

Figure 7-19*: Frequencies of attitudes and behaviours recounted for self and others*

	cognition/emotion	Behaviour
Other	17 (14%)	20 (17%)
Self	50 (42%)	9 (08%)
Self and others	19 (16%)	4 (04%)

Figure 7-20 presents the types of issues (past and present) that were recounted in relation to behaviours and cognitions:

Figure 7-20: *Frequencies of different types of issues related to attitudinal vs. behavioural reactions*

	behaviour	cogn/ emot	Grand Total
neg org issues	13	42	55
pos org issues	5	10	15
TOTAL org issues	**18**	**52**	**70 (19%)**
neg info issues	8	27	35
pos info issues	5	11	16
TOTAL info issues	**13**	**38**	**51 (14%)**
neg outcome issues	27	68	95
pos outcome issues	10	34	44
TOTAL outcome issues	**37**	**102**	**139 (38%)**
neg interpers issues	15	21	36
pos interpers issues	8	9	17
TOTAL interpers issues	**23**	**30**	**53 (15%)**
neg proc issues	10	18	28
pos proc issues	6	9	15
TOTAL proc issues	**16**	**27**	**43 (12%)**
Powerlessness	6	1	7 (2%)

While overall there are far less interpersonal issues than outcome issues (53 vs. 139), a larger percentage of interpersonal issues appears to drive behaviours. The same is true for procedural issues. Future research may be needed to investigate whether procedural and interpersonal issues are particularly powerful drivers of behavioural reactions, even if outcome issues dominate when looking at cognitions only. Also, issues of powerlessness have been brought forward as a reason particularly for behavioural reactions. This category may thus be particularly important to consider when trying to explain people's actual behaviours.

Various types of interaction effects may come into play in determining behaviours and attitudes resulting from fairness perceptions. Different findings regarding the mitigating effects of procedural and interactional justice on distributive injustice may be due to different dependent variables considered (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Either procedural or interactional fairness can be sufficient to mitigate negative behavioural reactions that might result from perceived distributive unfairness (Skarlicki & Folger, (1997), although both procedural and interactional fairness may be needed to mitigate negative attitudinal reactions (Bobocel & Holmvall, 1999). People may be more motivated to avoid negative behaviours.

Past research in organisational justice has mostly concentrated on attitudes as dependent variables. The link between justice perceptions and actual behaviours, however, may underlie different dynamics, and various dimensions of organisational fairness may need to interact in order to convert an attitude into an actual behaviour. Future research may consider both attitudes and behaviours simultaneously in order to gain further insights into these phenomena. This area is of particular interest for change practitioners, who are ultimately interested in behaviours.

7.4.3 The difference between active and passive behavioural reactions

Change practitioners are particularly interested in getting people's active support for organisational change. The difference between active and passive reactions to change is an important one and will be explored in this data set. Out of the 33 instances of behavioural reactions described, 10 were coded as active resistance, 8 passive resistance, 7 active support and 8 passive support or acceptance. Figure 7-21 shows to which kind of issues these behavioural reactions were linked.

Figure 7-21: Frequencies of types of issues for active vs. passive behavioural reactions

	active		active Total	Passive		Passive Total	Grand Total
Data	resist	support /accept		Resist	support /accept		
Org issues	3	2	**5**	7	6	**13**	18
Info issues	5	2	**7**	3	3	**6**	13
Outcome issues	15	9	**24**	4	9	**13**	37
Interpers issues	10	6	**16**	4	3	7	23
power issues	0	0	0	0	6	6	6
TOTAL	**33**	**19**	**52**	**18**	**27**	**45**	**97 (100%)**

Passive support was the only behavioural reaction linked to powerlessness. This might indicate that the feeling of powerlessness may lead to acceptance, but is not sufficient to encourage active support of change. However, more subtle uses of power may still be at place in order to encourage support, but these are not investigated here as they would at least require different and additional types of analyses of the data.

Passive behaviours are also somewhat more linked to instances of organisational issues than active behaviours. Interpersonal and outcome issues were more often named as reasons for active behaviours. These two types of issues may be particularly important in explaining personal involvement (either in a positive or negative sense).

Future research may investigate the relative role of various dimensions of fairness and other drivers of reactions to change with respect to their different impact on active vs. passive behaviours. The difference between active and passive reactions of employees may be crucial for the success of organisational change.

7.5 Important elements of change experience beyond the organisational justice framework

One of the expected contributions of the qualitative data was to afford a better understanding of potential limitations of organisational justice as a framework to explain the link between experiences of change and reactions to change. While the dynamics discussed in section 7.2 of this chapter are often neglected in fairness research and could extend theories of organisational justice, they do not concern shortcomings of the framework us such, but rather propose ways in which the dimensions in the framework might develop and impact reactions over time. A number of issues identified by participants as reasons for their reactions to change however seem to go beyond the traditional framework of organisational justice, in particular non-fairness related outcome concerns, organisational concerns, and issues of powerlessness. These will be discussed in the following in order to identify areas of concern not directly addressed by the four-dimensional justice framework employed here.

7.5.1 The prevalence of outcome concerns

The most frequently occurring group of issues recounted by change participants are outcome concerns (139 issues in total), and in fact outcome concerns were the single most frequently cited issue for each category of reaction to change (ambivalence, negative emotion/cognition, positive emotion/cognition, resistance, support) (see

Figure 7-22).

Figure 7-22: Frequencies of different issues for different types of reactions

	Ambiv	neg emot cog	Pos emot cog	Resist	support/accept	Total
org issues	13	32	7	10	8	70
Outcome issues	19	57	26	19	18	139
Interpers issues	7	15	8	14	9	53
info issues	4	24	10	8	5	51
proc issues	7	10	10	6	10	43
Powerlessness	1				6	7

I did not ask explicitly for participants' justice concerns. Most of the outcome issues they recounted were not phrased in justice terms. Maybe if I had asked about the fairness of these issues many of them may have been seen as injustices, but others may just have been perceived as negative, yet not unfair. Without measuring both distributive fairness issues and other outcome issues, it is not possible to determine how many of these issues may be captured by a distributive fairness measure. Figure 7-23 gives an overview of how participants framed their outcome concerns:

Figure 7-23: Frequencies of different types of outcome concerns for different reactions

	ambiv	neg emot cog	Pos emot cog	Resist		support/ accept		Grand Total
framing of concern				active	passive	active	passive	
Inequality	1	1						**2**
Inequity	2	8		5		1	3	**19**
negative comparison to before	1	10		4	2	1		**18**
negative comparison to expectation		6					1	**7**
negative outcome	7	32		6	1		3	**49**
positive comparison to before	6		16			3	1	**26**
positive comparison to hypothetical state without change							1	**1**
positive outcome	2		10		1	4		**17**
Grand Total	**19**	**57**	**26**	**15**	**4**	**9**	**9**	**139**

While a number of issues were framed in fairness terms, as inequality or inequity (21 framed in fairness terms), another large number of issues were framed as comparisons (`8+7+26+1=42), and the largest number simply as positive or negative outcome (49+17=66).

People's strong reliance on comparisons to judge their outcome is predicted by a number of theories. Folger's referent cognitions theory (Folger, 1986) predicts that people decide how to react by comparing what actually happened to what might have happened ("would"/"should" comparisons). Festinger's social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954) holds that when people lack objective information about their experience, they rely on comparisons with others to know where they stand. Similarly, equity theory posits that people will react to the comparison between their own and referent others' input/outcome

ratios (Adams, 1965). Albert's temporal comparison theory (Albert, 1977) holds that if social comparisons are not available, then people may engage in past temporal comparisons.

In this research, evidence for comparisons with hypothetical outcomes and for comparisons with past outcomes or states have been found. There have been no explicit social comparisons made in the change accounts analysed here (although other parts of the interviews did refer to social comparisons). This may mean that social accounts were less used. A more plausible explanation may be that social comparisons were made implicitly, and that many of the outcomes that were simply described as good or bad were really judged so on the ground of such social comparisons. Future research needs to investigate in how far the different types of comparisons are judged as injustices vs. simply as negative outcomes. Equity theory tests have mainly investigated social comparisons, and far less tests exist for temporal and hypothetical comparisons (Walster, Walster, & Berscheid, 1978).

The frequent mention of outcome concerns points towards a central role of outcome concerns overall, yet there are indications that outcomes don't seem to determine people's reactions to change alone: Firstly, there are accounts that do not mention outcome concerns, and secondly, there are accounts that exhibit reactions that would not be predicted on the basis of their outcome issues (e.g. positive reactions with negative outcomes and vice versa). Both will now be analysed in turn.

Only 21 out of the 119 accounts (around 18%) did not explicitly mention outcome concerns. Out of these 21, the most frequent type of issues was organisational issues – included in 18 of the 21 accounts. The 3 accounts that neither included outcome nor organisational issues described only interpersonal and informational issues. An overview of those accounts that do not mention outcome concerns explicitly (none of the ambivalent accounts was without outcome concerns) is presented in Figure 7-24.

Figure 7-24: Frequencies of negative and positive issues for different types of reactions

	Neg emot cog	pos emot cog	resist	support/ accept	Grand Total
Neg org issues	13	1	6	2	22
Pos org issues	0	2	0	1	3
neg info issues	4	0	1	0	5
pos info issues	0	0	0	4	4
neg interpers issues	2	1	2	0	5
pos interpers issues	0	0	0	2	2
neg proc issues	1	1		1	3
pos proc issues					
Powerlessness				2	2

Most of the accounts that do not mention outcome issues, mention negative organisational issues. If strong identification with the organisation exists, a negative organisational issue may be seen as a bad outcome for oneself. However, these issues would not be captured in a typical organisational justice measure, and are distinct from individual outcomes for the perceiver. Organisational issues will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

The second observation that puts the role of outcomes into perspective is the fact that a number of respondents decided to support or accept change, even when outcomes were not seen as solely positive. The following is a brief compilation of these counter-intuitive cases.

In some cases the supervisor's behaviour and interpersonal treatment appeared to outweigh negative outcomes. One employee described that she actively supported a change initiative that in her view lead to inequitable outcomes (for which the organisation was blamed), but she very much appreciated the encouragement from her supervisor. In this case there were also positive outcomes that helped to balance the negative outcomes.

Similarly, three respondents accepted projects that they perceived as inequitable (passive support). These three cases all dealt with new evaluation processes, attributed to the organisation, and all three had good relationships with their managers. One of them also mentioned that it was "not her place" to try and change it, an issue of perceived powerlessness.

Equally, an employee accepted (passively supported) a change project that did not live up to expectations (the performance appraisal change in INSURANCE) he originally held for this project. Although he ultimately decided that the changes were not

useful, he still accepted them, pointing out his good relationship with his manager. Again, the organisation was blamed for the negative outcomes, not the manager. Two employees expected negative outcomes from a change in the future, but still decided to support the change. In this case, too, good relationships with the manager were described.

In one instance, a negative outcome from the organisation was accepted as it was "done fairly and correctly", with a letter from management and sufficient notice, and for a pre-specified time only. Here, the negative outcome seems to have been compensated not by behaviours from the direct manager, but through sensitive treatment and information through the organisation/higher management levels.

In conclusion, people appear to weigh multiple motives against one another, with particularly positive interpersonal treatment outweighing negative outcomes. While outcomes seem to have a central role in respondents' experience, they do not seem to determine reactions to change alone. In particular, the behaviour of the supervisor may prevent negative and encourage positive reactions to organisational change. Past research (Saunders, Thornhill & Lewis, 2002, Searle & Ball, 2004) stresses the central role of the supervisor for reactions towards change. Future research differentiating clearly between types of outcome concerns may shed more light onto which type of comparison or unfairness is most likely to lead to behavioural reactions.

This research has concentrated on the reactions positive/negative thoughts and emotions about the change, and support and resistance directed towards the change overall. These reactions are likely to be impacting on both the exchange relationship with the supervisor/manager and on the exchange relationship with the organisation as a whole. Future field research may split out reactions further, to see if the behaviours of the manager also have a mitigating role when it comes to reactions that affect the organisation but don't directly affect the exchange relationship with the direct manager.

Not all of the outcome concerns that are on people's mind may be framed in fairness or justice terms. Including other outcome concerns is likely to help explain additional variance in reactions to change.

7.5.2 Organisational issues

The second most frequent category of issues mentioned by research participants were organisational issues. Investigating this group further, three categories emerged, namely issues related to organisational culture, to work processes, and to strategy.

Figure 7-25: *Frequencies of different types of organisational issues*

	Culture	Processes	Strategy	**Total**
Neg org issues	20	19	5	**44**
Pos org issues	3	3	8	**14**
PAST Neg org issues	5	5	1	**11**
PAST Pos org issues	1			**1**
TOTAL	**29**	**27**	**14**	**70**

Examples for culture issues

Positive:

- *"People are more positive towards their job since the change"*

Negative:

- *"The majority of people here have ordinary jobs. They have no views on progressing"*

Examples for process issues

Positive:

- "(the change is) *actually addressing the problems with the work"*

Negative:

- *"Like it will work for some people because their managers will use it, but no one is checking to see if their managers use it. So unless someone's checking I don't think it will work."*

Examples for strategy issues:

Positive:

- *"Changes go into right direction, to improve in the market"*

Negative:

- *"They overran in terms of cost and time, I would have done it on a smaller scale"*

These issues may be more important for employees with high organisational commitment, who are concerned about the well being of the overall organisation. But whether these types of issues are central for sense making in organisational change may also depend on personal style. Bridges (1986) describes how the vision and the plan for change may need to be spelled out in different forms for 'thinking types' and 'feeling types'. People who think in principles and categories need to get the logical reasons for the change, and people who act on the basis of personal values and interpersonal

considerations need to get a vision of how everyone will fit in, and what the future will be like (Bridges, 1986). Organisational issues may be most important for "thinking types". Importantly, these types of concerns would not be captured by typical justice measures – in distributive justice measures, typically only the outcomes for oneself are considered, and procedural justice measures do not take into account whether procedures actually fit with organisational culture.

7.5.3 Powerlessness

A third type of issues that goes beyond traditional frameworks of organisational justice is power. The issue of powerlessness was the last coding category to be created. Some of the procedural/interpersonal considerations could have been coded from a power perspective, but I chose to view these categories in very comprehensive terms in the first instance before resorting to adding one. However, even though the category of power is the least frequently occurring one in the present coding structure, it helps to explain a number of reactions not explained by the other categories or by the traditional organisational justice framework.

Some examples:

"I think until it really sunk in it was not until a week or two afterwards that we had that second meeting, and it really kind of sunk in: in the end it is going to happen, there is nothing you can do about it."

"it is not really my place in the like to stand up and say to my manager I don't agree with this, because tough luck, it's here, and my opinions are not going to change it."

One of the seven instances of the mention of the category of powerlessness is linked to the reaction of ambivalence, and the other six instances are linked to passive support/acceptance. As described already in previous sections, a few of these instances of acceptance of change actually included negative accounts of outcomes (2), organisational issues (2) and procedural issues (2). While other positive aspects may have outweighed these, it may have been questions of power that finally led to acceptance in these cases, and powerlessness may have made the difference between acceptance (i.e., passive support) and resistance. Questions of power may need to be investigated by future research in organisational justice. The mechanisms outlined in this section are issues of power recognised by the participants, but more subtle mechanisms may be at work, too.

Watson (2003) points out that "[r]esearch on perceptions of fairness is complicated by the ways in which powerful alliances (e.g., change agents) control and

disseminate ideas, norms and values – ideology – that encourage others to understand and interpret changes through management's preferred cognitive frame of reference." (P:155).

Utilizing Thompson's framework for linguistic techniques (Thompson, 1990), Watson investigates ways in which ideological discourse constructs perceptions of fairness, legitimacy and defensibility in change situations. His analysis suggests that leaders use numerous strategies to shape employees' perceptions of fairness in the best of managerial interests. However, while his concise analysis of managerial discourse in change situations provides insights into the techniques that management uses, it cannot answer the degree of the influence the ideology has on employees, the degree to which fairness perceptions are shaped by the discourse intended to do so, and the degree to which the ideological discourse of leaders results in cooperation by employees.

In an effort to categorise different mechanisms of power in an organisational justice context, I have developed a typology of three types of fairness creation processes that draws on Lukes' (2005) sociological model of different power mechanisms. The typology places the different processes of fairness creation into the contexts of time and the exercise of power, and extends the previously largely one-dimensional conceptions used in extant organisational justice research. There are three possible mechanisms of how the powerful could impact the reactions to fairness of the less powerful in organisations, which will be named "responding", "preventing" and "shaping". The main stream organisational justice literature recognises typically only the first mechanism, responding, according to which fairness perceptions are created by fulfilling, or "responding to" the commonly agreed on criteria and antecedents of fairness, as identified in the justice literature. The second mechanism, "preventing", recognises that power differentials may prevent individuals from reacting negatively to outcomes, procedures, and treatment they perceive as unfair. For example, employees may fear negative reactions from their supervisor or negative consequences for their career if they are seen as resisting change and thus feel compelled to support changes initiated or embraced by the more powerful, even if they regard the implementation of change as unfair. This might be the mechanism at work in the cases where participants in this research mention "powerlessness" and accept change that they link with negative experiences of outcomes or fairness elements.

The possibility of power differentials preventing individuals from reacting to unfair treatment has been mentioned on the sideline of early justice literature. Cropanzano and Rupp noticed that "individuals often endure injustice because other options are closed to them"(2002, P: 257), and also pointed out that a lack of power and a lack of skill prevent action. Leventhal and his colleagues touch on the role of power distributions for agenda

setting when they observe that although procedures are generally less salient than distributions, the awareness of procedures will be heightened if influential members are dissatisfied with distributions (Leventhal et al., 1980). Thus, procedural fairness concerns are added to the agenda and discussed if changing them would benefit powerful members.

The third mechanism, "shaping", involves the use of power mechanisms to shape employees' understanding of what is fair and the way they conceptualise fairness. The perceptions of employees might be shaped in such a way as to make them perceive the treatment they actually receive as fair, even if this treatment does not correspond to the fairness criteria identified typically in justice research. These positive fairness perceptions are likely to result in the same positive attitudinal and behavioural responses as we would expect in the case were the organisation fulfils the original fairness requirements perceived by an independent outsider. One of the mechanisms could for example be to promote the choice of certain allocation norms. People can choose from a range of norms (see Leventhal, 1976b; Leventhal et al., 1980), and a company might be interested in paying according to the equity principle rather than according to equality, in order to increase productivity.

More empirical data needs to be collected to refine and to validate this taxonomy in different organisational contexts. Particularly, qualitative and longitudinal research is needed to complement extant organisational justice research. Given the frequency of change in organisation, and the reality of social interaction and power mechanisms in the workplace, the new avenues of research resulting from the proposed typology have the potential to make the field of organisational justice much more accessible and applicable to managerial practice.

7.6 Summary of the implications of content analysis findings

The content analyses conducted have afforded various insights into the data. Firstly, it has revealed a number of important processes or dynamics that help to understand how people's experiences of change are created, and how these experiences are linked to reactions to change. The three types of dynamics revolve around the role of (1) vicarious experiences, (2) past experiences, and (3) expectations in the process of experiencing and reacting to change. It is proposed that to understand individuals' experiences of and reactions to a particular change, we may in fact need to take experiences of others in the organisation into account, as well as past and history, and individuals' expectations.

Vicarious experiences recounted by participants either served to promote self through stark contrasts between "self-pro-change" and "others-against change", or they served to underline a point made or to give evidence for a statement made. In line with the second effect, past research has already found first evidence that fairness judgments may be more impactful when they are shared in a group (Colquitt et al., 2002).

Past issues also were found to fulfil two distinct roles: either they served as contrast to the present, or they underlined a present judgment (assimilation). Tentative evidence has been found for the existence of negative and positive contrast effects as well as negative and positive assimilation effects. The positive effects have not been described in extant literature and research of organisational justice. Further research is needed to investigate when which type of effect is most likely to take place, and what factors contribute to these opposite effects. In the discussion of the interview data of this study I proposed that the foci of negative assimilation seemed to be more often overall entities (the organisation, the manager), while the foci of positive contrasts were more often particular issues, traits or events. It remains to be investigated if this pattern will hold in other settings. This tentative finding underlines the importance for future justice research to investigate fairness over time, and to distinguish clearly between event and entity appraisals. For organisational practitioners this distinction is of high relevance, and in particular the knowledge in how far event and entity appraisals are linked (e.g., if the organisation proposes an unpopular change, in how far does it affect the image of the organisation as a whole as opposed to affecting judgments about the change only).

The third dynamic involved expectations vs. experiences. In general, participants recounted more issues that they had actually experienced than issues they just anticipated or expected. However, for negative outcomes, this relation was reversed. This finding could have important implications for the management of change: The management of outcome expectations may need particular attention, and positive outcomes may actually need to be experienced early on in organisational change in order to secure positive impressions of outcomes. The necessity of creating short term wins has long been recognised (Kotter, 1995; Weick, 1984).

Issues experienced by the respondent in the focal situation have typically been the main focus of organisational justice investigations. Future research in organisational justice and in organisational change may attempt to investigate processes involving vicarious experiences, past experiences, and expectations further with a view to developing theory that would be apt to deal with changing organisations.

The dimension of positive vs. negative issues regarding outcomes, procedures, information, interpersonal treatment and organisational issues appeared to be a useful explanatory framework to account for positive vs. negative reactions. Negative issues were mainly linked to negative reactions, and positive issues linked to positive reactions. Different logic may apply to the mention of unrelated past events and past states, as these can serve as contrasts. However, for some present issues counter-intuitive reactions were found, particularly when issues of powerlessness came to play. These findings require attention as contemporary justice frameworks cannot explain these reactions.

When exploring the difference between behaviours vs. cognitive/emotional reactions, it was found that behaviours were in general less likely to be told about self and that behaviours were more often driven by interpersonal and outcome issues than attitudinal reactions. Future research investigating both behavioural and attitudinal reactions is needed in order to investigate whether attitudes and behaviours underlie different justice dynamics. Interpersonal and outcome issues were more likely to cause active as opposed to passive behaviours. Powerlessness was linked to a number of passive support behaviours (acceptance). This area is of particular interest for change practitioners, who are ultimately interested in gaining the active support and preventing the resistance of their change participants.

One of the expected contributions of the qualitative data analyses was to afford a better understanding of potential limitations of organisational justice as a framework to explain the link between experiences of change and reactions to change. Many or even most of the issues that were classified as procedural concerns, interpersonal concerns, informational concerns and outcome concerns could be captured in the four dimensional framework of organisational justice. However, non-fairness related outcome concerns, organisational concerns, and issues of powerlessness also appeared to be important drivers of individuals' reactions to change. These issues are not typically included in traditional organisational justice frameworks.

Outcome issues were often not framed in fairness terms, indicating that the valence of outcomes may be an important factor. However, negative outcomes did not negatively result in negative reactions. The supervisor's behaviour and treatment in some cases appeared to outweigh negative outcomes. Past research (Saunders, Thornhill & Lewis, 2002, Searle & Ball, 2004) stressed the central role of the supervisor for reactions towards change.

Organisational issues were the second most frequent category of issues mentioned by research participants. These included issues related to organisational culture,

to work processes, and to strategy. Importantly, these types of concerns would not be captured by typical justice measures – in distributive justice measures, typically only the outcomes for oneself are considered, and procedural justice measures do not take into account whether procedures actually fit with organisational culture.

And finally, issues of power helped to explain a number of reactions that could not be explained by a straight interpretation of the justice literature. In particular, individuals' who felt powerlessness were inclined to accept change even if they perceived various negative elements of outcomes and/or fairness. Questions of power may need to be investigated by future research in organisational justice. The mechanisms outlined in this section are issues of power recognised by the participants, but more subtle mechanisms may be at work, too.

Overall, this chapter has outlined a number of areas for future research, in particular linked to the connections of fairness with social systems and time. These dimensions should receive further support by organisational justice researchers in order to bring the field closer to organisational reality. The extant framework of organisational justice (distributive, interpersonal, procedural, informational concerns) did however prove useful in explaining a large number of reactions by participants.

The results of the various elements of the study combined will be discussed in Chapter 9.

8 Supplemental Scenario Study

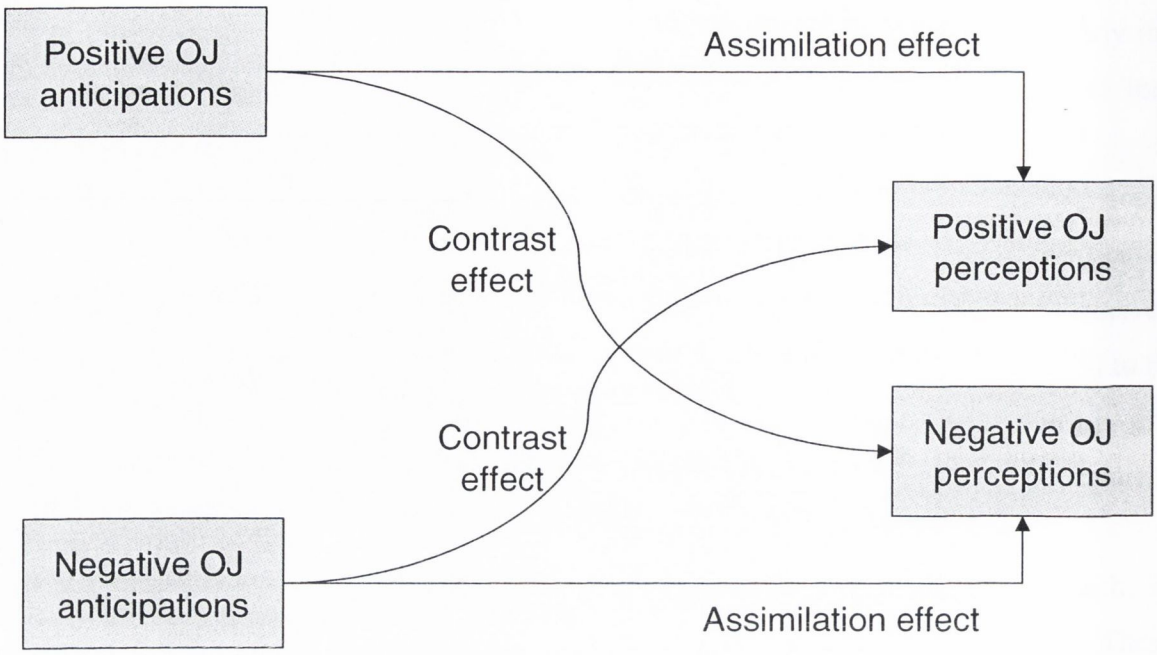
This chapter describes and discusses an in-depth supplemental investigation of fairness effects over time that has been conducted after the survey and interview data were collected and analysed. I first outline my reasons for undertaking this supplemental enquiry, and then describe method and results of this investigation. I conclude with an initial discussion of these findings, which will also be considered and discussed in the overall discussion that will follow in Chapter 9.

8.1 Reasons for a supplemental in-depth investigation of assimilation effects in organisational justice

In my discussion of the literature and research in organisational justice I have argued that the dimension of time is particularly under-researched in organisational justice theory. It is also underrepresented as an issue in empirical research, both in terms of inclusion as a relevant variable, and in its reflection in study design. As a result, longitudinal studies of organisational justice issues are rare. Yet in order to be able to explain organisational justice issues in dynamic organisational settings, and to increase the pragmatic value of organisational justice research, the dimension of time needs to be more prominently addressed and integrated into organisational justice theory and research.

The idea to conduct a more controlled investigation to investigate time effects of fairness in organisational change in more depth was born out of the survey and interview results discussed in the previous two chapters. Specifically, in the analyses of the survey data I found that there appeared to be both contrast and assimilation effects of fairness anticipations among research participants. In most cases, participants' fairness anticipations were linked to similar fairness perceptions at a later stage, i.e., a positive relationship between justice anticipations and subsequent justice perceptions was established. In some cases, however, positive (negative) justice anticipations were linked to especially negative (positive) justice perceptions at a later stage. For a schematic overview of the mechanisms, see Figure 8-1 A general explanation for the coexistence of both assimilation and contrast effects is that in general people may be more likely to see what they expect to see, but that they may particularly strongly revise their original judgment if original expectations are unconfirmed in a dramatic way that they cannot ignore.

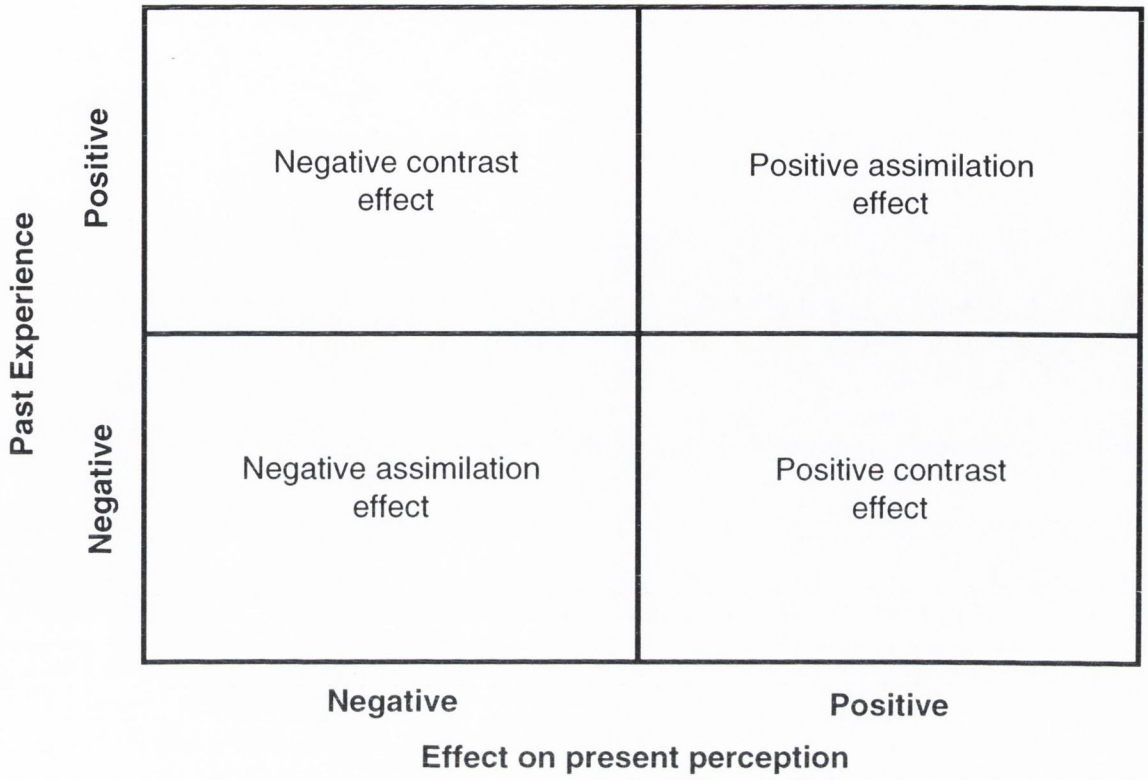
Figure 8-1 Assimilation and contrast effects



The reported survey and interview data analysis did not give insights when assimilation effects are more likely to occur than contrast effects, and *vice versa*. Neither did it afford any insights into the antecedents of anticipations.

In the semi-structured interviews conducted, participants often linked accounts of past experiences to their experience of and reaction to a later change. In the analysis of the interview data, I found indication for different roles of accounts of past experiences. I ordered these into a 2*2 matrix along the dimensions of positive or negative past experiences, and these having either a positive or a negative effect on present judgments and anticipations. The four types were entitled positive contrast effect ("now is better than the past"), negative contrast effects ("now is worse than the past"), positive assimilation effects ("it has always been good and is now") and negative assimilation effects ("it has always been bad and is now"). (See Figure 8-2).

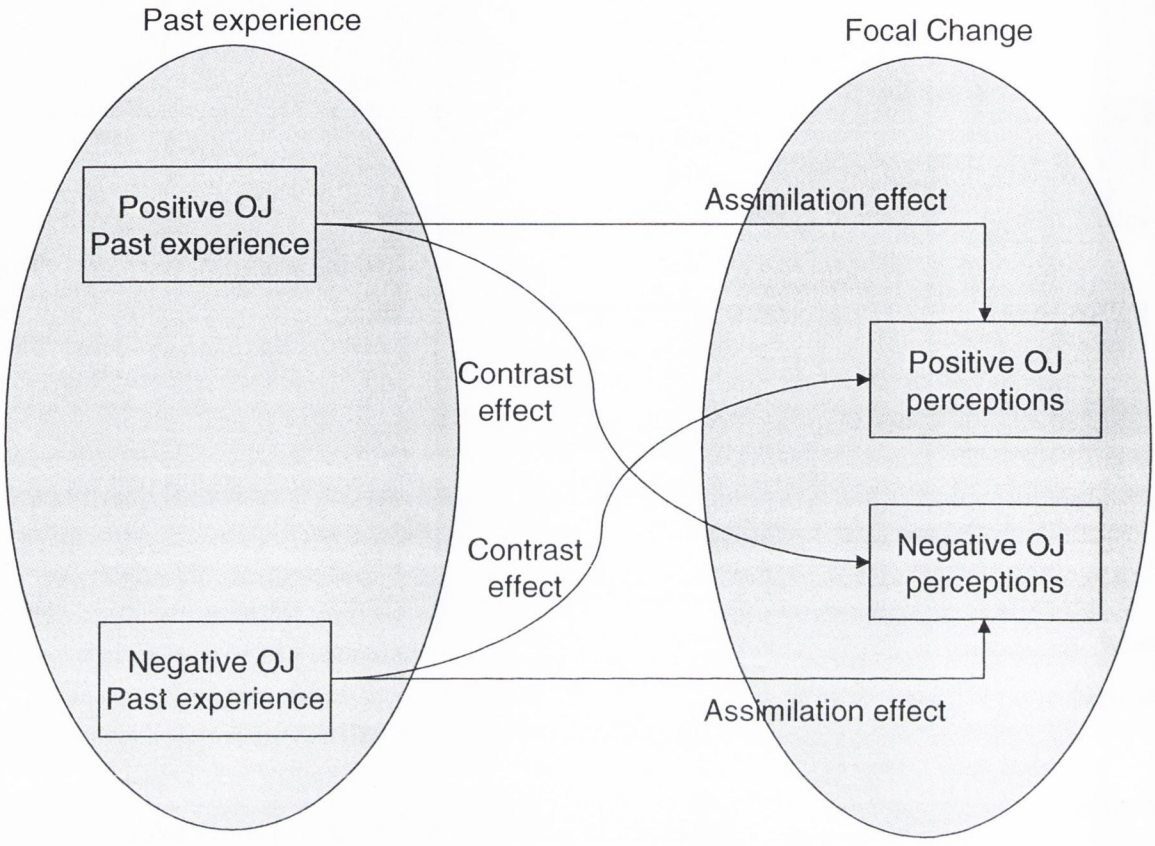
Figure 8-2: Past experience two by two



The data provided some evidence that judgments for entities may be more likely to underlie assimilation effects than judgments for events. However, at present we know very little about what determines the role of past experience.

Figure 8-3 gives an overview of contrast and assimilation effects spanning different experiences. At present, we know little about the processes lying between the two experiences.

Figure 8-3: overview of contrast and assimilation effects.



The effects found in the interview and in the survey data may be describing different parts of the same phenomenon. Past experiences may prompt contrast or assimilation effects on subsequent perceptions via their impact on anticipations or expectations, which will then determine in which light the focal situation is judged and experienced. I decided to test this additional link in a scenario study, which would allow a more controlled testing environment. In the following section, the concrete hypotheses to be tested in this scenario study will be developed, drawing on literature and research in organisational justice.

8.2 The role of past experiences and anticipations of fairness

Explanations of the creation of fairness perceptions over time do not exist in the current justice literature. A number of individual contributions have however presented arguments or reported findings that may be relevant to this issue. As these contributions have been discussed in depth in Chapters 2 and 4, I present only a brief summary here.

In the justice literature, instances of both assimilation and contrast effects have been found, but have never been integrated. The role of general past experiences for justice judgments has been highlighted through research on the persistent injustice effect (Davidson & Friedman, 1998). It was found that people who had suffered more injustices in the past were less likely to accept social accounts as excuses for injustices, and would thus perceive higher overall injustice. This is a case of negative assimilation effect, where social accounts, which might disconfirm the injustice (which was the previous experience) are discarded.

Individuals who "anticipate injustice are more likely than those who don't to see injustice." (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999: P. 156). This statement posits assimilation effects, this time departing from anticipations which may or may not be caused by prior experiences. Shapiro and Kirkman argue that this is likely to hold for all dimensions of justice, but do not investigate the relationship. Other research has provided evidence that positive experiences of procedural and informational fairness in the past can lead to more negative perceptions of fairness when the previous elements of procedural or informational fairness are taken away (as opposed to someone who has never experienced them in the first place) (Brockner et al., 1994). In this case, positive procedural justice in the past leads to heightened perceived procedural injustice in the focal situation, a negative contrast effect.

Ambrose and Cropanzano also found indications for contrast effects of procedural justice– both negative and positive - within the same focal situation / exchange relationship, but over a period of time. Participants who had felt treated fairly at T1 reacted with lower commitment when being treated unfairly at T2 than those who had already been treated unfairly at T1. Conversely, participants who thought they were treated unfairly at T1 reported higher commitment at T2 than those who had perceived their treatment at T1 to be fair. In summarising the available evidence, we have some indications that past experiences have an impact on judgments of present focal situations, and that both assimilation and contrast effects exist in organisational justice. We do not know, however, under which conditions assimilation vs. contrast effects are more likely to occur. Similarly, we cannot determine for which dimensions of organisational justice assimilation or contrast effects are more likely to occur. And finally, we have no evidence if both types of effects exist for each of the justice dimensions. So far, contrast effects have only been found for procedural organisational justice, and assimilation effects have been reported only for effects of social accounts on overall fairness judgments including outcome and procedure.

Assimilation effects have long been discussed in attitude research. They are defined as prior attitudes' influence on the retention and learning of new information such as to make the new information congruent with the prior attitudes (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). The reasoning is that previously established judgments and schemata may cause individuals to interpret and filter information in new situations in such a way as to make them fit into these pre-judgments or schemata. Similar effects have been described for example as "confirmatory bias" (Snyder & Swann, 1978) or in the "halo effect"(for reviews see Balzer & Sulsky, 1992). Unless individuals have unequivocal, objective evidence to indicate otherwise, they are likely to see what they expect to see.

Contrast effects on the other hand are incongruency effects where people allocate more attention to inconsistent information than to consistent information (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). The reasons for this may have been the desire to integrate such information with their schemas and attitudes, or to refute the information. Stimuli are thus adjusted away from existing standards.

Given limitations in time and resources, I decided to concentrate my investigation on assimilation effects, as this was the effect I had already tested in my survey data analysis (hypothesis 2, see Chapters 4 and 6). My central question was under which conditions assimilation effects would occur between previous experiences along the different dimensions of justice, and anticipations and perceptions of these justice dimensions in a different focal situation. Drawing on previous research on attitudes (Snyder & Swann, 1978), I expected to find assimilation effects under conditions that provide no clear information to disconfirm previous judgments. In order to keep the number of variables in this study to a minimum, I chose to combine interpersonal and informational aspects of fairness in my investigation, the combination will be termed interactional fairness in the following. Separating out interpersonal and informational justice would have required twice as many participants, and unfortunately the timeframe and access for this study did not allow for this. A combined treatment of interpersonal and informational justice dimensions is frequently found in the justice literature (see section 2.4.5). I chose to combine interpersonal and informational aspects of fairness rather than leave out one of the four dimensions of fairness in order to build on past studies that have investigated either distributive or procedural elements only. Thus a three-dimensional investigation represents a step towards a more comprehensive investigation.

In operationalising the condition of "no clear information to the contrary", I chose two types of informational settings: (a) ambiguous and (b) ambivalent information. In this context, ambiguous information refers to information that gives neither clear information

to confirm nor clear information to disconfirm previous judgments, i.e., neither clearly positive nor clearly negative information was given regarding the fairness of the changes. Ambivalent information refers to information that combined both positive and negative aspects, to equal degrees. These two information conditions were chosen in this order, as in organisational change people often have unclear or very little information at the beginning of a project, leading to ambiguity. Later on, they may receive information indicating both positive and negative aspects, leading to feelings of ambivalence. In ambiguity there is no clear information to disconfirm previous schemata or preconceptions, while in ambivalence there is both confirmatory and contrary information. I still expected assimilation rather than contrast effects for the ambivalence condition, as people are usually motivated to reduce dissonance (Festinger, 1957).

The hypotheses to be tested in this study are presented below.

Hypothesis 1: In a situation where ambiguous information is received, previous fairness experiences will be related to fairness anticipations regarding the new focal situation such that (a) distributive justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of distributive justice; (b) procedural justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of procedural justice; and (c) interactional (interpersonal and informational) justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of interactional justice

Hypothesis 2: In a situation where ambivalent information is received, individuals' justice perceptions will be positively related to their anticipations of fairness, such that (a) anticipations of distributive justice will be positively related to perceptions of distributive justice; (b) anticipations of procedural justice will be positively related to perceptions of procedural justice; and (c) anticipations of interactional (interpersonal and informational) justice will be positively related to perceptions of interactional justice.

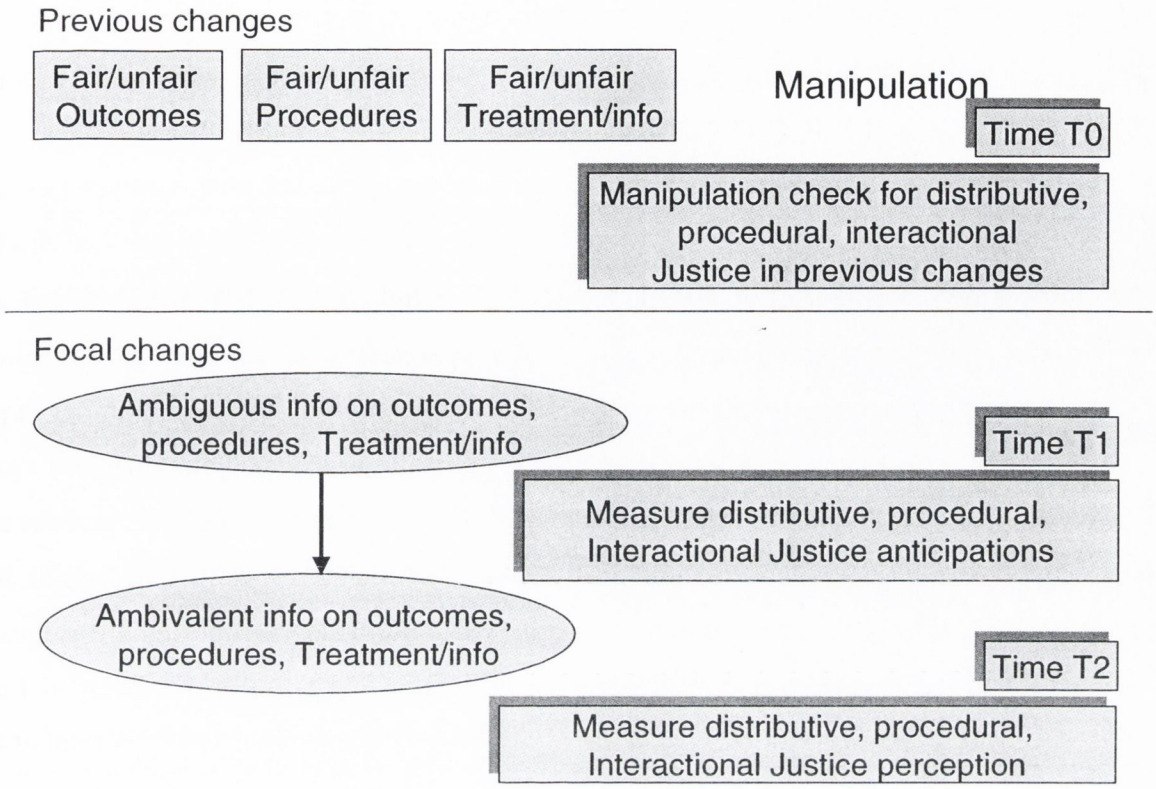
Investigating these hypotheses in a scenario study is expected to extend on my previous elements of investigation in two important ways. Firstly, the stronger control situation allows for a clearer investigation of the relationship between anticipatory injustice and subsequent fairness perceptions and reactions. Secondly, measuring the degree of linkage between the fairness experience in a previous event and subsequent anticipatory injustice in a controlled scenario study will provide better insights into what is driving anticipatory fairness judgments. This design enables me to control for influences of third variables (e.g., social cues) that could be driving these effects.

When investigating people's fairness perceptions over time, it is of particular importance to consider which information people have (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Van den Bos, 2001) as this can influence their reactions and perceptions . This study presents participants with two different information conditions. Thus, the study also hopes to afford new insights into the processes by which previous fairness perceptions may filter into consequent fairness perceptions. In a first step I will be testing if in an ambiguous information situation (no clear fairness relevant information is given) a previous fairness judgment is carried over into a new focal situation. In a second step I will be testing if in an ambivalent situation (both positive and negative fairness clues are given) the information given will be selected and used consistent with a relevant previous fairness judgement.

In the scenario study, participants firstly receive a story about a previous organisational change that a person named Mark has experienced. In different conditions, each of three justice dimensions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) will be described as either fair or unfair (2*2*2 design). This is the manipulation of previously experienced organisational justice.

Participants are asked to imagine how they would feel and react in Mark's situation, and are asked to judge the fairness of the previous changes described (manipulation check, T0). Participants are then told about a new project that is just announced. No clear information is given (ambiguity), and participants are asked about their fairness anticipations regarding the new change (T1) .Finally, participants are told that time has passed now, and an equal number of positive and negative pieces of information about the new change will be given (ambiguity). Fairness perceptions regarding the change are measured (T2). Figure 8-4: Scenario design overview gives a brief overview of the overall design of the scenario study. The following sections will describe the design and method used in much more detail.

Figure 8-4: Scenario design overview



8.3 Method

8.3.1 Participants and Design

The scenario study was conducted using the internet as the medium to collect data from participants. The link to the survey web site was sent to organisational practitioners in Ireland and in the UK. Participants were selected based on their recent or current experience as full-time employees of medium or large organisations. This condition was chosen to ensure that participants can relate to the scenario presented. Specifically, employment in such organisations makes it more likely that they have experience with planned organisational change of the type described in the scenario, and with formal performance management systems. In many small organisations such formal systems do not exist to the same degree as in larger organisations. Study participants were recruited by contacting current and former members of a number of Executive Education Masters programmes in management. These participants were asked to participate in the study, and to ask work colleagues in their organisations to also participate. In addition, participants were also recruited through direct phone solicitation from managers and employees known directly to me and academic colleagues.

A total of 125 individuals participated, of which 65 were male and 60 were female. The average tenure in their organisation category (2.73) corresponded to 12.015 years, and the average work experience category (3.46) corresponded to 15.8 years. The average age group of 4.11 corresponded to an average age of 38.55 years.

The various different conditions were all created as different scenarios. There were eight main conditions (2*2*2) for either fairness or unfairness in distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. In order to exclude a positive or negative bias in the ambivalent condition, a number of different versions of the questionnaire needed to be created for the main conditions. In the ambivalent condition, the same number of positive and negative criteria was used, but their combinations changed for different individual scenarios (for example, voice was positive and process control negative, and for the next questionnaire process control was positive and voice negative, etc.). For each of the eight main conditions, an equal amount of the different ambivalence conditions was created. To avoid different order effects to influence the study results, I always presented positive information first, followed by negative information (Lavine et al., 1998). A total of 8 (main conditions) x 16 (versions) different scenarios was created, which means that each of the eight main conditions consisted of 16 different scenarios. Individual participants that entered the survey website were automatically and randomly assigned to one of these scenarios.

8.3.2 Procedure

Participants were firstly informed that this study was part of a research project on organisational change, and that individual responses would not be identified.

In order to prepare participants for the stepwise procedures of the study (receiving bits of information at a time), it was explained that "*Our research aims at investigating issues around organisational change. As organisational change unfolds, information about it becomes available successively. In order to simulate this process, this survey provides you with additional and updated information in steps. You will be asked for your opinions and reactions based on the information you have at the particular time. There are no right or wrong answers; we are interested in your personal views and impressions*"

The first part of information given to participants was the story about a previous change, and contained the manipulations of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. The introduction read:

"The scenario described on the following pages is based on real-life workplace situations we encountered in our research. It consists of three parts which describe the experiences of an employee, Mark, at three successive points in time.
You will be given three snapshot descriptions of Mark's experiences. After you read each scenario, we ask you to answer some related questions.
When answering these questions, please imagine what you would think and how you would feel if you were in his shoes."

The positive (**negative**) conditions read as follows:

"Mark has been working in a financial services company for the last three years. A year ago his firm merged with another company. This merger resulted in substantial change for everyone in the newly formed organisation.

(introduction)

At one point decisions regarding changes in the IT system that directly affected Mark's team were made. Every person (**nobody**) in the team was consulted and their views were (**not**) taken into account. On one occasion, Mark's team was told they might be split up. When they had given their reasons as to why this would not be appropriate, the team stayed together (**was split anyway**). Mark felt that the company really made an effort (**no effort at all**) to give everyone the opportunity to voice their opinions.

The same (**completely different**) processes and rules for re-distributing roles and responsibilities seemed to be applied everywhere during the merger. Positions were (never) advertised well in advance, and everyone (**only a few people**) had the opportunity to interview for them with an independent (**non-independent**) and universally respected (**not-respected**) selection committee.

(procedural justice manipulation)

Mark's manager treated his team and all individual members respectfully (**with very little respect**) and with much personal consideration (**no personal consideration**) during these times of change, and went out of his way to explain all (**did not explain the**) changes and change procedures to the members of his team.

(interactional justice manipulation)

When it came to rewards and new responsibilities, Mark felt that (**even**) if he made an effort and contributed to the new organisation, he would (**not**) be rewarded appropriately and would (**not**) be given the responsibility and compensation he deserved."

(distributive justice manipulation)

A manipulation check for the organisational justice conditions was conducted (see section 8.3.3.1 below for scales used). In the next step, participants were informed that a new performance management project is being announced. Mark's thoughts are described as unsure about what to make of the new project: either good or bad things might come out of it, he doesn't know. This is the ambiguous information condition.

"Some time after the completion of the merger, Mark is called into a departmental meeting. The head of his department announces that the performance management and performance evaluation system will be changed completely. The new system will have an impact on evaluation, bonuses, pay raises, and promotions.

Mark walks out of the meeting and doesn't know what to make of this. On the one hand, he thinks there is scope for improvement in performance management; on the other hand, he is not sure if this will really be a change for the better.

Of course, he would like to have more opportunities to express his own views during performance appraisals, instead of just sitting at the appraisal and receiving the evaluation from his manager. This change might be an opportunity to increase his input in the review process. Yet he is not sure if this will happen. Mark does not know whether the new system is going to be more or less participative.

Mark also is concerned about how much the performance appraisal will depend on the individual manager. He wonders whether the new system will give more or less freedom to managers. If managers have more autonomy, then evaluations may depend more on individual managers. If managers have less autonomy, then the appraisals may become more comparable across teams.

Mark hopes that his manager will be giving the team more information regarding the procedures of the new system, and he hopes that they will be informed of the new requirements soon.

Mark had hoped for an increased bonus this year. He feels he has performed well and hopes to be rewarded according to his efforts. He doesn't know whether the new system will make a bonus increase more or less likely than before. He wonders if this system will result in a fair deal for him."

The anticipations of distributive, procedural, and interactional fairness were then measured.

The next part contained a description of Mark's experiences with the change. In order to make sure that overall I did not give not positively or negatively balanced descriptions, I reversed the types of positive and negative attributes for half of the surveys created. Positive criteria and some negative criteria (on all three dimensions of fairness) were alternated within each condition of the questionnaire. For example for one version positive procedural attributes could include the opportunity to appeal, and negative attributes could include bias. For another version, this would then be reversed, and there would be no opportunities to appeal, but also no bias.

One example of a combination is:

"The new performance management system has been in place for one year. Mark's experiences with the new performance management system have been mixed.

From talking informally to colleagues from different teams, Mark knows that the system has been applied the same way in all teams; individual reviews are not dependent upon which manager conducts them.

Employees' views and input on the new performance management system were not taken into account when designing the final version of the system, and the fact that Mark and many of his colleagues expressed the need for more involvement in the appraisal process was ignored.

The new appraisal system includes opportunities to appeal outcomes. Recently, one of Mark's colleagues did not agree with the evaluation assigned to him by his manager, and he had an opportunity to appeal it.

The new system clearly favours some types of jobs and organisational functions over others. For example, certain job responsibilities and specific contributions lead to better evaluations under the new rules.

Mark's manager has treated his team members very politely and has shown good understanding of their feelings in the context of the performance reviews.

In conducting the performance reviews in his team Mark's manager has made improper remarks and comments about personal issues.

Mark was very interested in finding out more how the performance review would be conducted in his very particular employment situation. His manager made the time to sit down with him to discuss and explain the details.

Mark's manager communicated the new procedures and requirements for the performance review meeting at the very last minute, and no one had any time to prepare and adapt.

Comparing his evaluation with that of his team members who do the same kind of work, Mark thinks that his appraisal outcome does appropriately reflect his work input.

Given his expectations based on previous experiences with other performance management systems, Mark feels that his evaluation does not accurately reflect his efforts and input in his job.

Perceived fairness of the new project was then measured: distributive, procedural, and interactional (for measures, see the following sections). Demographics were measured at the end.

8.3.3 Dependent Measures

8.3.3.1 Scales

As measures for anticipated and perceived organisational justice along the dimensions distributive, interpersonal and informational justice, I used again Colquitt's measure (Colquitt, 2001), already employed in the survey part of my investigation (see Chapter 5). The measure was contextualised appropriately for the scenarios (see APPENDIX VI), and in order to help differentiate between anticipations and perceptions.

For procedural justice anticipations and perceptions, I decided that the Colquitt measure was not appropriate in this case of very limited information, as it asks about specific attributes of fair procedures, about which the participants had no information in the first condition. Thus, in order to avoid unnecessary confusion of participants, I used the more global measure by McFarlin and Sweeney (1993, P 27), which was developed for performance management contexts.

The measure consists of four items on a five point Likert scale, with the anchors very unfair (1) to very fair (5). As for the other justice measures, I adjusted the wording and the introductory parts of the measures to distinguish between anticipations ("do you expect to...") and experiences ("do you..."). For anticipated procedural justice, the four items read thus:

"How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to determine pay raises to be?"

"How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to evaluate performance to be?"

"How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to determine promotions to be?"

"How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to communicate performance feedback to be?"

See Table 8-1 for the performance of the measures for procedural, distributive and interactional justice anticipations (T1) and perceptions (T2). All measures performed well, with the exception of interactional justice at T2, which showed a mediocre performance of 0.72. This is largely due to the combination of interpersonal and interactional items for this measure.

Table 8-1:measure performance scenario study

Measure	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of Items
Anticipated Procedural Justice	90%	4
Anticipated Distributive Justice.	92%	4
Anticipated Interactional Justice	96%	9
Perceived Procedural Justice .	90%	4
Perceived Distributive Justice	87%	4
Perceived Interactional justice.	72%	9

8.3.3.2 Manipulation checks

A manipulation check was conducted after the initial justice manipulation (T0), using single overall items for each dimension of fairness (how fair were the procedures for making decisions, how fair were the outcomes for employees, has Mark's manager treated his team members fairly, was the amount, content and timing of information given by mark's manager fair?), on a five-point scale from very unfair to very fair.

8.3.3.3 Other measures/control measures

A number of demographics were also collected, namely age, tenure, work experience, and gender.

8.4 Results

In the following paragraphs, the statistical analyses and results will be briefly laid out.

8.4.1 Manipulation checks

The three factors that were varied in the scenario descriptions were firstly distributive justice, secondly procedural justice and thirdly interactional justice. Each of these three dimensions was described either as fair or as unfair. All possible combination of the three factors lead to 8 conditions (2*2*2). The frequencies for each condition (through random assignment) are shown in Table 8-2.

Table 8-2 Overview of scenario conditions

Condition	frequency	DJ	PJ	Int. J.
A	15	fair	fair	fair
B	13	fair	fair	unfair
C	16	fair	unfair	fair
D	16	fair	unfair	unfair
E	14	unfair	fair	fair
F	17	unfair	fair	unfair
G	20	unfair	unfair	fair
H	14	unfair	unfair	unfair

This corresponds to the following assignments for individual factor values: For procedural justice 66 unfair and 59 fair, for Distributive justice 65 unfair and 60 fair, for interactional justice 60 unfair and 65 fair. The different numbers of cases for different cells that resulted from the automatic random assignment of participants to specific conditions can be handled by GLM Multivariate Procedures which I used in analysing the data. The GLM Multivariate procedure provides regression analysis and analysis of variance for multiple dependent variables by one or more factor variables or covariates. I used SPSS for Windows version 12 to conduct the analyses.

I conducted checks to test whether the three manipulations were successful. Global justice measures assessed participants' fairness perceptions along the three dimensions directly after the initial manipulation.

A) for experience of procedural fairness manipulation:

A 2 (procedural fairness) * 2 (distributive fairness) * 2 (interactional fairness) analysis of variance on the average score of the global justice question for procedural justice revealed that there was a significant main effect of the procedural justice

manipulation with F (1,114)= 231.170, P<0.0001 , indicating that the positive procedural justice condition was indeed evaluated as more procedurally just than the procedural injustice condition. The procedural justice manipulation accounted for 67% of the variation in procedural justice perceptions in the manipulation checks (T0). Neither the main effects of the distributive justice F (1,114) =2.168, p=0.144, nor of the interactional justice manipulation F (1,114)=.909 , p=.342 were significant. The interaction between the distributive and the procedural justice manipulation was marginally significant (F(1,114)=3.846, p=0.052), indicating that the way procedural justice manipulation was interpreted was influenced also by the combination of procedural and distributive justice information given. The variables gender, tenure and age group did not have significant effects on the procedural justice judgments at T0 (regarding the previous merger experience, before new project announced).

B) for experience of distributive fairness manipulation:

A 2 (procedural fairness) * 2 (distributive fairness) * 2 (interactional fairness) analysis of variance on the average score of the global justice question for distributive justice showed no significant main effect of the distributive justice manipulation with F (1,114)=2.761 , p=0.099 , indicating that the intended difference between fair and unfair distributive justice conditions was not perceived clearly by participants.

Surprisingly, there was a strong main effects of the procedural justice manipulation F (1,114) =184.218, p=<0.001 and partial eta squared of .618 (accounting for 61.8% of the variation in perception of distributive fairness at this point). There was also a (relatively small) main effect of the interactional justice manipulation F (1,114)= 4.920 , p=.029 and partial eta squared of .041. The interaction effect between the procedural and the interactional justice manipulations were also significant with F(1,114)= 7.173, p=0.008 and partial eta squared of 0.059. The existence of significant interaction effects indicates that the manipulations for the three dimensions of organisational justice were not perceived as stand-alone pieces of information, but that the combination had an impact on people's perception of the previous experiences described. The variables gender, tenure and age group did not have significant effects on the distributive justice judgments at T0.

C) for experiences of interactional fairness manipulation:

A 2 (procedural fairness) * 2 (distributive fairness) * 2 (interactional fairness) analysis of variance on the average score of the global justice question for interactional justice showed a significant main effect of the interactional justice manipulation (F (1,114)=172.189, P<0.0001; partial eta squared = 0.602), indicating that the interactional procedural justice manipulation accounted for 60.2 % of the variation in the interactional

justice judgment at T0. There were however two more significant (if smaller) effects: Firstly, the procedural justice manipulation with $F(1,114)=21.972$, $p<0.001$ accounted for 16.2% in variation, and the interaction between procedural and interactional justice with $F=10.463$, $p=0.002$ accounted for 8.4% of variation. The other interaction effects, the distributive justice manipulation, or the control variables gender, tenure and age group did not have significant effects on the interactional justice judgments at T0.

In conclusion, the procedural fairness manipulation was clearly successful. The manipulation was the only factor explaining variance in the perceived experienced procedural justice during the merger (T0).

The distributive fairness manipulation was not successful. Maybe participants would have needed a more concrete and detailed description of outcomes in the merger, maybe distributive justice only develops its full strength when actually experienced and cannot be simulated in a thought experiment as well as the other dimensions.

The interactional fairness perceptions was by and large successful, with the manipulation being by far the greatest determinant of interactional fairness judgments at T0. However, procedural justice contributed some main and interaction effect to the variance in interactional fairness perceptions.

Therefore, hypothesis 1, the tests of which relied on a successful manipulation, can unfortunately not be tested for Distributive justice but only for procedural and interactional justice. However, for explorative reasons distributive justice will be included in the multivariate analyses in the following.

8.4.2 Hypotheses tests

In the following, the tests conducted for hypotheses 1 and 2, and the results of these tests will be described.

8.4.2.1 Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1: In a situation where ambiguous information is received, previous fairness experiences (T0) will be related to fairness anticipations regarding the new focal situation (T1) such that (a) distributive justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of distributive justice; (b) procedural justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of procedural justice; and (c) interactional (interpersonal and informational) justice experienced in the previous event will be positively related to anticipations of interactional justice

In order to test hypothesis 1, I created summative scores for procedural, interactional, and distributive justice anticipations at T1 (after new project has been announced) which were used as the dependent variables in the multivariate analyses. The manipulations for previous experiences of procedural, interactional, and distributive justice were entered as factors. I also entered the control variables age, gender and tenure as covariates into the model.

Overall, the models explained 14.5% of the variance in procedural justice anticipations (R Squared = .145 (Adjusted R Squared = .071), 14.9% of the variance in distributive justice anticipations (R Squared = .149 (Adjusted R Squared = .075), and 38.6% (R Squared = .386 (Adjusted R Squared = .332)) of the variance in interactional justice anticipations. The control variables tenure, gender, and age did not have any significant effects on anticipations of fairness.

The procedural justice manipulation did have significant main effects onto anticipated procedural justice at T1 ($F(1, 114) = 10.003$, $p<0.001$, explaining 8.1% of variation (higher anticipated procedural justice for positive procedural fairness variation, summative score means 9.8 vs. 11.46), and onto distributive justice anticipations at T1 ($F(1,114) = 7.748$, $p<0.002$, partial eta squared = 0.064, corresponding to explained 6.4% of variance (means 10.3 vs. 12.03, more positive distributive anticipations for more positive procedural justice experience), but not onto interactional fairness anticipations.

The interactional justice manipulation showed only main effects on anticipations of interactional justice, with $F(1,114) = 52.589$, $p<0.001$, accounting for 31.6% of the variance in interactional fairness anticipations between groups (T1), in the direction hypothesised (higher anticipation of interpersonal justice for higher previous experience of interpersonal justice, means 19.35 vs. 30.35).

The distributive justice manipulation seemed to have a small but significant impact onto anticipations of interactional justice with $F(1,114)=4.396$, $p=0.038$, accounting for 3.7% of variance between groups, but this effect is such that for previous distributive injustice experience, the perception of anticipated procedural justice is higher than for previous distributive justice experience (means 26.89 vs. 23.10).

None of the interaction effects between the three manipulations of fairness experience were statistically significant predictors of differences in the variance of fairness anticipations.

Table 8-3 Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	PjT1	163.271(a)	10	16.327	1.941	.047	.145
	DJT1	215.836(b)	10	21.584	1.998	.040	.149
	IJT1	4674.869(c)	10	467.487	7.173	.000	.386
Intercept	PjT1	868.739	1	868.739	103.260	.000	.475
	DJT1	1067.990	1	1067.990	98.875	.000	.464
	IJT1	6005.893	1	6005.893	92.156	.000	.447
PJ manip	PjT1	84.160	1	84.160	10.003	.002	.081
	DJT1	83.690	1	83.690	7.748	.006	.064
	IJT1	1.075	1	1.075	.016	.898	.000
IJ manip	PjT1	.097	1	.097	.011	.915	.000
	DJT1	5.624	1	5.624	.521	.472	.005
	IJT1	3427.277	1	3427.277	52.589	.000	.316
DJ manip	PjT1	.480	1	.480	.057	.812	.001
	DJT1	34.907	1	34.907	3.232	.075	.028
	IJT1	286.495	1	286.495	4.396	.038	.037
Pjmanip * Ijmanip	PjT1	22.881	1	22.881	2.720	.102	.023
	DJT1	21.442	1	21.442	1.985	.162	.017
	IJT1	84.028	1	84.028	1.289	.259	.011
Pjmanip * Djmanip	PjT1	.754	1	.754	.090	.765	.001
	DJT1	1.595	1	1.595	.148	.702	.001
	IJT1	148.608	1	148.608	2.280	.134	.020
Ijmanip * Djmanip	PJT1	4.310	1	4.310	.512	.476	.004
	DJT1	17.776	1	17.776	1.646	.202	.014
	IJT1	63.047	1	63.047	.967	.327	.008
Pjmanip * Ijmanip * Djmanip	PT1	.276	1	.276	.033	.857	.000
	DJT1	10.991	1	10.991	1.018	.315	.009
	IJT1	33.146	1	33.146	.509	.477	.004

a R Squared = .145 (Adjusted R Squared = .071), b R Squared = .149 (Adjusted R Squared = .075),

c R Squared = .386 (Adjusted R Squared = .332)

Fixed factors: Pjmanip = manipulation of procedural justice, Ijmanip = manipulation of interactional justice, Djmanip = manipulation of distributive justice.

Dependent variables: DJT1 = distributive justice perception at T1, PJT1=procedural justice perception at T1, IJT1=interactional justice perception at T1.

Summarising, the data provides support for Hypothesis 1 (b) [procedural justice] and 1 (c) [interactional justice].

8.4.2.2 Hypothesis 2:

In a situation where ambivalent information is received, individuals' justice perceptions (T2) will be positively related to their anticipations of fairness (T1), such that (a) anticipations of distributive justice will be positively related to perceptions of distributive justice; (b) anticipations of procedural justice will be positively related to perceptions of procedural justice; and (c) anticipations of interactional (interpersonal and informational) justice will be positively related to perceptions of interactional justice. A table of correlations and descriptives can be found in Appendix VII.

As in the analysis of the survey data described in Chapter 6, hierarchical linear regressions were conducted. This analysis tests for the same relationships as in the analysis of the survey data (see section 6.2.2.5), albeit in a much more controlled environment and for a specific information situation.

When entering distributive justice perceptions at T2 (after the performance management change project) as dependent variable, the control variables age, gender and tenure accounted for 27% (adjusted 7.3%) of variance, (121 df):

Table 8-4 Control variables for DJ as dependent variable

	Std beta	**Sig (2 sided)**
Gender	-.226	.011
Tenure	-.188	.080
Age	.109	.305

Gender is the only significant predictor at the 0.05 level, such that women are more likely to perceive distributive injustice and men are more likely to perceive distributive justice. Adding distributive justice anticipations (T1) as a predictor increased R square by 7.1 %, leading to total R square of .144 (adjusted .115), a change that was significant at 0.002. The standard beta for DJ anticipations was .27, sig 0.001 (1-tailed), indicating a relatively strong positive relationship between anticipations and perceptions.

For procedural justice perceptions at T2, the same control variables were entered first in the hierarchical regression. They accounted for 16% of the variance (R square .16, adjusted R square .14), see Table 8-5.

Table 8-5 Control variables for procedural justice as dependent variable

	Std beta	Sig (2 sided)
Gender	-.324	.000
Tenure	-.139	.170
Age	-.147	.147

The same pattern as for distributive justice was found. Women were more likely to perceive procedural injustice at T2. When entering procedural justice anticipations as predictor, there was a significant increase in R square by .131 (leading to R square of 29.1%, or adjusted R square of 26.8%). With a standardised beta of .389 (sig <0.001), procedural justice anticipations were a strong predictor of perceptions of procedural justice at T2. The posited positive relationship was confirmed.

For interactional justice at T2 as dependent variable, the three control variables did not have statistically significant effects (R square 0.039, adjusted R square 0.016, sig F change .181). None of the three control variables was a significant predictor at the 0.05 level see Table 8-6.

Table 8-6: Control variables for interactional justice as dependent variable

	Std beta	Sig (2 sided)
Gender	-.146	.104
Tenure	.074	.495
Age	.069	.525

When adding interactional fairness anticipations (T1) as a predictor, R square was increased by 6.5%, leading to a total R square of 10.5% (adjusted 7.5%), a change that was significant at 0.004. Anticipations of interactional fairness were a significant and positive predictor of perceptions of interactional fairness with beta .260 (sig .002 one-sided).

8.5 Discussion

The scenario study provides useful information regarding the antecedents of anticipations of justice. Due to the unsuccessful manipulation for distributive justice, hypothesis 1 (a) could not be tested . However, the data supported hypothesis 1 (b) and (c) by indicating that previous experiences along the these fairness dimensions guided anticipations of fairness regarding an unrelated event within the same employment relationship.

Positive fairness experiences along the dimensions of procedural and interactional justice appeared to be related to more positive anticipations. This effect was particularly strong for interactional justice. This may be due to the operationalisation of the justice dimensions in the study. The source of interactional justice is the supervisor, and judgments regarding a person may be more stable than judgments about an impersonal entity such as the organisation. This suggestion remains to be tested by using operationalizations that do not rely on different sources.

Also, on the background of negative distributive experiences, participants on average had slightly higher anticipations of interactional justice. This counterintuitive effect may be due to a switching of attention towards the exchange relationship with the supervisor when the exchange relationship with the organisation appears to be relatively less satisfactory.

Lastly, there was a positive main effect of procedural justice experiences onto anticipations of distributive justice. This effect appears to support the instrumental model of organisational justice, according to which people care about procedural justice because more procedural justice promises more predictable, fairer or more beneficial future outcomes.

The testing of the second hypothesis repeated tests of assimilation effects between anticipations of fairness and perceptions of fairness regarding the same event in a more controlled environment and in a situation of ambivalent information. For all three dimensions of fairness tested (distributive, procedural, and interactional), assimilation effects were found. More positive anticipations along each of these dimensions were related to more positive perceptions of fairness even after ambivalent information was received by participants.

A further – and not hypothesised – finding was that women were more likely to perceive procedural and distributive injustice at T2 and after the mixed motive situation than men. There are various possible explanations for this result. Firstly, the finding could be due to chance. Secondly, given that there is little concrete information given in this case, the result may reflect the persistent injustice effect (Davidson & Friedman, 1998). Typically women as a group are disadvantaged in the workplace when it comes to outcome distributions, and this experience is likely to impact their information processing. Negative information pieces in the ambivalent condition may have therefore been selected more prominently by women who – as a group - may have had more negative experiences with outcomes in performance evaluations. The persistent injustice effect as described in the literature (Davidson & Friedman, 1998) proposes that only the perception of unfair

behaviour towards members of one's own group fuels the reactions described by the effect. As the protagonist of the scenarios used in this study was male, a straightforward application of the PIE would not help to explain this result. (In the original manipulation of distributive injustice, regarding the merger, much more concrete information was given, leaving less scope for the general persistent injustice effect). Thirdly, women may in general react more negatively than men to situations of ambivalence between justice and injustice and generally tend to pick out the more negative information. All these possibilities remain to be investigated.

Also, it remains to be investigated whether the effect holds for fairness originating from the source of the organisation (distributive and procedural justice were operationalised this way), or whether the effect holds specifically for these types of justice, independent of their source.

Given the limited availability of respondents and the time pressures for this supplemental analysis, only a number of effects (in particular, assimilation effects) could be investigated in this scenario study. Similarly, interactional and informational justice dimensions were grouped together as interactional justice. Future research is needed to investigate all four dimensions separately, and also to investigate contrast and assimilation effects in the same study in order to gain further insights into antecedents of these effects. Also, future research may consider different varieties of informational setting (e.g. information from different, contradicting sources, different degrees of non-confirmative information etc.).

Importantly, in order to gain clearer insights, future studies should try to find operationalizations of the four dimensions of justice that are not linked to different sources. In my investigation, the combinations of source (organisation vs. supervisor) and types (procedural, distributive vs. interactional) may have lead to confounding effects.

The result of a scenario study need to be verified in real organisational settings before findings can be generalised to field settings. A problem with thought experiments such as the scenarios employed here is that they do not necessarily capture all relevant dynamics that exist when people are actually exposed to such situations. Attitude strength may be low, which may lead to low predictability of behaviours (Kraus, 1995).

Overall, this study has provided an additional step towards increasing our understanding of fairness issues over time. Evidence was found for the existence of assimilation effects across different experiences within the same employment relationship, and it was found that in situations of ambiguous information, previous experiences are a

likely antecedent of anticipations of fairness. Also, assimilation effects between anticipations and fairness and perceptions of fairness were found, for situations of ambivalent information.

9 Discussion and Conclusions

9.1 Study Recap and Chapter Preview

The principal objective of this study is to investigate the link between how employees experience organisational change, and how this relates to their reactions to this change, through the framework of organisational justice. This study differentiates between four dimensions of organisational justice, namely distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, and takes into account both anticipated and perceived fairness. Drawing on a review of extant contributions addressing organisational justice in change contexts, I formulated a research model outlining justice dynamics during planned organisational change (see Figure 4-1 Temporal research model). Specifically, the model depicted the role of anticipated and concurrent justice perceptions at different stages of planned change in organisations Within this research model, a number of questions and hypotheses to guide my empirical investigation have been developed (see Chapter Four). The hypotheses concern the relationships between anticipated and perceived fairness of change along the four dimensions of organisational justice and the intentions to resist or support the change, at different phases of planned change (discovery and aftermath stages).

The longitudinal survey data that I collected to test the hypotheses indicated partial support for the proposed hypotheses. In particular, it was found that all four dimensions of organisational justice anticipations had an impact on behavioural intentions to resist and support change in the discovery stage of organisational change. In the literature only tests of the impact of anticipations of distributive injustice have been reported. In the aftermath stage of change, only distributive justice perceptions were significantly related to behavioural intentions to support or resist the change. The favourability of expected or experienced change outcomes was a strong predictor for reactions at both points in time. Over time, individual intentions to support or resist change showed considerable stability.

The effects on fairness judgments over time were more complex. Fairness anticipations were positively related to later fairness perceptions for most individuals, which has been explained as an assimilation effect (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). However, for a smaller group of individuals, fairness anticipations were negatively related to their fairness perceptions at later stages, a phenomenon explained here as a the so-called contrast effect (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987).

I conducted 61 semi-structured interviews to allow a more in-depth investigation of the phenomena studied by gaining richer insights into participants' experience of change. I employed content analysis to study participants' accounts of various reactions to change initiatives. From this analysis a number of different patterns emerged for the behavioural and attitudinal reactions described.

A large number of issues described could be identified as pertaining to one of the four dimensions of organisational justice concerns. The interview analyses also identified a number of important issues and sense making activities that would not typically be captured in an organisational justice framework, including organisational concerns, powerlessness, and non-fairness related outcome concerns. In particular, past experiences, vicarious experiences, and expectations were found to be important aspects of individuals' sense making. As a straightforward interpretation of the justice literature would predict, the description of positive issues regarding distributions, procedures, interpersonal treatment, and information were mostly related to positive reactions. However, different patterns were found for past experiences, which sometimes served as contrast. Sometimes negative experiences along one dimension (e.g., outcomes) were outweighed by positive experiences along another dimension (e.g., supervisor treatment). Further, power positions were identified as an important factor to explain in particular the reaction of passive support, or acceptance of change. Participants also mentioned organisational issues, related to work processes, organisational culture, and strategy, as reasons for their attitudes and reactions to change. This analysis went beyond the organisational justice framework, and various limitations of the organisational justice framework in explaining individual reactions to change were identified.

In an attempt to investigate the links between previous experiences, fairness anticipations, and fairness judgments over time in a more controlled environment, I conducted a supplemental scenario study. The scenario study, while not planned from the outset, was designed and conducted in response to findings and further questions arising from the other work I have reported in this thesis. Under the condition of ambiguous information, previous change experiences were positively related to anticipations regarding a new change project. This was true for both procedural and interactional justice. In a mixed-motive situation, under ambivalent information, anticipations of fairness were found to be positively related to consequent perceptions of fairness, for distributive, procedural and interactional justice. In both information conditions tested, assimilation effects were found both between previous experiences and anticipations and between anticipations and perceptions, respectively.

This chapter will discuss the findings presented in the previous three chapters in the light of the overall research model and research questions. Firstly, an overview of the combined contributions of the various methods employed in this study will be given. Secondly, the limitations of this study will be examined in the light of standards of research rigour identified in Chapter Five. And thirdly, implications of this study for theory, research and practice will be discussed.

9.2 Overview of Contributions

The main contributions of the combined study lie in two distinct yet related areas. The study makes contributions directly related to the question of what makes employees resist or support organisational change. These contributions arise from the use of an organisational justice perspective. Beyond this, it also makes more general contributions (empirical and theoretical) regarding the implications of time for organisational justice. The most important of these contributions will be summarised in the following section, grouped into empirical and methodological, conceptual and theoretical contributions, and contributions of practitioner value.

9.2.1 Empirical and methodological

This study has made a number of empirical and methodological contributions resulting from its multi-method investigation. Firstly, a comprehensive four-dimensional justice framework controlling for outcome favourability allows for improved insights regarding the distinct contributions of each individual dimension as well as the interactions between dimensions, and between justice and outcome favourability (Colquitt et al., 2001). Particularly distributive justice and outcome favourability have often been confounded in past research, leading to inflated estimates of the impact of distributive justice, and to confounding of interaction effects.

Further, the survey methods typically employed in fairness research were complemented by qualitative methods to afford richer insights into participants' perspective. Much of the work on individual reactions to change and experience of change has relied on personal practitioner experiences and anecdotal cases (Bridges, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992), providing rich details about emotional and cognitive processes involved, but not allowing specific hypotheses to be tested. The majority of studies that investigate organisational justice in change contexts have relied on statistical/correlational analyses and have taken a managerialist view, not providing much detail about individual experiences (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003; Lowe & Vodanovich, 1995; Shapiro &

Kirkman, 1999). My combination of methods was chosen to enable insights into personal processes, and testing of hypotheses. The results from both survey and interview research were followed up with a scenario study investigating a particular link of interest in a more controlled setting.

Importantly, this is an investigation that examines justice perceptions longitudinally, expanding the existing body of knowledge that has almost exclusively relied on studies that investigated justice judgments regarding one-off decisions in cross-sectional designs. The relative impact of the dimensions on the criterion variables resistance and support was found to differ significantly between both measurements, stressing the importance of time as a factor for the role of organisational justice judgments. In the aftermath stage of change, distributive justice became clearly the most important dimension of fairness perceptions, in line with previous findings (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003).

This is one of the first empirical studies to investigate the impact of anticipations of procedural, interpersonal and informational justice anticipations. It extends previous findings on the impact of distributive justice anticipations (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). All four dimensions of anticipations of organisational justice have been found to be significantly related to behavioural intentions to support and resist change, both in the survey and in the scenario design. This result provides support for the important role of anticipations of organisational justice in the beginning of organisational change. The central role of expectations for reactions to change has been further confirmed by the analysis of the interview data.

One antecedent of fairness anticipations that has been proposed by Shapiro and Kirkman (1999) are previous experiences. The interviews confirmed the important role of past experiences for sense making in a consequent change situation. In the scenario study, not directly related past experiences could be established as a significant antecedent of procedural and interactional fairness anticipations in the focal change situation.

In the interviews and in the longitudinal survey, past experiences and anticipations were found to fulfil two distinct roles. They served either as contrast to the later judgment of justice, distorting the judgment away from the original standard (contrast effect), or they reinforced a later judgment, aligning it with the previous standard (assimilation effect). Tentative evidence has been found for distortions towards both positive and negative judgments, for both contrast and assimilation effects. The positive contrast and positive assimilation effects have not been identified and described in the

extant literature on organisational justice. In the scenario study, assimilation effects were found under conditions of information ambiguity and information ambivalence.

The content analyses conducted have afforded various additional insights. The creation of people's change experience and their reactions was not only affected by their own experiences in the focal change, but also by previous experiences, vicarious experiences, and expectations. While the dimensions of organisational justice appeared to be important factors in explaining people's reactions, other factors were found, namely outcomes not framed in fairness terms, power distributions, and organisational issues.

9.2.2 Theoretical and conceptual

The study made also a number of theoretical and conceptual contributions. This study confirms the framework of organisational justice to be a highly useful device for investigating the link between experiences of and reactions to organisational change. In the survey research and in the interviews, fairness perceptions and anticipations were found to be related to participants' reactions to change. Evidence for the explanatory value of organisational justice for individual level change dynamics was thus found. Yet a number of potential additional factors to complement the justice perspective were identified. In particular the qualitative data allowed insights into the usefulness and limitations of the justice framework as a tool to explain the link between experiences of change and reactions to change. While many or even most of the concerns voiced by participants can be accounted for within an organisational justice perspective, a number of potentially important factors for individual reactions to change outside of the fairness framework were identified. These were non-fairness related outcome concerns, organisational concerns, and issues of powerlessness. Organisational issues were the second most frequent category of issues mentioned by interview participants. These included issues related to organisational culture, to work processes, and to strategy. Importantly, these types of concerns would not be captured by typical justice measures. The perceived lack of power that some participants described in the interviews helped to explain a number of reactions that could not be explained by using the common justice framework. In particular, individuals who felt powerlessness were inclined to accept change even if they perceived various negative elements of outcomes and/or fairness. The framework of organisational justice may thus be usefully complemented by additional factors in order to better explain individual reactions to change. Such additional factors may usefully draw, among others, on sociological perspectives on power or on behavioural perspectives on compliance, to name but a few possibilities.

The quantitative investigations delivered further support for the role of non-fairness related outcome concerns, which were one of the strongest predictors of change reactions in the survey investigation. Past research may have reported inflated coefficients for organisational justice when not controlling for the favourability of outcomes. The prudent control for outcome favourability and the degree to which participants feel affected by outcomes reduces the measured effect of organisational justice significantly, but leads to improved clarity regarding the underlying processes.

My quantitative investigation could only find support for few interaction effects. In the discovery stage, anticipatory interpersonal justice and outcome favourability jointly influenced intentions to support change, and in the aftermath stage, the degree to which participants felt affected by change and procedural justice had an interactive effect on both intentions to support and resist change. As discussed in Chapters 5 and 6, I had very little statistical power to detect interaction effects using multivariate analyses. However, the content analysis gave further indication for interaction effects, showing that negative outcomes did not necessarily result in negative reactions. The supervisor's behaviour and treatment in some cases appeared to mitigate the effect of negative outcomes. Supervisors have a central role in determining reactions to change (Saunders et al., 2002; Searle & Ball, 2004). Organisational justice theory may need to integrate outcome favourability explicitly in its explanations, and reflect the evidence for interaction effects in order to better predict reactions.

For organisational justice theory, the finding that anticipations of fairness matters even before organisational change has begun, has important implications. Organisational justice researchers should start to integrate anticipations into process models of justice, and future research is needed to gain knowledge on how these anticipations are formed. Previous experiences (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999) as an antecedent received support in my interview and scenario analyses. Process theories may gain in accuracy and predictive power by integrating previous experiences, anticipations, and consequent fairness judgments and determine moderators and boundary conditions for the relationship between these.

Following my review of the literature, I integrated various previous findings on the role of previous experiences and processes over time through the conceptualisation of contrast and assimilation effects. The creation of fairness perceptions over time has not been comprehensive discussed in the justice literature. A small number of initial contributions are relevant for this topic. They indicate that past experiences have an impact

on judgments of present focal situations ((Davidson & Friedman, 1998), and that both assimilation (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999) and contrast effects (Brockner et al., 1994) were found or suggested to influence perceptions of organisational justice. My investigation provides evidence for the existence of both negative and positive assimilation and contrast effects.

My scenario study provides a step towards establishing boundary conditions for these effects. Under conditions of information ambiguity and information ambivalence, assimilation effects appear to be more likely than contrast effects. The effect was stronger for interpersonal than for procedural justice. Further investigations may enable the development of a more comprehensive theory of organisational justice over time, specifying which type of previous experiences affects which dimensions of fairness, and under which conditions these effects will lead to either positive or negative future perceptions of fairness.

The findings of this study also reflect on various models linking types of outcomes to dimensions of organisational justice. I measured behavioural intentions to support and resist change repeatedly in my survey. The relative importance of the four dimensions of organisational justice as predictor variables for these dependent variables varied strongly between both points of measurement. In the discovery stage of change, all four dimensions of fairness anticipations were found to be significant predictors of both intentions to support and resist change, yet with different relative impact. For the data collected in the aftermath stage of change (T2) only distributive justice was found to be a significant predictor of behavioural intentions to support and resist change. The T1 data may be seen as providing initial support for the agent-system model, if one interprets the data to indicate support as directed mainly towards the supervisor and resistance towards the organisation. The data at T2 seems to support Leventhal's (1980) distributive dominance model, according to which distributive justice is generally more salient and likely to be more influential in determining overall fairness judgments. Overall, the survey data analysis provided no support for interaction models that suggest that different dimensions of fairness interact in their impact on outcomes. As mentioned above, some evidence in both survey and interview data indicates interactions between outcome positivity and the degree to which individuals feel affected by change, and dimensions of organisational justice. The limited power of the interaction tests conducted in this research and controls for the impact of outcome favourability must be considered in this context. Future research utilizing larger sample sizes may provide further insights into the various possible interaction effects.

The timing of measurement appears to be a potentially crucial factor for investigations of the role of organisational justice in organisational change. The timing of measurement may help to explain when different fairness dimensions have differential impact on reactions to change. While this research validates the integrating of time as a crucial variable on organisational justice research, further empirical evidence that distinguishes different stages in organisational change is needed to predict the relative impact of the four dimensions across time. This study indicates that the role of outcomes may increase in the later stages of change. This finding corresponds to previous findings which suggest that procedural aspects were a stronger predictor earlier, and distributive aspects were a stronger predictor at later points in time (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). Ambrose and Cropanzano draw on the processes of information acquisition and direct experience to explain this finding. Theories of organisational justice may specify information acquisition as boundary condition. Direct experience is another important factor. Typically, change participants experience outcomes only at the later stages of change, while they get to know procedures earlier on. Often individuals go through a process before they receive their outcome, thus they often have experience with an outcome only after the experience with the process. Including the factors of time, information, and experience may lead to an integration of the various models predicting differential impact of justice dimensions, and may reconcile different findings.

In the light of content theories of organisational justice, the strong outcome focus found in the aftermath stage of change combined with the lack of impact of procedural, interpersonal and informational justice dimensions, delivers support for the instrumental model of organisational justice (Tyler, 1987), which holds that people are mainly interested in fairness as a way to secure positive or stable long-term outcomes. The initial impact of other fairness dimensions disappeared in this study, once the outcomes were experienced. However, no generalisations can be made from this study alone, particularly as only a very specific type of reaction has been investigated. Other types of reactions (in particular attitudinal reactions) and different organisational settings should be included in future studies.

9.2.3 Practitioner Value

This study also provides insight of value to practitioners. Firstly, it indicates that the organisational justice framework can serve as a guiding framework for organisational change management. Most of the reasons for reactions to organisational change voiced by interview participants were part of the categories outcomes, procedures, and interpersonal

and informational issues. In the survey conducted, all four dimensions were predictors of reactions at the discovery stage of change, and distributive justice was a significant predictor of reactions at the aftermath stage of change. Overall, attending to employees' fairness perceptions is likely to help secure employee support and prevent employees' resistance to change.

When exploring the difference between behaviours and cognitive/emotional reactions to change, it was found that behaviours were more often driven by interpersonal and outcome issues than attitudinal reactions. Future research investigating both behavioural and attitudinal reactions is needed in order to investigate whether attitudes and behaviours underlie different justice dynamics. Interpersonal and outcome issues also were more likely to cause active as opposed to passive behaviours. Interpersonal and outcome issues may thus be particularly important drivers for behavioural reactions. Knowledge about drivers of such active behavioural reactions of change are of particular interest for change practitioners, who are ultimately interested in gaining the active support and preventing the resistance of their change participants.

Equally, differences found between the mechanisms underlying the intentions to support change vs. the intentions to resist change in the beginning of change are of interest for practitioners. In the survey conducted, anticipatory procedural justice had the strongest standardised beta coefficient, and for support, anticipatory interpersonal justice was the strongest predictor in the discovery stage of change. The managerial and organisational conditions to avoid resistance to change may not be equal the conditions to create support for change, and the role of the manager or supervisor may be a particularly salient one for the creation of support.

When comparing patterns over time, distributive fairness appeared to be a more important driver of reactions in later stages of change. In an effort to prioritise managerial resources, more time for the creation of interpersonal, informational and procedural fairness perceptions may be necessary at the early stages of change. As change progresses, more time may be spent to explain and justify the distribution or fairness of outcomes. Where possible, positive outcomes should be created, not only because these are typically perceived as more fair, but also because the positivity of outcomes itself appears to be an important driver of reactions.

An important finding in the context of the impact of outcome favourability is the difference found between experienced and expected outcome issues in the interview data. While for all other categories of issues, experiences were mentioned more frequently than expectations, this relation is reversed for negative outcomes. In Chapter 7 I discuss that

negative outcome expectations may indicate a defensive motive on the side of participants, and have important implications for the management of change. The management of outcome expectations may need particular attention. In fact, the management of expectations may be insufficient, and positive outcomes may actually need to be experienced early on in organisational change (Kotter, 1995).

Another finding related to the issue of outcome favourability is the fact that in some cases, positive reactions recounted by interviewees took place in spite of negative outcome issues. These instances were either cases where a positive outcome compensated for a negative one in the view of the change participant (e.g., more interesting work compensates for longer hours), or where positive personal treatment through the supervisor or manager was reported, or where the respondent felt in a position of powerlessness. Thus, even in situations where negative change outcomes are unavoidable, negative reactions from change participants may still be avoided. Wherever possible, positive outcomes should be created to make up for negative outcomes. These positive outcomes may be intangible, and in order to create them it is important to find out change participants' preferences. Secondly, good relationships between managers and their direct reports may mitigate negative reactions to a certain degree. Both the selection and the training of managers should receive appropriate attention, and managers should be made aware of issues of personal sensitivity and receive guidance on how to keep their staff informed. The third implication, that powerlessness may prevent negative reactions, might be more problematic. Instances of powerlessness were not related to active support, but rather to "acceptance", or passive support of change. Thus, the full buy-in and support of employees was not gained through power mechanisms among participants in this study. Broader implications of this as well as ethical aspects will be discussed in section 9.4.3.

A further important aspect for practitioners is the role of past experience found in this research. When initiating a new change, the previous experiences of change participants are likely to shape their expectations and reactions regarding an impending change. The mechanisms of assimilation and contrast effects were discussed and investigated in this study. Findings of this study imply that after negative past experiences, strong disconfirming evidence will need to be given to employees in order to change negative anticipations or judgments. My research indicates that in situations of informational ambiguity or ambivalence, previous fairness judgments are likely to persist even across situations and across time. While previous positive change experiences are likely to produce positive anticipations of change, the potential for contrast effects should be born in mind by change managers. If previously treasured elements of fairness are taken

away from change participants, they may react even more negatively than they would react simply on the basis of negative experiences.

The finding that vicarious experiences were an important aspect of people's sense making in organisational change has important managerial implications for change management in organisations. Attention needs to be given to every single group or individual affected by the change, and very negative experiences of any one group or individual should be avoided or compensated wherever possible. Stories about any one individual or group can become an organisational narrative and serve as evidence and support for other individuals' judgments.

And finally, organisational issues, including concerns regarding culture, work processes and strategy, were the second most frequent category of issues mentioned by research participants. For many individuals it appears thus to be important not only how the change will affect themselves personally, but also how the change fits within and will affect the overall organisation. The organisational "fit" of the change, as perceived by employees, and benefits of the change were an important aspect in participants' accounts and may be an important driver of their reactions. This suggestion needs further verification in different settings and through different methodologies, but it appears sensible to suggest that as part of the management of change, the organisational perspective should be comprehensively and convincingly explained to change participants.

9.3 Limitations

In this section, the study will be discussed in the light or the standards of research rigour introduced in Chapter 5. In particular, issues of reliability, validity and trustworthiness as well as more general limitations of the research design will be examined.

9.3.1 Reliability threats

Reliability is assessed through the questions whether the measures will yield the same results when repeated on other occasions, whether another observer would reach similar observations, and whether there is transparency on how findings were extracted from the raw data (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002).

In this research project, a particular threat to reliability may be subject or participant error – people may undergo large mood swings during organisational change, and measuring participants views for example on the day of the performance appraisal may not be replicable on any other day of the year. In order to minimise subject error, I

discussed the spacing and timing of my surveys in detail with managers, and tried to allow for "cooling off periods" for example after the end-of-year review.

Another threat may be participant bias, which I tried to counteract through explaining confidentiality in person to participants, and through explaining that the research was not intended to look for either positive or negative views and that any view was valid and would be treated confidentially. However, interviewees have mentioned the tendency for response bias in their annual staff survey, for example: "*And at one stage a couple of them had a problem. You know, a pair of them in the branch, and it didn't come out. And I said afterwards you know, it would have come out if you would have been honest. You know, no-one is going to know who it is, and unless you're honest and tick....*"

I asked whether people were afraid of being identified, and this was confirmed.

"And when it came out it comes out with the manager sitting there, so I suppose you kind of shoot him, are you happy with your manager. And to say good response yes. Are you happy with your work environment? And we have a dreadful work environment. And it was ok."

I cannot exclude the possibility that some people may have felt similarly cautious about answering my questionnaires.

The use of single-item measures can also represent a threat to reliability. In this research, the positivity of the change outcome and the degree to which participants felt they were affected by the change outcomes were assessed by single item measures. The global measures were chosen mainly because different criteria for the favourability of outcome were not clear, especially at the first time of measurement (discovery stage). As discussed in Chapter 5, the use of single-item measures has been shown to be justified when the underlying constructs are homogeneous (Loo, 2001). The two constructs concerned above are not complex. The use of single-items bears the danger of increasing the likelihood of type one error , i.e., the probability to reject a valid hypothesis. The support found for the impact of outcome favourability is thus particularly strong. However, valid hypotheses regarding the interaction between outcome favourability and other dimensions may have been rejected.

9.3.2 Validity threats

The validity of psychological questionnaires refers to the degree to which they measure what they are supposed to measure (Cook & Campbell, 1979). In order to ensure high validity of the survey, I used justice and reactions-to-change measures that had previously been tested and validated, and that had been developed drawing on well accepted contributions in their respective fields (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Colquitt, 2001).

Some particular threats to the validity of this study might be history, mortality and maturation (for a discussion of threats to validity, see Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2003). History may play a role in this case, as employees in both organisations have undergone major changes previously, which may have an effect on the findings of my study. Previous experiences may have shaped people's views of and reactions to any consequent project. But if change is prevalent in most organisations, and particularly frequent in financial services organisations at this time, then the situation may be as typical as it will ever get. A history of past changes is likely to be present in most field studies of organisational change, as changes become the norm in organisations (Burke, 2002). The solution is thus to control for previous experiences rather than try to find a setting without history of change and justice experience. In my scenario research, I found that one way in which past experiences may impact reactions to change is through their role as an antecedent of anticipations. In my survey research, I statistically controlled for fairness anticipations and thus have -- to the degree that fairness anticipations reflect the impact of past change - accounted for previous experiences. However, past experiences may not only impact perceptions and reactions via anticipations, but may also impact the way in which anticipations are linked to later perceptions (and may for example make contrast vs. assimilation effects more or less likely). At present we know little about the antecedents of these effects, and I can therefore not estimate their impact on my results.

Equally, other changes happening simultaneously to the organisational changes investigated by the questionnaires may pose the threat of Maturation. Other events happening during the research period could have an impact on the behavioural intentions of employees. If employees become disenchanted with the overall organisation because of issues not related to the change under investigation, this general attitude may reflect on their reactions to the particular change studied. There have been systems changes in INSURANCE. A high top management turnover took place in BANK, and the overall change programme in BANK has been stalled. I cannot exclude the possibility that the more negative behavioural intentions found at the second point in time were influenced by such other change in both organisations, rather than to the change projects under investigation. However, the absolute level of fairness perceptions or the absolute level of support or resistance was not part of my hypotheses, and may not have affected the relationships tested between the variables involved.

Also, in both organisations a number of organisational members left and others joined, giving rise to the issue of mortality. Unfortunately, I have no data on mortality figures in Mutual. For INSURANCE, I know that 7 employees in the pilot group left and

were replaced during the time of the project under investigation. However, the matched sample of T1 participants who also responded to T2 did not differ significantly from the overall T1 participants in terms of relevant demographics (gender, age group and tenure).

The complementary scenario study provided a more controlled environment, excluding maturation and mortality issues. The impact of anticipations of justice onto perceptions of justice was confirmed in this more controlled environment. While the scenario study may improve internal validity, the problem with thought experiments is that they generally have lower external validity.

Some of the relationships found could be inflated by same source bias. Same source bias is unlikely to artificially create interaction effects (Schmitt, 1994), but only few of the effects found were interaction effects. The longitudinal design reduces the likelihood of common method bias accounting for detected relationships, and some of the results in the survey part of my research have been replicated in the scenario study or/and in the interview analyses. But especially for the cross-sectional hypotheses replication of the findings with experimental design would be necessary to firmly establish causality.

The relationships may have been influenced by the potential intervening variable of personality traits such as equity sensitivity or negative affectivity. The literature suggests that personality traits may not only affect fairness perceptions directly but may also moderate between fairness perceptions and reactions, and can be direct determinants of reactions to justice perceptions (see Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). As I have no data on the personality traits of participants and the overall population, I cannot determine whether personality traits in my sample were of a special make-up and affected the findings in systematic ways.

9.3.3 Limited generalizability/external validity

Due to the specific nature of the settings and the relatively small population sizes for this research, caution is also appropriate in estimating the external validity or generalizability of the findings. The demographic characteristics and personality traits of people working in financial services in Dublin are unlikely to be representative for Ireland as a whole or even broader populations. However, most justice findings have shown a strong transferability across populations within a culture and between similar cultures (Greenberg, 2001b). Yet cultural differences in preferences for performance appraisal styles have been found (McFarlin & Sweeney, 2001). The degree of collectivism vs. individualism as well as the degree of formality was found to impact the preferred evaluation style in different cultures – more feminine cultures tended to have informal

performance evaluations, masculine cultures formal procedures. In low power-distance cultures, a high degree of input was given, while high power distance cultures may be more comfortable with an autocratic evaluation. Some cultures prefer explicit feedback, others only very subtle, nonverbal feedback. Thus the procedures and types of interaction perceived as fair in performance evaluations may depend on the cultural context.

Further, I have no information on the personality type composition of my respondents in either the field or the scenario study and cannot determine whether my respondents were biased or representative of larger populations in this respect.

The robustness or general applicability of the findings would need to be tested in further studies. Like virtually all non-experimental field investigations, this study can only claim to provide insights into this particular research setting. Similarly, the findings of the scenario study that were not tested in the field before (regarding previous experiences) may not hold in real-life situations and remain to be replicated in organisational settings.

9.3.4 Discussion of Trustworthiness and Reflexivity

Qualitative research has developed a distinct set of criteria of research rigour. A central criterion is trustworthiness (Merrick, 1998). Various good practices have been proposed to increase the trustworthiness of qualitative research, e.g., disclosure of the researchers' orientation, prolonged engagement with the material, persistent observation, triangulation, and the discussion of findings and process with others (Stiles, 1993). Stiles also proposes that the researchers ground their interpretations through giving detailed examples of the data to support abstractions. Qualitative researchers may also give a detailed description of the contexts and internal processes during investigation, as they have shaped the study. While I have made efforts to disclose my orientation, to give rich descriptions and examples, to discuss my approach and findings with others, and to triangulate qualitative and quantitative data (as recommended by Todd, 1978), for practical reasons I was not able to be present in the two research settings for extended periods of time. This could probably have further increased the trustworthy of my findings. In this multi-method study, I had multiple research foci and had to prioritise my time. More time with research participants and at the research site could however have improved my insights into the subjective reality of the study participants.

A second criterion of qualitative research is reflexivity, which is due to the central role of the researcher in the knowledge construction of qualitative research. Self-reflection is therefore an attempt to make this role explicit. "Commitment to reflexivity suggests that the research topic, design, and process, together with the personal experience

of doing the research, are reflected on and critically evaluated throughout" (Merrick, 1998, P 31). This includes self-reflections, reflection of the process, and disciplinary reflection. I have for example attempted to describe the processes through which I arrived at my coding schemes for the content analyses. Being a mixed-method study, this criterion might have suffered due to space limitations, just as I had to limit my detailed descriptions of the research settings. I might have reflected in more depth on the process of coding itself.

Merrick adds representation as a third criterion, "representation", as presentation of the study and its findings is an integral and important part of qualitative research. Some even suggest that representation may constitute the findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The difficulty is finding the balance between capturing the voice of informants, but also to "elucidate the experience that is implicated by the subjects in the context of their activities as they perform them, and as they are understood" (Altheide & Johnson, 1994, P 491). However, much confusion exists at this stage about how to deal with the problems that representation poses, and new forms of writing and presenting may yet need to be developed (Merrick, 1998). As for the other two criteria, a major shortcoming of the qualitative part of my study may be due to the multiple foci taken. Limited space was available to capture the voice of informants within this study. I needed to find ways to integrate the different elements of study of the one phenomenon into the report of findings. Ultimately I chose a compromise between this motive and the benefits of providing a more comprehensive investigation using multiple perspectives represented by the different methodologies employed.

9.3.5 General limitations of the research design

There are also some more general limitations due to the design of my study. Firstly, my ability to describe change processes over time has been limited by a two-wave design, which does not afford any insights into individual change trajectories (Singer & Willett, 2003). In order to properly describe the process of change, at least three waves are needed. A two-wave design cannot indicate the shape of the individual growth trajectory, and secondly it cannot distinguish true change from measurement error. Thus, while my research has been a first step in identifying relevant differences in the studied phenomena over time, this study of the role of justice perceptions in organisational change will need to be complemented through studies using different research designs in the future.

Secondly, various limitations in my operationalization of organisational justice limit the insights from this study. The operationalization of interpersonal and informational justice originated from participants' managers, while procedural and distributive justice

originated from the organisation. This leads to a confounding of types of fairness and sources of fairness. My findings may need to be replicated in a design measuring all four types of justice originating from the same source to find out which effects are due to the source and which effects are due to the types of justice.

A further limitation of my organisational justice operationalization arises in the scenario study. I combined interpersonal and informational justice into one dimension in order to avoid a factorial design too large for the available sample size I could expect to get. Through this design choice I have limited the insights from this study as regards distinguishing the effects of interpersonal justice and informational justice, respectively. Future research is needed to address this matter.

A more fundamental problem of operationalization of organisational justice in situations of change has been discussed in Chapter 5. For many organisational changes, procedures are both an element of fairness during the change, but are also an outcome of the change. Carefully contextualised operationalizations of organisational justice may help to minimise this problem, but cannot remedy it fully. Changed interactions (through the new coaching approach) and changed procedures (for the new performance appraisal system) were among the intended outcomes of the changes under investigation. This renders the distinction between the fairness of outcomes (distributive justice) and interactional and procedural dimensions of justice problematic. While the factor analyses for the organisational justice measure have confirmed that participants did differentiate between the four dimensions of organisational justice, the problem of confounding may still exist to various degrees amongst participants, and may have influenced the internal and external validity of the results.

Thirdly, there are limitations resulting from my choice of outcome variables. My operationalization of resistance to change relied on self-report measures of the intention to resist change, and addresses only some of the potential types of resistance. Burke (2002), for example describes blind resistance as intolerance of absolutely any kind of change, and the framework of organisational justice may not be useful in explaining this type. Drazin and Joyce (1979) distinguish between oppositional, inactive and misdirected resistance. Oppositional resistance is the purposeful desire to resist, and it is this dimension that has been the main focus of this study. Inactive resistance has no intent, it is the failure to recognize or act upon the change. This type of resistance cannot generally be detected by self-report measures, and it is unlikely to be related to fairness perceptions. Finally, misdirected resistance may have underlying positive intentions, but other factors make the action in fact a resistance, e.g., misclassification or misinterpretation. Again, this type

cannot be detected through self-report measures of intentions to resist. However, practitioners may be interested in all types of resistance, as all types can prevent successful change.

Another limitation of my choice of outcome variable is the fact that I measured behavioural intentions instead of actual behaviours. Practitioners may be most interested in behaviours, and behavioural intentions cannot perfectly predict actual behaviours. Further variables may also be predictors of behaviours, for example past behaviours, emotions and cognitions, obstacles to behaviours, and social norms (Chaiken & Stangor, 1987). Thus, future research may benefit from measuring actual behaviours (although this is exceedingly difficult using self-report instruments), or could include further variables impacting behaviour. The concept of volitional control includes situational and/or internal obstacles to performing the behaviour. The individual's perception of the obstacles to behaviours have been shown to have both direct effects on behaviour as well as mediated effects via behavioural intentions. In order to make better predictions of actual behaviours, future studies might include volitional control as an additional variable.

The design of my study, concentrating on behavioural intentions as outcome variable, does not allow any insights into different mechanisms for different types of reactions. For example, different interaction effects may hold for emotional, cognitive, or behavioural reactions. Paterson and Cary for example stress that emotional reactions to organisational justice remain under-researched (Paterson & Cary, 2002). Studies including different types of reactions will shed further light on the different processes involved in bringing about these reactions.

9.3.6 Concluding comments on limitations

In the previous sections, various limitations of this study have been pointed out. Different elements of my investigations suffer from these limitations to different degrees. In particular, I cannot claim general transferability of my findings. However, through the multi-method investigation I am confident to have gained useful insights into the research topic in the population study and in addition to have opened up some promising avenues for future research. The implications of my findings will be discussed in the following.

9.4 Implications for Theory, future research, and organisational practice resulting from this multi-method study

Having summarised the main contributions and limitations of this study, I will now discuss its implications for justice and change theory, for future research, and for organisational practice.

9.4.1 Implications for Theory

This study has implications for both the fields of organisational justice and organisational change, and in the following I will concentrate on a few implications that I consider to be particularly important ones.

The field of organisational justice can benefit substantially from integrating the dynamics of social settings and aspects of time. This will require both theory development as well as targeted empirical research. The role of time for dynamics of organisational justice has been exemplified in my study through the effects of previous experiences and of anticipations of justice, and the differential role that fairness dimensions play at various points in time during organisational change. Employment relationships are not just the simple aggregate of individual interactions. Organisational members actively make connections between different events and experiences. Justice perceptions at any one time are related both to past experiences and present circumstances. According to Shapiro and Kirkman (2001), the accelerating speed of organisational change increases the likelihood of anticipatory activity, and heightens the importance of understanding the role of the anticipation of fairness. The same argument is true for assimilation and contrast effects over time in general. "If change is systematic, then any perspective on organizational justice that does not deal with change is inherently limited" (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001, P 266).

In particular, entitlements and psychological contracts may be useful concepts to help integrate effects over time into justice theory. Once people believe that they are entitled to a certain benefit or treatment in their psychological contract, they are likely to react negatively when their employer does not meet their expectations (Heath et al., 1993). The dynamic construct of psychological contracts has been employed to describe the perceptions of obligations and expectations of both parties in changed and changing employment relationships (Guest, 2004). Psychological contracts could bring a more dynamic perspective to fairness perceptions (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001).

One of the justice theories that may be well suited to integrate past experience is fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001) which examines three counterfactuals: "would", "could" and "should". Blame is only assigned for unjust behaviour if an unfavourable condition (event or non-event) has occurred ("would" it be better otherwise?), and the harm-doer has acted discretionary ("could" he or she have acted in a different way?), and the action violated an ethical principle ("should" he or she have acted differently?). Past experiences may shape the available counterfactuals would, should and could over time. Judgments of "should" may be influenced through the legitimacy created through past experiences (Brockner et al., 2001).

Also, taxonomies developed in research on schemata may be additions to describe and classify fairness dynamics over time. I draw on Bartunek's and Moch's research on schema change (1987), which distinguishes first order change (tacit reinforcement of present understandings), second order change (modification of present schemata in a particular direction), and third order change (becoming aware of present schemata, and able to change schemata as they fit). In the domain of fairness perceptions in change, we could imagine not only judgments of the changes according to fixed standards or fairness norms, but the change simultaneously bringing about a different way to assess what is fair, or a different definition of fairness altogether. Thus, measures of perceived fairness before and after the change may not actually indicate how much the change lived up to initial expectations for fairness, but may also be an expression of how the company successfully communicated a change in expectations, appropriate referents, psychological contracts etc. This issue is leading over to a second area of implications for justice theory, the necessity to integrate social processes and in particular power dynamics into theories of fairness.

This study has given indications for the central role of vicarious experiences for people's experience of and reactions to organisational change. The field of organisational justice has so far concentrated mainly on perceptions regarding one's own treatment. Most of the research on vicarious justice experiences has not been conducted in organisational settings (for example tests of the deontic theory of fairness (Folger, 2001), research on the just world hypothesis (Lerner, 1980), or research on the persistent injustice effect (Davidson & Friedman, 1998)). Yet also first contributions in organisational contexts indicate that the justice experiences and also the justice judgments of one's peers matter (Colquitt et al., 2002; Lamertz, 2002).

Power dynamics have received very little attention in organisational justice research. One exception is research on ideological discourse by Watson (2003). Watson finds that leaders use numerous strategies to shape employees' perceptions of fairness in the best of managerial interests. To the present it has not been investigated how successful these strategies actually are, but we know that "[r]esearch on perceptions of fairness is complicated by the ways in which powerful alliances (e.g., change agents) control and disseminate ideas, norms and values – ideology – that encourage others to understand and interpret changes through management's preferred cognitive frame of reference." (Watson, 2003: P:155). The categorisation of power mechanisms by Lukes (2005) may be a useful tool for the development of organisational justice theory. This taxonomy of power mechanism recognises that power does not only exert direct and visible influence, but may work in more subtle ways that people may generally not be aware of. Fairness perceptions may not only be influenced by responding to commonly agreed on criteria and antecedents of fairness, but also by shaping employees' understanding of what is fair and the way they conceptualise fairness. This research has shown examples of how power differentials may prevent individuals from reacting negatively to outcomes, procedures, and treatment they perceive as unfair. In this research, subtle forms of power that shape fairness perceptions have not been investigated. Future research may address these mechanisms to gain a fuller picture of fairness in organisations.

This study also has implications for the field of organisational change. The organisational justice framework is a powerful means of structuring the analysis of the link between change experiences and reactions to change and promises more comprehensive insights into the often neglected individual level dynamics of organisational change. In particular, a further integration of the two fields could help explain the individual reactions to change at various stages of the change process and to gain insights into how individuals can be helped to best cope with change.

This research found support for the usefulness of the organisational justice framework as a means to explaining reactions to changes. My analyses suggest that the organisational justice perspective may be complemented by additional elements and processes, e.g., outcome favourability, organisational issues, power distributions, in order to even better predict reactions to change.

In particular, the integration of justice and change theory could build on previous conceptual work, proposing fairness concerns at various stages in models of organisational change management (Cobb et al., 1995; Novelli et al., 1995). Previous conceptual contributions would need to be verified through further research on the various stages of

organisational change and the differential role of various aspects of fairness at these stages. Also, more dynamic fairness conceptions and a richer knowledge of boundary conditions, in particular information conditions, will make the organisational justice perspective even more accessible for the field of organisational change, and help to complement it through a new focus on the individual change participant's perspective.

9.4.2 Implications for future research

This study has various implications for future research, in particular regarding the design of future studies and the investigation of mechanisms over time. These will be laid out in the following.

Firstly, my study supports previous calls for careful operationalizations differentiating between the four dimensions of organisational justice (Colquitt, 2001). Differential factor loadings and impact of the four dimensions propose that more clarity on processes of organisational justice can be gained through measuring the four dimensions separately. Also, the study stresses the necessity to control for the positivity of outcomes in order to avoid inflated measures of distributive justice. This has not been common practice in past research.

A shortcoming of my study has been the operationalisation of the four dimensions, in that the source of procedural and distributive justice was the organisation, and the source of interpersonal and informational justice was the supervisor or manager. For a number of the effects found in this research, it was thus unclear whether they were specific to the source or the type of justice (this regards in particular findings regarding the relative stability of judgments). Research operationalising the same types of justice for different sources simultaneously (e.g., respect and sensitivity both from the organisation and from the supervisor, in separate measures) can bring further clarity here. The results of my scenario study regarding assimilation effects over time will need to be replicated separating out all four dimensions of justice, and in more impactful and involving settings (both experiments and field).

Most importantly, this study proposes that fairness research over time promises new insights. Future investigations may in particular include more longitudinal studies, in order to capture the time dimension that is inherent in change (Goodman & Kurke, 1982). The relative impact of the four dimensions of justice will need to be investigated at various stages of organisational change. Research in this area may change our understanding of the differential roles of the justice dimensions on different outcomes. This research proposed that outcomes may have more impact further down the line, and information for example

has more relative impact in the beginning of change. Future research is needed to investigate this issue. Finding out about when which dimension of fairness impacts different types of reactions will enhance change theory, but will also be of profound value for managers and other change agents who have to prioritise the use of their resources and time at different stages of the change.

Future research with more than two data points is necessary to gain insights into when and how people revise their judgments of justice and to find out about trajectories of justice perceptions. In particular, we do not know under which circumstances contrast vs. assimilation effects hold, and what the contingency factors and moderators of the stability of fairness perceptions are. More controlled investigations (e.g., experiments or scenario studies) may be helpful in advancing knowledge in this area of mechanisms of contrast and assimilation effects of organisational fairness perceptions.

In the discussion of the interview data of this study I proposed that the foci of negative assimilation appear to be more often overall entities (the organisation, the manager), while the foci of positive contrasts were more often particular issues, traits or events. It remains to be investigated if this pattern holds in other settings. This initial finding underlines the importance for future justice research to distinguish clearly between event and entity appraisals.

An important area for future investigations are moderators of the stability of fairness judgements. Research on this topic should help to predict such stability better. The strength of justice attitudes may be one such moderator (Krosnick et al., 1993). In my scenario investigation, gender was also identified as a potential factor influencing the way judgments are made over time. In my study, women were more likely to perceive procedural and distributive injustice after the mixed motive situation than men. Research needs to investigate whether this finding may be due to persistent injustice effects, to chance, or to a systematically different reaction to mixed motive situations amongst females. Also, future research may consider different varieties of informational setting (e.g., information from different, contradicting sources, different degrees of non-confirmative information etc.).

It has also been found that social processes and power distributions are likely to exert an impact on fairness dynamics, an area which is under-researched. The mechanisms outlined in this study were issues of power recognised by the participants, but more subtle mechanisms may also be at work. Tools from sociological studies, such as socialization and structural approaches, may be an interesting route for future research, and also remedy the field's present lack of cross-fertilization from other disciplines.

Overall, this section has outlined a number of areas for future research, in particular linked to the connections of fairness with social systems and time. These dimensions may substantially benefit from more attention by organisational justice researchers in order to bring the field closer to experienced reality in organisations. Nevertheless, the four-dimensional framework of organisational justice (distributive, interpersonal, procedural, informational concerns) has proven a highly useful tool in describing and starting to explain a large number of reactions by participants.

9.4.3 Implications for organisational practice

This study has various implications for the management of individual-level dynamics in change contexts. Importantly, this study has confirmed the usefulness of the organisational justice perspective for our understanding of individual reactions to organisational change.

It has been argued that the frequent occurrence of change in organisations also heightens the importance of understanding any temporal, interactive or cumulative effects that may result from the implementation of changes in organisations. Change managers need to be aware of any long-term or cumulative effects their management of change may bring about, as well as being aware of the local "change history" and its potential impact when planning or implementing new changes. This insight has implications particularly for the initiation of new changes, and for the closure of changes.

As for the closure of changes, Kanter (1999) proposes that rewarding people at the end of change, and recognising their effort, is not only an important motivational tool to conclude the change cycle, but also to set the stage for new changes. This statement has been supported by this research, which supported the existence of spillover effects from one change to a later change. It may also be valuable to manage the entitlement creation during changes in a way that is sustainable for future changes. If employees are granted particular process features or outcomes that may not be sustained during subsequent change they may need to be communicated as one-off exceptions in order to avoid subsequent disappointment and the amplification of negative reactions that have been found for contrast effects.

For the initiation of new changes, managers need to be aware of the "change history" of their change participants. Negative anticipations regarding the fairness of change lead to increased resistance and decreased support. It may be necessary to create "readiness for change" before new changes are implemented, and change readiness management should take into account the management of the four dimensions of fairness

in order to improve initial reactions to the change. In this context it is important to be aware of the fact that in conditions of ambiguous or ambivalent information, previous judgments are unlikely to be revised. Anticipation may need to be disconfirmed in a way that cannot be ignored by organisational members.

However, also previous positive experiences with change need to be taken into account by managers initiating new changes. Positively perceived entitlements from past changes need to be recognised and honoured (or replaced with equally valued elements) in order to avoid negative contrast effects.

This research has also stressed the role of the expected and perceived favourability of outcomes at various stages of organisational change. Given the impact of outcome favourability onto reactions to change, it deserves particular management attention. Employees may be most likely to anticipate negative outcomes, and in order to counteract negative reactions resulting from such anticipations, positive outcomes may actually need to be experienced early on in organisational change in order to secure positive impressions of outcomes (Kotter, 1995; Weick, 1984). The success of the change initiative may be jeopardised by planning a positive reward or outcome for employees only at the end of change. Rather, small gains may need to be delivered early on. Creating visible gains may not be the only way to address this issue. A large number of outcome concerns of change participants is framed in temporal, social or hypothetical comparisons. The management of expectations and comparison standards may be equally important.

A further important aspect is the supervisor's behaviour and treatment in change. This treatment can prevent negative reactions that might otherwise result from negatively perceived outcomes. Creating perceptions of interpersonal and informational fairness can take up considerable time (Brockner et al., 2001). Most time to create perceptions of fairness (e.g., through providing opportunities for voice, personally and repeatedly explaining reasons, showing much personal consideration for involved employees) may need to be devoted to change projects where outcomes might be perceived negative, and where employees are strongly affected – however, both outcome negativity and impact of change are highly subjective and may need to be established first.

This study has not addressed the ethical aspects implied in change management. Decisions regarding fairness and negative outcomes need to take into account not only the immediate financial gains of the organisation or the success of a particular change initiative, but will have larger ethical implications. In particular the view that "procedural justice may provide a cost-effective way of implementing unpopular resource allocation decisions" (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996, P 205), and the finding of this study that

employees who feel powerless may refrain from resisting a change even if they feel unfairly treated could potentially be used in a Machiavellian way by practitioners in organisations. While ethical considerations should be taken into account for their own sake, it also needs to be cautioned that employees who accept change out of a position of powerlessness are likely to withhold active support, and are likely to change their behaviour as soon as they are in a position to do so. Also, the mitigating effects of one dimension onto another may not be sustainable over time, although this matter needs more empirical attention. In the long run, approaches to change management that use social accounts and other suggested remedies to perceived organisational injustice to manage the symptoms of such unfairness rather than the causes may lead to feelings of deception, sarcasm, and other, ultimately much more counterproductive reactions. However, on a more positive note, there may also be ethical gains to be expected from applying a fairness perspective to the management of organisational change. More positive fairness perceptions have been shown to have positive effects on employee stress and well-being (Greenberg, 2005; Zohar, 1995), and could counteract some of the negative effects that anxiety and stress in change situations may bring about for employees undergoing the changes (Cobb et al., 1995).

While many of the implications of the justice perspective for change management seem to be common sense and correspond to recommendations of extant management literature, what makes the justice perspective so useful is its comprehensiveness. Thinking and managing in terms of the different categories of fairness is accessible, likely to include a large variety of recommendations from different change literatures and corresponds largely to the perspective of change participants.

9.5 A final word.

This study has been concerned with investigating the link between individuals' experiences of and reactions to organisational change from an organisational justice perspective. My investigation was driven by my curiosity about the object of study. I combined different approaches and methods, in order to better understand the phenomenon of interest. While my investigation cannot claim to be comprehensive or directly generalizeable, it provides important insights on a number of issues directly related to the question of what makes employees resist or support organisational change. In addition, this study also identifies important questions and makes initial contributions regarding the role of temporal issues for the field of organisational justice.

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Declaration

This thesis has not been submitted as an exercise for a degree at this or any other University. It is entirely my own work

I agree that the Library of Trinity College Dublin may lend or produce single copies of this thesis for study purposes upon request.

Marion Fortin

Durham, 29th of October 2005.

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Marion Fortin

Durham, 29th of October 2005.

Appendices

I Instruments Contextualized for INSURANCE ii
Time 1 ii
Time 2 v
II Instruments Contextualized for BANK ix
Time 1 ix
Time 2 xii
III Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research xvii
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents for T1 . xvii
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents for T2 xviii
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents of both T1 AND T2 survey waves. xx
IV Ticklist I used for interview research xxii
V Scenario Study: Ambivalence Conditions xxiii
VI Contextualised instruments for scenario study xxvi
VII Demographics and correlations for scenario study xxx

I Instruments Contextualized for INSURANCE

All project names have been replaced by NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM, for anonymity reasons.

Time 1

"The new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process"

You have been informed about changes in the way your performance reviews are going to be conducted. The new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM integrates performance review and individual developmental planning.

Please indicate how much you expect to be affected by the change(s) described above. Please tick () one box.

None	A small amount	A moderate amount	A large amount	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate how satisfied you expect to be with the outcomes for yourself of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. Please tick () one box.

Not satisfied		neutral		Completely Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Attitudes towards/opinions about the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM

With regard to the introduction of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM, please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. Please ensure that you answer every question, not leaving any blank. If you are not completely sure please choose what you think is the most appropriate answer.

	To a small extent			**to a large extent**
As a result of being involved in the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process, you are expected to contribute certain things, and you expect to receive a number of different outcomes, such as different types of meetings and conversations with your supervisor, a personal development plan, etc.				
22 Do you expect your outcomes to reflect the effort you will have put into your work?	1	2	3	4 5

		To a small extent				to a large extent
23	Do you expect your outcomes to be appropriate for the work you will have completed?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Do you expect your outcomes to reflect what you will have contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Do you expect a justified outcome, given the performance you will achieve?	1	2	3	4	5

The outcomes of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process are influenced by and determined through various procedures. These include guidelines for regular formal and informal conversations, development planning, etc. To what degree …

26	Do you expect to be able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
27	Do you expect to have influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
28	Do you expect those procedures to be applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
29	Do you expect those procedures to be free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
30	Do you expect those procedures to be based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
31	Do you expect to be able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
32	Do you expect those procedures to uphold ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the person who will be conducting the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM reviews with you (your direct manager). Think of the new approach and any interactions that will arise out of this. In the context of the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM interactions, to what extent:

33	Do you expect your direct manager to treat you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
34	Do you expect your manager to treat you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
35	Do you expect your manager to treat you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
36	Do you expect your manager to refrain from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the person who will be conducting the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM reviews with you (your manager). Again think of all aspects of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. To what extent:

37	Do you expect your manager to be candid in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5

		To a small extent				to a large extent
38	Do you expect your manager to explain you the procedures determining relevant outcomes thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
39	Do you expect the explanations regarding the procedures to be reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
40	Do you expect your manager to communicate details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
41	Do you expect your manager to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Your reaction to the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM

Think about the introduction of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. Please read each item below and indicate *your intentions* regarding this change occurring in your organisation. Please tick ( ) one box for each statement.

Based on your expectations, do you intend to……..

		Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
42	Openly oppose the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Privately support the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	Secretly attempt to stall the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	Openly initiate the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	Stand back and observe the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	Ignore the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	Give in to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	Argue against the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	Secretly dismantle the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	Refrain from participating in the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
Agree to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Withdraw from the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Openly embrace the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Openly obstruct the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Co-operate with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Secretly undermine the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comply with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wait for change to happen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Accept the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avoid being a part of the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Time 2

"The new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process"

You will have experienced changes in the way your performance reviews are conducted. The new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM integrates performance review and individual developmental planning.

Please indicate how much you were affected by the change(s) related to the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. Please tick one box.

Not at all	A small amount	A moderate amount	A large amount	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate how satisfied you are with the outcomes of the changes related to the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. Please tick one box.

Not at all	A small amount	A moderate amount	A large amount	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

Attitudes towards/opinions about the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM

With regard to the introduction of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM, please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. Please ensure that you answer every question. If you are not completely sure please choose what you think is the most appropriate answer, but please do not leave any questions blank.

As a result of being involved in the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process, you are expected to contribute certain things, and you expect to receive a number of different outcomes , such as different types of meetings and conversations with your supervisor, a personal development plan, etc.

		to a small extent				to a large extent
22	Do your outcomes reflect the effort you have put into your work?	1	2	3	4	5
23	Are your outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Do your outcomes reflect what you have contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Is your outcome justified, given your performance?	1	2	3	4	5

The outcomes of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process are influenced by and determined through various procedures. These include guidelines for regular formal and informal conversations, development planning, etc. To what degree …

		to a small extent				to a large extent
26	Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
27	Have you had influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
28	Have those procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5

29	Have those procedures been free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
30	Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
31	Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
32	Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the person who will be conducting the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM reviews with you (your direct manager). Think of the new approach and any interactions that will arise out of this. In the context of the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM interactions, to what extent:

33	Has your manager treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
34	Has your manager treated you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
35	Has your manager treated you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
36	Has your manager refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the person who will be conducting the NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM reviews with you (your manager). Again think of all aspects of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. To what extent:

37	Has your manager been candid in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
38	Has your manager explained the procedures determining relevant outcomes thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
39	Were your manager explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
40	Has your manager communicated details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
41	Has your manager seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Your reaction to the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM

Think about the recent introduction of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM. Please read each item below and indicate *your intentions* regarding the resulting changes based on your experience with the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM process by ticking one box for each statement. Based on your experience, how do you intend to react to the continued implementation of the new NEW PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM now and in the future…

		Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
42	Openly oppose the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Privately support the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	Secretly attempt to stall the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	Openly initiate the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	Stand back and observe the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	Ignore the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	Give in to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	Argue against the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50	Secretly dismantle the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	Refrain from participating in the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	Agree to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53	Withdraw from the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	Openly embrace the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	Openly obstruct the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56	Co-operate with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	Secretly undermine the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	Comply with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
Wait for change to happen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Accept the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Avoid being a part of the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

II Instruments Contextualized for BANK

Time 1

"Coaching the BANK way"

The programme "Coaching the BANK way" teaches the skills and process to engage in meaningful performance management conversations with the purpose of supporting and encouraging people to realise their potential.

Please indicate how much you expect to be affected by the change(s) described above. Please tick () one box.

None	A small amount	A moderate amount	A large amount	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate how satisfied you expect to be with the outcomes of the "Coaching the BANK Way" programme. Please tick () one box.

Not satisfied		neutral		Completely Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5

Attitudes towards/opinions about the Coaching Project

With regard to the introduction of "Coaching the BANK way", please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. Please ensure that you answer every question, not leaving any blank. If you are not completely sure please choose what you think is the most appropriate answer.

		to a small extent				to a large extent
As a result of being involved in the change towards "coaching the BANK way", you are expected to contribute certain things, and you expect to receive a number of different outcomes , such as more openness in conversations, more accurate and frequent feedback on your performance, more guidance and support about your opportunities, increased power to enforce conversations. To what extent …						
22	Do you expect your outcomes to reflect the effort you will have put into your work?	1	2	3	4	5
23	Do you expect your outcomes to be appropriate for the work you will have completed?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Do you expect your outcomes to reflect what you will have contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Do you expect a justified outcome, given your performance?	1	2	3	4	5
The outcomes of the new coaching approach are influenced by and determined through various procedures. These include guidelines for regular formal and informal conversations, development and achievement plans documented on [name of the PA portal], [Key area in development plan]'s linked to organisation goals . To what degree …						
26	Do you expect to be able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
27	Do you expect to have influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
28	Do you expect those procedures to be applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
29	Do you expect those procedures to be free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
30	Do you expect those procedures to be based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
31	Do you expect to be able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
32	Do you expect those procedures to uphold ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5
The following items refer to the person who will be conducting the coaching sessions with you. Think of the new approach to coaching and conversations and any interactions that will arise out of this. In the context of the coaching interactions, to what extent:						
33	Do you expect your coach to treat you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
34	Do you expect your coach to treat you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
35	Do you expect your coach to treat you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5

		to a small extent				to a large extent
36	Do you expect your coach to refrain from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to your coach, again think of the new approach to coaching and communicating at BANK. To what extent:

37	Do you expect your coach to be candid in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
38	Do you expect your coach to explain you the procedures determining relevant outcomes thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
39	Do you expect the explanations regarding the procedures to be reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
40	Do you expect your coach to communicate details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
41	Do you expect your coach to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Your reaction to "Coaching the BANK Way"

Think about the introduction of coaching the BANK way. Please read each item below and indicate *your intentions* to the change occurring in your organisation. Please tick ( ) one box for each statement.

Do you intend to……..

		Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
42	Openly oppose the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Privately support the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	Secretly attempt to stall the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45	Openly initiate the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46	Stand back and observe the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47	Ignore the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	Give in to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49	Argue against the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
50	Secretly dismantle the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51	Refrain from participating in the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52	Agree to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53	Withdraw from the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	Openly embrace the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	Openly obstruct the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56	Co-operate with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57	Secretly undermine the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	Comply with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59	Wait for change to happen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60	Accept the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61	Avoid being a part of the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Time 2

"BANK Coaching Programme"

The BANK Coaching Programme was introduced with the purpose of supporting and encouraging people to realise their potential. At this stage all participants should have had coaching interactions with their respective managers. The way in which these coaching interactions happen can vary substantially – some are more formal and explicit, others are very informal and may not differ much from normal interactions between manager and employee. The regular performance review conversations can serve as an occasion for coaching. Please reflect on your specific experiences with your manager (= the person who conducts your formal performance appraisal), and answer the questions below accordingly.

Please indicate how much you were affected by the change(s) brought about by the "BANK Coaching Programme".

	Not at all	A small amount	A moderate amount	A large amount	A great deal
	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate how satisfied you are with the outcomes of these change.

	Not satisfied		neutral		Completely Satisfied
	1	2	3	4	5

Attitudes towards/opinions about the BANK Coaching Programme

With regard to the introduction of the "BANK Coaching Programme", please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. Please ensure that you answer every question, not leaving any blank. If you are not completely sure please indicate the answer that fits best.

		to a small extent				to a large extent
As a result of being involved in the change towards the "BANK Coaching Programme", you have been expected to participate in changed interactions which may have led to different outcomes such as more/less openness in conversations, more/less accurate and frequent feedback on your performance, more/less guidance and support about your opportunities, changes in frequency of conversations, etc. To what extent….						
22	Do your outcomes reflect the effort you have put into this initiative?	1	2	3	4	5
23	Are your outcomes appropriate for the input to the coaching initiative?	1	2	3	4	5
24	Do your outcomes reflect what you have contributed?	1	2	3	4	5
25	Is your outcome justified, given your contribution?	1	2	3	4	5
The outcomes of the BANK Coaching Programme were influenced by and determined through various procedures. These included guidelines for regular formal and informal conversations, development and achievement plans documented on [name of the PA portal], [Key area in development plan]'s linked to organisational goals. To what degree …						
26	Have you been able to express your views and feelings during those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
27	Have you had influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5

		to a small extent				to a large extent
28	Have those procedures been applied consistently?	1	2	3	4	5
29	Have those procedures been free of bias?	1	2	3	4	5
30	Have those procedures been based on accurate information?	1	2	3	4	5
31	Have you been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures?	1	2	3	4	5
32	Have those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to the person who has been conducting the coaching sessions with you (your manager). Think of the formal and informal conversations and any interactions that have arisen out of the new coaching approach. In the context of such coaching interactions, to what extent:

33	Has your coach treated you in a polite manner?	1	2	3	4	5
34	Has your coach treated you with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
35	Has your coach treated you with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
36	Has your coach refrained from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to your coach, again think of the approach to coaching and communicating that has been introduced. To what extent:

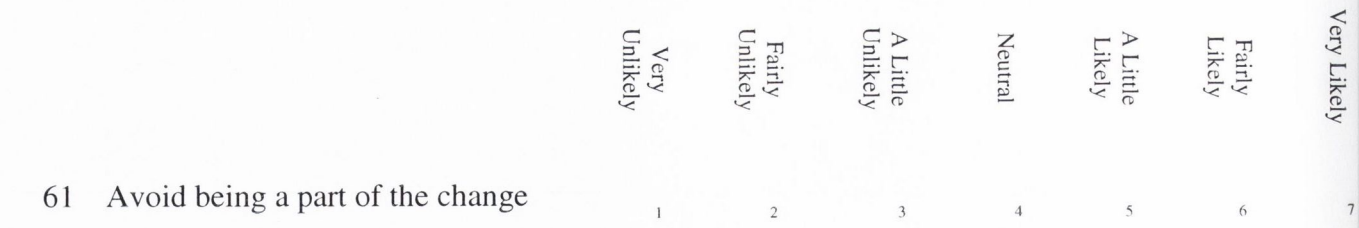
37	Has your coach been candid in his/her communications with you?	1	2	3	4	5
38	Has your coach explained the procedures determining relevant outcomes thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
39	Were your coach explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
40	Has your coach communicated details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
41	Has your coach seemed to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Your reaction to the BANK Coaching Programme

Think about the introduction and implementation of the BANK Coaching Programme. Please read each item below and indicate your intentions regarding the resulting changes that the Coaching initiative has brought about by ticking one box for each statement. Based on your experience, how do you intent to react to the continued

implementation and use of the BANK Coaching Programme now and in the future. Do you intent to …

	Very Unlikely	Fairly Unlikely	A Little Unlikely	Neutral	A Little Likely	Fairly Likely	Very Likely
Openly oppose the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Privately support the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Secretly attempt to stall the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Openly initiate the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stand back and observe the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ignore the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Give in to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Argue against the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Secretly dismantle the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Refrain from participating in the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Agree to the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Withdraw from the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Openly embrace the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Openly obstruct the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Co-operate with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Secretly undermine the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comply with the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wait for change to happen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Accept the change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



61 Avoid being a part of the change

III Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents for T1

Table 1:Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AC	148	1	5	3.006757	0.929462002
OP	148	1	5	3.432432	0.842430579
DJ	148	4	20	13.88514	3.89753742
PJ	148	7	35	23.28378	6.090072819
IPJ	148	11	20	18.22973	2.096627011
IFJ	148	10	25	19.83784	3.664601869
Support	148	6	42	15.85135	6.555223
Resist	148	12	56	24.59459	9.662212
Gender	148	1	2	1.493243	0.501651987
Tenure	148	1	5	2.040541	1.324177981
Age	148	1	9	3.310811	2.013057212
Valid N (listwise)	148				

Table 2:Correlations

		ACCent	OPCent	DJCent	PJCent	IPJCent	IFJCent	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age
ACCent	Correlation Coefficient	1	0.437749	0.287694	0.260115	0.092281	0.069176	-0.32482	-0.35102	-0.05373	0.191467	0.126879
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.000001	0.000392	0.001409	0.264634	0.403478	5.63E-05	1.22E-05	0.516639	0.019745	0.124373
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
OPCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.437749	1	0.44418	0.428082	0.169432	0.16833	-0.39407	-0.39457	-0.04147	0.096962	0.140741
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.000001	0.039527	0.040847	0.000001	0.000001	0.616769	0.241053	0.087977
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
DJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.287694	0.44418	1	0.640212	0.217838	0.395211	-0.37355	-0.42019	0.04102	0.048239	0.06343
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000392	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.007822	0.000001	2.92E-06	0.000001	0.620598	0.560418	0.443746
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
PJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.260115	0.428082	0.640212	1	0.397516	0.559675	-0.36933	-0.45164	0.042292	0.12241	0.109504
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001409	0.000001	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.000001	3.85E-06	0.000001	0.609793	0.138305	0.185217
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
IPJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.092281	0.169432	0.217838	0.397516	1	0.470465	-0.25081	-0.22688	0.072919	0.094606	-0.02355
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.264634	0.039527	0.007822	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.002108	0.005555	0.378452	0.25273	0.776326
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
IFJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.069176	0.16833	0.395211	0.559675	0.470465	1	-0.31409	-0.34628	0.114598	0.111954	0.125334
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.403478	0.040847	0.000001	0.000001	0.000001	.	0.000101	1.62E-05	0.165474	0.175514	0.12906
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
support	Correlation Coefficient	-0.32482	-0.39407	-0.37355	-0.36933	-0.25081	-0.31409	1	0.723438	-0.01997	-0.12204	-0.10069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	5.63E-05	0.000001	2.92E-06	3.85E-06	0.002108	0.000101	.	0.000001	0.809598	0.139507	0.223362
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
resist	Correlation Coefficient	-0.35102	-0.39457	-0.42019	-0.45164	-0.22688	-0.34628	0.723438	1	0.005858	-0.04339	-0.00626
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.22E-05	0.000001	0.000001	0.000001	0.005555	1.62E-05	0.000001	.	0.943664	0.600548	0.939763
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-0.05373	-0.04147	0.04102	0.042292	0.072919	0.114598	-0.01997	0.005858	1	0.016899	-0.03316
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.516639	0.616769	0.620598	0.609793	0.378452	0.165474	0.809598	0.943664	.	0.838464	0.689122
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Tenure	Correlation Coefficient	0.191467	0.096962	0.048239	0.12241	0.094606	0.111954	-0.12204	-0.04339	0.016899	1	0.683707
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.019745	0.241053	0.560418	0.138305	0.25273	0.175514	0.139507	0.600548	0.838464	.	0.000001
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Age	Correlation Coefficient	0.126879	0.140741	0.06343	0.109504	-0.02355	0.125334	-0.10069	-0.00626	-0.03316	0.683707	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.124373	0.087977	0.443746	0.185217	0.776326	0.12906	0.223362	0.939763	0.689122	0.000001	.
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

		ACCent	OPCent	DJCent	PJCent	IPJCent	IFJCent	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age
ACCent	Pearson Correlation	1	0.47408	0.315694	0.32294	0.114396	0.152112	-0.33702	-0.36404	-0.05097	0.165592	0.137029
	Sig. (2-tailed)		1.16E-09	9.29E-05	6.25E-05	0.166226	0.064952	2.81E-05	5.41E-06	0.538445	0.04429	0.096767
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
OPCent	Pearson Correlation	0.4740799	1	0.40681	0.406851	0.108986	0.227799	-0.44037	-0.44633	-0.02523	0.075651	0.13682
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.155E-09		2.89E-07	2.88E-07	0.187314	0.005361	2.13E-08	1.3E-08	0.760807	0.360802	0.09728
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
DJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.3156944	0.40681	1	0.625875	0.21137	0.391145	-0.34361	-0.39667	0.060488	0.053632	0.046199
	Sig. (2-tailed)	9.289E-05	2.89E-07		1.81E-17	0.009914	8.86E-07	1.91E-05	6E-07	0.465209	0.517375	0.577141
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
PJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.3229404	0.406851	0.625875	1	0.396035	0.544033	-0.34247	-0.45549	0.071886	0.096416	0.080983
	Sig. (2-tailed)	6.248E-05	2.88E-07	1.81E-17		6.28E-07	8.93E-13	2.04E-05	6E-09	0.385266	0.243725	0.327847
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
IPJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.1143957	0.108986	0.21137	0.396035	1	0.482992	-0.2821	-0.27745	0.059696	0.126487	-0.03476
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.1662257	0.187314	0.009914	6.28E-07		5.06E-10	0.000513	0.00064	0.47108	0.125548	0.674894
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
IFJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.152112	0.227799	0.391145	0.544033	0.482992	1	-0.31478	-0.34539	0.08821	0.130337	0.098171
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.0649522	0.005361	8.86E-07	8.93E-13	5.06E-10		9.76E-05	1.71E-05	0.286375	0.114356	0.235209
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
support	Pearson Correlation	-0.337021	-0.44037	-0.34361	-0.34247	-0.2821	-0.31478	1	0.75323	-0.02099	-0.14664	-0.12638
	Sig. (2-tailed)	2.808E-05	2.13E-08	1.91E-05	2.04E-05	0.000513	9.76E-05		2.38E-28	0.800061	0.075337	0.125859
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
resist	Pearson Correlation	-0.364044	-0.44633	-0.39667	-0.45549	-0.27745	-0.34539	0.75323	1	0.013466	-0.09654	-0.01236
	Sig. (2-tailed)	5.408E-06	1.3E-08	6E-07	6E-09	0.00064	1.71E-05	2.38E-28		0.870962	0.243128	0.88144
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Gender	Pearson Correlation	-0.050966	-0.02523	0.060488	0.071886	0.059696	0.08821	-0.02099	0.013466	1	0.010656	-0.04506
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.5384449	0.760807	0.465209	0.385266	0.47108	0.286375	0.800061	0.870962		0.897722	0.586569
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Tenure	Pearson Correlation	0.1655917	0.075651	0.053632	0.096416	0.126487	0.130337	-0.14664	-0.09654	0.010656	1	0.720008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.0442899	0.360802	0.517375	0.243725	0.125548	0.114356	0.075337	0.243128	0.897722		6.23E-25
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148
Age	Pearson Correlation	0.1370288	0.13682	0.046199	0.080983	-0.03476	0.098171	-0.12638	-0.01236	-0.04506	0.720008	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.0967666	0.09728	0.577141	0.327847	0.674894	0.235209	0.125859	0.88144	0.586569	6.23E-25	
	N	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	148

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents for T2

Table 3:Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AC	146	1	5	2.280822	0.944992
OP	146	1	5	2.705479	1.024983
DJ	146	4	20	11.31507	3.894742
PJ	146	7	34	20.15753	5.824666
IFJ	146	5	25	16.43836	4.808
IPJ	146	4	20	16.26027	4.063385
Support	146	6	49	18.60959	7.45226
Resist	146	11	54	28.67123	11.31195
Gender	146	1	2	1.554795	0.498699
Tenure	146	1	5	2.513699	1.559117
Age	146	1	9	3.280822	1.885491
Valid N (listwise)	146				

Table 4:Correlations

		Accent	Opcent	DJCent	PJCent	IPJCent	IFJCent	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age
Accent	Pearson Correlation	1	0.49182478	0.249371	0.29888	0.162234	0.23835	-0.14787	-0.23324	0.018343	0.069924	0.032847
	Sig. (2-tailed)		2.89717E-10	0.002402	0.000248	0.050416	0.003766	0.07489	0.004609	0.826066	0.401658	0.693885
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Opcent	Pearson Correlation	0.491825	1	0.457026	0.528805	0.35633	0.449006	-0.34561	-0.445	0.011551	-0.04709	-0.02471
	Sig. (2-tailed)	2.9E-10		6.69E-09	6.84E-12	1.01E-05	1.31E-08	1.93E-05	1.83E-08	0.88994	0.572499	0.767183
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
DJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.249371	0.457026104	1	0.554128	0.397877	0.437467	-0.26304	-0.34107	0.012355	0.018592	0.024495
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002402	6.68609E-09		4E-13	6.59E-07	3.37E-08	0.001338	2.52E-05	0.882341	0.823743	0.769162
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
PJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.29888	0.528804727	0.554128	1	0.588027	0.64617	-0.23848	-0.34284	-0.00181	0.047225	0.025458
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000248	6.84173E-12	4E-13		6.02E-15	1.28E-18	0.003746	2.27E-05	0.982749	0.571375	0.76035
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
IPJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.162234	0.356330453	0.397877	0.588027	1	0.624585	-0.10366	-0.20113	0.084804	-0.11813	-0.13023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.050416	1.01323E-05	6.59E-07	6.02E-15		3.63E-17	0.213074	0.014921	0.308814	0.155568	0.117186
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
IFJCent	Pearson Correlation	0.23835	0.449005782	0.437467	0.64617	0.624585	1	-0.24695	-0.22228	0.056067	0.010233	0.003825
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003766	1.31313E-08	3.37E-08	1.28E-18	3.63E-17		0.002656	0.007006	0.501475	0.902431	0.963457
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
support	Pearson Correlation	-0.14787	-0.345609123	-0.26304	-0.23848	-0.10366	-0.24695	1	0.738193	0.016002	-0.23251	-0.25179
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07489	1.93268E-05	0.001338	0.003746	0.213074	0.002656		2.15E-26	0.847973	0.004742	0.002171
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
resist	Pearson Correlation	-0.23324	-0.444999023	-0.34107	-0.34284	-0.20113	-0.22228	0.738193	1	0.074122	-0.17766	-0.15764
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004609	1.82786E-08	2.52E-05	2.27E-05	0.014921	0.007006	2.15E-26		0.373928	0.031924	0.057396
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Gender	Pearson Correlation	0.018343	0.011551375	0.012355	-0.00181	0.084804	0.056067	0.016002	0.074122	1	-0.12071	-0.15217
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.826066	0.889939572	0.882341	0.982749	0.308814	0.501475	0.847973	0.373928		0.146676	0.066727
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Tenure	Pearson Correlation	0.069924	-0.047086836	0.018592	0.047225	-0.11813	0.010233	-0.23251	-0.17766	-0.12071	1	0.623892
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.401658	0.572498861	0.823743	0.571375	0.155568	0.902431	0.004742	0.031924	0.146676		4.03E-17
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Age	Pearson Correlation	0.032847	-0.024710925	0.024495	0.025458	-0.13023	0.003825	-0.25179	-0.15764	-0.15217	0.623892	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.693885	0.767182753	0.769162	0.76035	0.117186	0.963457	0.002171	0.057396	0.066727	4.03E-17	
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5:Spearman's rho

		Accent	Opcent	DJCent	PJCent	IPJCent	IFJCent	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age
Accent	Correlation Coefficient	1	0.516312	0.263668	0.303619	0.19873	0.270915	-0.18978	-0.25136	0.028454	0.075779	-0.00037
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.000001	0.001302	0.000195	0.016188	0.000942	0.021774	0.00221	0.733161	0.363308	0.996469
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Opcent	Correlation Coefficient	0.516311896	1	0.44653	0.528451	0.312473	0.428837	-0.37708	-0.45119	0.018115	-0.00469	-0.06434
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.000001	0.000123	0.000001	2.71E-06	0.000001	0.828189	0.955183	0.440369
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
DJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.263667777	0.44653	1	0.553874	0.307278	0.398809	-0.28481	-0.31502	-0.00707	0.032345	-0.02013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001301614	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.000162	0.000001	0.000493	0.000108	0.93247	0.698333	0.809468
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
PJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.303618707	0.528451	0.553874	1	0.485071	0.628236	-0.28189	-0.31709	-0.01688	0.037011	-0.00888
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000194973	0.000001	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.000001	0.000567	9.64E-05	0.839714	0.657392	0.915305
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
IPJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.198729654	0.312473	0.307278	0.485071	1	0.521071	-0.1604	-0.18901	0.068476	-0.10054	-0.15601
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016187755	0.000123	0.000162	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.05311	0.022322	0.411502	0.227274	0.060048
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
IFJCent	Correlation Coefficient	0.270915	0.428837	0.398809	0.628236	0.521071	1	-0.23123	-0.20273	0.06185	0.036458	-0.05095
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000941608	0.000001	0.000001	0.000001	0.000001	.	0.004984	0.014126	0.458319	0.662199	0.541347
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
support	Correlation Coefficient	-0.189778902	-0.37708	-0.28481	-0.28189	-0.1604	-0.23123	1	0.734355	0.020307	-0.26967	-0.28536
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.021773976	2.71E-06	0.000493	0.000567	0.05311	0.004984	.	0.000001	0.807783	0.000996	0.000481
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
resist	Correlation Coefficient	-0.251362829	-0.45119	-0.31502	-0.31709	-0.18901	-0.20273	0.734355	1	0.042862	-0.21151	-0.15889
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002210309	0.000001	0.000108	9.64E-05	0.022322	0.014126	0.000001	.	0.60747	0.010385	0.055414
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	0.028453967	0.018115	-0.00707	-0.01688	0.068476	0.06185	0.020307	0.042862	1	-0.13259	-0.20123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.733160503	0.828189	0.93247	0.839714	0.411502	0.458319	0.807783	0.60747	.	0.110623	0.014869
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Tenure	Correlation Coefficient	0.075779079	-0.00469	0.032345	0.037011	-0.10054	0.036458	-0.26967	-0.21151	-0.13259	1	0.605178
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.363308089	0.955183	0.698333	0.657392	0.227274	0.662199	0.000996	0.010385	0.110623	.	0.000001
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146
Age	Correlation Coefficient	-0.000369405	-0.06434	-0.02013	-0.00888	-0.15601	-0.05095	-0.28536	-0.15889	-0.20123	0.605178	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.996469232	0.440369	0.809468	0.915305	0.060048	0.541347	0.000481	0.055414	0.014869	0.000001	.
	N	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146	146

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Survey research, respondents of both T1 AND T2 survey waves.

Table 6:Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
AC	83	1	5	3	0.869539
OP	84	1	5	3.392857	0.821662
DJ	84	4	20	13.94048	3.648242
PJ	84	7	35	23.10714	6.071894
IPJ	84	12	20	18.33333	2.008016
IFJ	84	11	25	20.11905	3.316279
support	84	6	30	15.97619	5.973791
resist	84	12	55	25.32143	9.170619
T2 AC	84	1	5	2.309524	0.943924
T2 OP	83	1	4	2.626506	1.03253
T2 DJ	84	0	18	10.67857	3.865699
T2 PJ	84	6	34	19.79762	6.10309
T2 IPJ	84	4	20	16.32143	3.777424
T2 IFJ	84	5	25	16.4881	4.146399
T2 support	84	7	40	19.17857	7.309279
T2 resist	84	12	54	28.09524	11.99259
Valid N (listwise)	82				

Table 7:Correlations

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

		AC	OP	DJ	PJ	IPJ	IFJ	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age	T2 AC	T2 OP	T2 DJ	T2 PJ
AC	Pearson Correlation	1	0.509682	0.332431	0.31689	2.44E-17	0.105089	-0.28514	-0.32788	0.028242	0.020496	-0.05491	-0.01482	-0.05438	-0.02526	-0.11086
	Sig. (2-tailed)		8.6E-07	0.002137	0.003513	1	0.344399	0.00898	0.002479	0.802375	0.855885	0.626325	0.894236	0.627539	0.820671	0.318383
	N	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	81	81	81	83	82	83	83
OP	Pearson Correlation	0.509682	1	0.458051	0.522746	0.153349	0.283297	-0.3589	-0.4119	-0.06208	-0.03478	0.011039	0.012206	0.104807	-0.02425	-0.08006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	8.6E-07		1.18E-05	3.38E-07	0.163723	0.00902	0.000801	9.91E-05	0.579526	0.756395	0.921593	0.912256	0.345704	0.82669	0.469122
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
DJ	Pearson Correlation	0.332431	0.458051	1	0.534939	0.142536	0.336189	-0.33342	-0.38582	0.093097	-0.12519	-0.11539	-0.07855	0.134444	0.045613	0.224015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002137	1.18E-05		1.59E-07	0.195872	0.001768	0.00194	0.000289	0.405467	0.262423	0.301928	0.477541	0.225597	0.680336	0.040513
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
PJ	Pearson Correlation	0.31689	0.522746	0.534939	1	0.283604	0.338018	-0.36697	-0.45998	0.060549	-0.05655	-0.03086	0.040391	0.164672	0.042035	0.061065
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003513	3.38E-07	1.59E-07		0.008943	0.001663	0.000596	1.07E-05	0.588939	0.613813	0.783139	0.715267	0.136842	0.7042	0.581085
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
IPJ	Pearson Correlation	2.44E-17	0.153349	0.142536	0.283604	1	0.357633	-0.36694	-0.27021	0.018727	0.006117	-0.13082	0.078397	-0.24049	-0.06985	-0.18122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1	0.163723	0.195872	0.008943		0.000838	0.000596	0.012924	0.867374	0.9565	0.241406	0.478421	0.028525	0.527828	0.099
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
IFJ	Pearson Correlation	0.105089	0.283297	0.336189	0.338018	0.357633	1	-0.29846	-0.24452	0.046273	0.003975	0.021623	-0.03886	0.044296	-0.11728	-0.04166
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.344399	0.00902	0.001768	0.001663	0.000838		0.005822	0.024988	0.679747	0.971728	0.8471	0.725655	0.690901	0.288048	0.706753
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
support	Pearson Correlation	-0.28514	-0.3589	-0.33342	-0.36697	-0.36694	-0.29846	1	0.703679	0.046964	-0.1941	-0.17349	-0.0991	-0.22806	-0.10259	0.005484
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00898	0.000801	0.00194	0.000596	0.000596	0.005822		8.32E-14	0.67523	0.080588	0.119046	0.369789	0.038117	0.353068	0.960513
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
resist	Pearson Correlation	-0.32788	-0.4119	-0.38582	-0.45998	-0.27021	-0.24452	0.703679	1	0.028914	-0.12656	0.019013	-0.03112	-0.05182	0.019602	0.058437
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002479	9.91E-05	0.000289	1.07E-05	0.012924	0.024988	8.32E-14		0.796515	0.257217	0.86537	0.778718	0.64178	0.859521	0.597494
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
Gender	Pearson Correlation	0.028242	-0.06208	0.093097	0.060549	0.018727	0.046273	0.046964	0.028914	1	-0.04156	-0.04363	0.060431	-0.01325	-0.1178	-0.1351
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.802375	0.579526	0.405467	0.588939	0.867374	0.679747	0.67523	0.796515		0.710853	0.697108	0.589665	0.906517	0.291872	0.226229
	N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82
Tenure	Pearson Correlation	0.020496	-0.03478	-0.12519	-0.05655	0.006117	0.003975	-0.1941	-0.12656	-0.04156	1	0.736154	0.027295	-0.18621	-0.11052	-0.1916
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.855885	0.756395	0.262423	0.613813	0.9565	0.971728	0.080588	0.257217	0.710853		3.28E-15	0.80768	0.096025	0.322932	0.084645
	N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82
Age	Pearson Correlation	-0.05491	0.011039	-0.11539	-0.03086	-0.13082	0.021623	-0.17349	0.019013	-0.04363	0.736154	1	0.125065	0.074455	0.024399	0.010938
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.626325	0.921593	0.301928	0.783139	0.241406	0.8471	0.119046	0.86537	0.697108	3.28E-15		0.262917	0.50887	0.827753	0.922303
	N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82
T2 AC	Pearson Correlation	-0.01482	0.012206	-0.07855	0.040391	0.078397	-0.03886	-0.0991	-0.03112	0.060431	0.027295	0.125065	1	0.466726	0.222403	0.151128
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.894236	0.912256	0.477541	0.715267	0.478421	0.725655	0.369789	0.778718	0.589665	0.80768	0.262917		8.69E-06	0.042017	0.169985
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 OP	Pearson Correlation	-0.05438	0.104807	0.134444	0.164672	-0.24049	0.044296	-0.22806	-0.05182	-0.01325	-0.18621	0.074455	0.466726	1	0.459267	0.494769
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.627539	0.345704	0.225597	0.136842	0.028525	0.690901	0.038117	0.64178	0.906517	0.096025	0.50887	8.69E-06		1.26E-05	1.99E-06
	N	82	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	81	81	81	83	83	83	83
T2 DJ	Pearson Correlation	-0.02526	-0.02425	0.045613	0.042035	-0.06985	-0.11728	-0.10259	0.019602	-0.1178	-0.11052	0.024399	0.222403	0.459267	1	0.637595
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.820671	0.82669	0.680336	0.7042	0.527828	0.288048	0.353068	0.859521	0.291872	0.322932	0.827753	0.042017	1.26E-05		6.94E-11
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 PJ	Pearson Correlation	-0.11086	-0.08006	0.224015	0.061065	-0.18122	-0.04166	0.005484	0.058437	-0.1351	-0.1916	0.010938	0.151128	0.494769	0.637595	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.318383	0.469122	0.040513	0.581085	0.099	0.706753	0.960513	0.597494	0.226229	0.084645	0.922303	0.169985	1.99E-06	6.94E-11	
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 IPJ	Pearson Correlation	-0.16288	-0.21197	-0.02395	0.043656	-0.10642	-0.14736	0.090576	0.11419	-0.0339	-0.24058	-0.10461	-0.01472	0.388757	0.389999	0.494108
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.141234	0.052902	0.828805	0.693357	0.335295	0.181014	0.412565	0.301009	0.762354	0.029463	0.349635	0.894255	0.000281	0.000245	1.78E-06
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 IFJ	Pearson Correlation	-0.18235	-0.20195	-0.02753	-0.07341	-0.29761	-0.0183	0.084137	0.087077	-0.14206	-0.17432	0.021137	0.053284	0.434107	0.46391	0.586701
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.09896	0.065444	0.803715	0.506951	0.005971	0.868799	0.446702	0.430924	0.202985	0.11727	0.850499	0.630244	4.13E-05	8.81E-06	4.5E-09
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 support	Pearson Correlation	-0.08245	-0.11012	-0.02987	-0.12178	0.024626	-0.09284	0.451518	0.255445	-0.03963	-0.26704	-0.31746	-0.13209	-0.38477	-0.38981	-0.30302
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.458691	0.318673	0.787386	0.269786	0.824036	0.400926	1.63E-05	0.019019	0.723742	0.015299	0.003659	0.231009	0.000329	0.000247	0.005081
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84
T2 resist	Pearson Correlation	-0.02938	-0.09188	-0.16454	-0.11695	0.011674	-0.09814	0.515654	0.335926	0.009599	-0.16746	-0.22897	-0.1857	-0.50674	-0.34056	-0.35332
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.792065	0.405859	0.134736	0.289379	0.916063	0.374475	5.18E-07	0.001784	0.931794	0.132635	0.038528	0.090799	1.02E-06	0.001525	0.000978
	N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84

Table 8:Spearman's rho

	AC	OP	DJ	PJ	IPJ	IFJ	support	resist	Gender	Tenure	Age	T2 AC	T2 OP	T2 DJ	T2 PJ	T2 IPJ
Correlation Coefficient	1	0.482949	0.308294	0.270269	-0.00634	0.003937	-0.27941	-0.32005	0.013534	0.031761	-0.08442	0.026077	-0.01565	0.021328	-0.07919	-0.13478
Sig. (2-tailed)	.	3.76E-06	0.004575	0.01347	0.95464	0.97182	0.010524	0.003182	0.904551	0.778347	0.453657	0.814979	0.88903	0.848225	0.476707	0.224414
N	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	81	81	81	83	82	83	83	83
Correlation Coefficient	0.482949	1	0.534185	0.530287	0.183964	0.201019	-0.39099	-0.41894	-0.06171	-0.00821	-0.01878	0.0736	0.172551	0.028953	-0.02594	-0.2316
Sig. (2-tailed)	3.76E-06	.	0.000001	0.000001	0.09391	0.066725	0.000236	7.3E-05	0.581773	0.941615	0.867019	0.505828	0.118784	0.793758	0.8148	0.034027
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	0.308294	0.534185	1	0.561254	0.169846	0.348244	-0.41577	-0.41666	0.057804	-0.15192	-0.15091	-0.0352	0.171159	0.077477	0.190848	-0.08758
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004575	0.000001	.	0.000001	0.122446	0.00117	8.39E-05	8.07E-05	0.605972	0.173033	0.175945	0.750587	0.121833	0.483611	0.08204	0.428249
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	0.270269	0.530287	0.561254	1	0.362281	0.435105	-0.44049	-0.47007	0.008776	-0.02999	-0.05866	0.111479	0.155262	-0.00698	0.014364	-0.01336
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01347	0.000001	0.000001	.	0.000708	3.53E-05	2.75E-05	6.44E-06	0.937631	0.78913	0.60062	0.312706	0.161046	0.949753	0.896816	0.903987
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.00634	0.183964	0.169846	0.362281	1	0.376608	-0.32218	-0.24542	0.011259	-0.04643	-0.18816	0.026674	-0.29788	-0.11626	-0.23574	-0.0796
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.95464	0.09391	0.122446	0.000708	.	0.000414	0.002802	0.024439	0.920029	0.678728	0.090485	0.80967	0.006237	0.292272	0.030869	0.471688
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	0.003937	0.201019	0.348244	0.435105	0.376608	1	-0.30472	-0.29022	0.020844	0.002992	0.01238	-0.05784	0.002022	-0.13573	-0.03506	-0.06859
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.97182	0.066725	0.00117	3.53E-05	0.000414	.	0.004828	0.007407	0.852545	0.978716	0.912103	0.601269	0.985523	0.218293	0.751508	0.535284
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.27941	-0.39099	-0.41577	-0.44049	-0.32218	-0.30472	1	0.721714	-0.00775	-0.18953	-0.14438	-0.09493	-0.22234	-0.09294	0.024341	0.140968
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.010524	0.000236	8.39E-05	2.75E-05	0.002802	0.004828	.	0.000001	0.944942	0.088124	0.195608	0.390382	0.043357	0.40041	0.826044	0.200887
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.32005	-0.41894	-0.41666	-0.47007	-0.24542	-0.29022	0.721714	1	-0.02013	-0.07763	0.044393	-0.06943	-0.11161	-0.00208	0.0651	0.070748
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003182	7.3E-05	8.07E-05	6.44E-06	0.024439	0.007407	0.000001	.	0.857542	0.488169	0.692089	0.530305	0.315132	0.985031	0.556305	0.522498
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	0.013534	-0.06171	0.057804	0.008776	0.011259	0.020844	-0.00775	-0.02013	1	-0.03606	-0.04175	0.082564	-0.01445	-0.12302	-0.14306	-0.02075
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.904551	0.581773	0.605972	0.937631	0.920029	0.852545	0.944942	0.857542	.	0.74775	0.709561	0.460862	0.898102	0.270855	0.199791	0.853199
N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82	82
Correlation Coefficient	0.031761	-0.00821	-0.15192	-0.02999	-0.04643	0.002992	-0.18953	-0.07763	-0.03606	1	0.732248	-0.01752	-0.15541	-0.14577	-0.22877	-0.24821
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.778347	0.941615	0.173033	0.78913	0.678728	0.978716	0.088124	0.488169	0.74775	.	0.000001	0.875884	0.165945	0.191307	0.038702	0.024545
N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82	82
Correlation Coefficient	-0.08442	-0.01878	-0.15091	-0.05866	-0.18816	0.01238	-0.14438	0.044393	-0.04175	0.732248	1	0.07296	0.020702	-0.03202	-0.08717	-0.14304
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.453657	0.867019	0.175945	0.60062	0.090485	0.912103	0.195608	0.692089	0.709561	0.000001	.	0.514786	0.854454	0.775197	0.436138	0.199843
N	81	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	82	81	82	82	82
Correlation Coefficient	0.026077	0.0736	-0.0352	0.111479	0.026674	-0.05784	-0.09493	-0.06943	0.082564	-0.01752	0.07296	1	0.492737	0.226666	0.152632	0.06711
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.814979	0.505828	0.750587	0.312706	0.80967	0.601269	0.390382	0.530305	0.460862	0.875884	0.514786	.	2.22E-06	0.038138	0.165725	0.544154
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.01565	0.172551	0.171159	0.155262	-0.29788	0.002022	-0.22234	-0.11161	-0.01445	-0.15541	0.020702	0.492737	1	0.45374	0.499801	0.320858
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.88903	0.118784	0.121833	0.161046	0.006237	0.985523	0.043357	0.315132	0.898102	0.165945	0.854454	2.22E-06	.	1.65E-05	1.51E-06	0.003102
N	82	83	83	83	83	83	83	83	81	81	81	83	83	83	83	83
Correlation Coefficient	0.021328	0.028953	0.077477	-0.00698	-0.11626	-0.13573	-0.09294	-0.00208	-0.12302	-0.14577	-0.03202	0.226666	0.45374	1	0.640541	0.302976
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.848225	0.793758	0.483611	0.949753	0.292272	0.218293	0.40041	0.985031	0.270855	0.191307	0.775197	0.038138	1.65E-05	.	0.000001	0.005088
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.07919	-0.02594	0.190848	0.014364	-0.23574	-0.03506	0.024341	0.0651	-0.14306	-0.22877	-0.08717	0.152632	0.499801	0.640541	1	0.432462
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.476707	0.8148	0.08204	0.896816	0.030869	0.751508	0.826044	0.556305	0.199791	0.038702	0.436138	0.165725	1.51E-06	0.000001	.	3.99E-05
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.13478	-0.2316	-0.08758	-0.01336	-0.0796	-0.06859	0.140968	0.070748	-0.02075	-0.24821	-0.14304	0.06711	0.320858	0.302976	0.432462	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.224414	0.034027	0.428249	0.903987	0.471688	0.535284	0.200887	0.522498	0.853199	0.024545	0.199843	0.544154	0.003102	0.005088	3.99E-05	.
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.13297	-0.2238	-0.03285	-0.10889	-0.33362	-0.0071	0.148994	0.073345	-0.07527	-0.12505	0.004761	0.151126	0.411636	0.413618	0.593089	0.487027
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.230781	0.040711	0.766745	0.324151	0.001927	0.948867	0.176167	0.507308	0.501512	0.262954	0.966138	0.169992	0.000111	9.2E-05	0.000001	2.63E-06
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.12336	-0.17225	-0.08071	-0.16483	0.056854	-0.09719	0.480649	0.295032	-0.01859	-0.24813	-0.32816	-0.13947	-0.38121	-0.38517	-0.31982	-0.19214
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.26655	0.117175	0.465513	0.134051	0.607471	0.37911	3.7E-06	0.006441	0.868332	0.024596	0.002614	0.205751	0.000377	0.000297	0.003021	0.079946
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84
Correlation Coefficient	-0.08227	-0.21269	-0.1976	-0.18369	0.036915	-0.1179	0.52973	0.367968	0.005674	-0.17318	-0.23914	-0.21129	-0.48932	-0.32487	-0.30773	-0.15411
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.459638	0.052085	0.071585	0.094407	0.738851	0.285478	0.000001	0.000574	0.959653	0.119729	0.03048	0.053695	2.68E-06	0.002569	0.004405	0.161643
N	83	84	84	84	84	84	84	84	82	82	82	84	83	84	84	84

IV Ticklist I used for interview research

(This was just a rough guideline to remind me of questions and for me to organise notes, I did not follow the order of the list below).

OK to take notes?	
OK to tape?	
	Job description
	Exchange
	Expectations
	Psychological Contract
	Referent standards

	Justice rules
	Relationship and trust colleagues
	Relationship and trust direct mgt.
	Relationship and trust general mgt.
	Experience with OC
	How is OC handled here
	Concerns regarding OC
	Magnitude/Impact/evaluation OC
	Oppenness / attitude to OC (issue or opportunity)

Date	
Start time	
End time	
Gender	
Time with Org	
Yrs work experience	
Age group	
Manager/Cons/team	
Job type	

V Scenario Study: Ambivalence Conditions

The following presents the different positive and negative elements used to create the different versions of ambivalent information.

The new performance management system has been in place for one year. Mark's experiences with the new performance management system have been mixed.

Voice
yes
Employees' views and input on the new performance management system were taken into account when designing the final version of the system, and the fact that Mark and many of his colleagues expressed the need for more involvement in the appraisal process was also taken into account.
no
Employees' views and input on the new performance management system were not taken into account when designing the final version of the system, and the fact that

Mark and many of his colleagues expressed the need for more involvement in the appraisal process was ignored.

Consistency
yes
From talking informally to colleagues from different teams, Mark knows that the system has been applied the same way in all teams; individual reviews are not dependent upon which manager conducts them.
no
From talking informally to colleagues from different teams, Mark knows that the system has not been applied the same way in all teams; individual reviews are dependent upon which manager conducts them.

No bias
Yes
The new system does not favour any types of jobs or organisational functions over others. For example, different job responsibilities or types of contributions are treated equally under the new rules.

No
The new system clearly favours some types of jobs and organisational functions over others. For example, certain job responsibilities and specific contributions lead to better evaluations under the new rules.

correctability
yes
The new appraisal system includes opportunities to appeal outcomes. Recently, one of Mark's colleagues did not agree with the evaluation assigned to him by his manager, and he had an opportunity to appeal it.

No
The new appraisal system does not include opportunities to appeal outcomes. Recently, one of Mark's colleagues did not agree with the evaluation assigned to him by his manager, and he had no opportunity to appeal it.

polite
yes
Mark's manager has treated his team members very politely and has shown good understanding of their feelings in the context of the performance reviews.

no
Mark's manager has treated his team members very impolitely and has shown no regard for their feelings in the context of the performance reviews.

No Remarks
yes
In conducting the performance reviews in his team Mark's manager has not made any improper remarks or comments about personal issues.
no

In conducting the performance reviews in his team Mark's manager has made improper remarks and comments about personal issues.

Timely

Yes

Mark's manager did communicate the new procedures and requirements for the performance review meeting well in advance, and everyone had enough time to prepare and adapt.

no

Mark's manager communicated the new procedures and requirements for the performance review meeting at the very last minute, and no one had any time to prepare and adapt.

Individual needs considered

yes

Mark was very interested in finding out more how the performance review would be conducted in his very particular employment situation. His manager made the time to sit down with him to discuss and explain the details.

no

Mark was very interested in finding out more how the performance review would be conducted in his very particular employment situation. His manager did not make the time to sit down with him to discuss and explain the details.

Positive Past comparison

yes

Given his expectations based on previous experiences with other performance management systems, Mark feels that his evaluation accurately reflects his efforts and input in his job.

no

Given his expectations based on previous experiences with other performance management systems, Mark feels that his evaluation does not accurately reflect his efforts and input in his job.

Positive Referent comparison

yes

Comparing his evaluation with that of his team members who do the same kind of work, Mark thinks that his appraisal outcome does appropriately reflect his work input.

no

Comparing his evaluation with that of his team members who do the same kind of work, Mark thinks that his appraisal outcome does not appropriately reflect his work input.

VI Contextualised instruments for scenario study

Manipulation check at T0 (regarding past experiences)

Please think about the description of the merger in the scenario above and indicate your views on the following statements. If you are not completely sure, choose what you think is the most appropriate answer.

Please imagine how you would think and feel if you were in Mark's situation, and if you had Mark's experience with the merger. In your view:

		Very unfair				Very fair
1	How fair were the procedures of the merger?	1	2	3	4	5
2	How fair were the outcomes of the merger ?	1	2	3	4	5
3	Has Mark's manager treated his team members fairly during the merger?	1	2	3	4	5
4	Has Mark's manager conveyed appropriate and sufficient information about the merger?	1	2	3	4	5

MEASUREMENTS AT T1 (after ambiguous info about new changes has been given)

Imagine how you would think and feel in Mark's situation. After reading the situation above, what would your expectations regarding the introduction of the new performance management system most likely be?

		Very unfair				**Very fair**
5	How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to determine pay raises to be?	1	2	3	4	5
6	How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to evaluate performance to be?	1	2	3	4	5
7	How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to determine promotions to be?	1	2	3	4	5
8	How fair or unfair do you expect the procedures used to communicate performance feedback to be?	1	2	3	4	5

As a result of the new performance management system, Mark's appraisals and other appraisal related outcomes (such as work responsibilities, pay and bonus) may change. To what extent:

		to a small extent				to a large extent
1	Do your expect Mark's appraisals in the new performance management system to reflect the effort Mark has put into his work?	1	2	3	4	5
2	Do you expect Mark's performance management outcomes will be appropriate for the work he has completed?	1	2	3	4	5
3	Do you expect Mark's performance management outcomes will reflect what he has contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
4	Do you expect Mark's outcomes will be justified, given his performance?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to Mark's immediate manager, who is responsible for his performance evaluation and appraisal. To what extent:

		to a small extent				to a large extent
5	Do you expect that Mark's manager will treat him in a polite manner in the context of the new performance management system?	1	2	3	4	5
6	Do you expect that Mark's manager will treat him with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
7	Do you expect that Mark's manager will treat him with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
8	Do you expect that Mark's manager will refrain from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer again to Mark's interaction with his manager in the context of the new performance management system. To what extent:

		to a small extent				to a large extent
9	Do you expect Mark's manager to be candid in his/her communications with Mark?	1	2	3	4	5
10	Do you expect that Mark's manager will explain the procedures determining relevant outcomes thoroughly?	1	2	3	4	5
11	Do you expect that the manager's explanations regarding the procedures will be reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5

12	Do you expect that Mark's manager will communicate details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
13	Do you expect Mark's manager to tailor his/her communications to Mark's specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

Measures at T2 (after ambivalent info has been given)

Given the additional information you now have about Mark's experiences in the first year of the introduction of the new performance management system, what would be your views if you were in Mark's place?

		Very unfair				**Very fair**
4	How fair or unfair are the procedures used to determine pay raises?	1	2	3	4	5
5	How fair or unfair are the procedures used to evaluate performance?	1	2	3	4	5
6	How fair or unfair are the procedures used to determine promotions?	1	2	3	4	5
7	How fair or unfair are the procedures used to communicate performance feedback?	1	2	3	4	5

As a result of the new performance management system, Mark's appraisals and other appraisal related outcomes (such as work responsibilities, pay, and bonuses) have changed. To what extent:

		to a small extent				**to a large extent**
8	Do Mark's appraisals in the new performance management system reflect the effort Mark has put into his work?	1	2	3	4	5
9	Are Mark's performance management outcomes appropriate for the work he has completed?	1	2	3	4	5
10	Do Mark's performance management outcomes reflect what he has contributed to the organization?	1	2	3	4	5
11	Are Mark's outcomes justified, given his performance?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to Mark's immediate manager, who is responsible for his performance evaluation and appraisal. To what extent:

12	Does Mark's manager treat him in a polite manner in the context of the new performance management system?	1	2	3	4	5
13	Is the manager treating Mark with dignity?	1	2	3	4	5
14	Is the manager treating Mark with respect?	1	2	3	4	5
15	Does Mark's manager refrain from improper remarks or comments?	1	2	3	4	5

The following items refer to Mark's interaction with his manager in the context of the new performance management system. To what extent:

16	Is Mark's manager candid in his/her communications with Mark?	1	2	3	4	5
17	Does Mark's manager thoroughly explain to him the procedures determining relevant outcomes?	1	2	3	4	5
18	Are the manager's explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?	1	2	3	4	5
19	Does Mark's manager communicate details in a timely manner?	1	2	3	4	5
20	Does Mark's manager tailor his/her communications to Mark's specific needs?	1	2	3	4	5

VII Demographics and correlations for scenario study

Table 9:Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PJsumT1	125	4	20	10.584	3.008547
DJsumT1	125	4	20	11.12	3.41628
IPJIFJsumT1	125	9	45	25.072	9.880068
PJsumT2	125	4	16	9.64	3.233893
DJsumT2	125	4	17	9.824	3.37463
IPJIFJsumT2	125	9	35	20.76	6.042057
Gender	125	1	2	1.48	0.50161
tenure	125	1	5	2.728	1.738446
Age Group	125	1	9	4.112	1.642264
Valid N (listwise)	125				

Table 10:Correlations

		PJsumT1	DJsumT1	IPJIFJsum	PJsumT2	DJsumT2	IPJIFJsum	Gender	tenure	Age Group
PJsumT1	Pearson Corre	1	0.704791	0.299996	0.398927	0.234998	0.250447	-0.00021	-0.20067	-0.11128
	Sig. (2-tailed)		4.63E-20	0.000676	4.06E-06	0.008339	0.004848	0.998112	0.024838	0.216656
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
DJsumT1	Pearson Corre	0.704791205	1	0.328744	0.40469	0.299841	0.247936	-0.06683	-0.13432	-0.02398
	Sig. (2-tailed)	4.62724E-20		0.000182	2.86E-06	0.000681	0.005306	0.45902	0.135317	0.790697
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
IPJIFJsum	Pearson Corre	0.299996495	0.328744	1	0.172704	0.160989	0.285879	-0.12256	0.14811	0.085484
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000676312	0.000182		0.054106	0.072886	0.00123	0.173299	0.099272	0.343195
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
PJsumT2	Pearson Corre	0.398927225	0.40469	0.172704	1	0.430878	0.476375	-0.31022	-0.20547	-0.21101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	4.06321E-06	2.86E-06	0.054106		5.28E-07	1.96E-08	0.00043	0.021518	0.018172
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
DJsumT2	Pearson Corre	0.234997893	0.299841	0.160989	0.430878	1	0.311163	-0.22125	-0.11407	0.013772
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.008339387	0.000681	0.072886	5.28E-07		0.000412	0.013154	0.205259	0.878847
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
IPJIFJsum	Pearson Corre	0.25044712	0.247936	0.285879	0.476375	0.311163	1	-0.15327	0.120417	0.117327
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004847554	0.005306	0.00123	1.96E-08	0.000412		0.087922	0.181009	0.192547
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Gender	Pearson Corre	-0.000213754	-0.06683	-0.12256	-0.31022	-0.22125	-0.15327	1	-0.05253	-0.04621
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.998112337	0.45902	0.173299	0.00043	0.013154	0.087922		0.560706	0.608863
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
tenure	Pearson Corre	-0.200670962	-0.13432	0.14811	-0.20547	-0.11407	0.120417	-0.05253	1	0.5644
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.024838424	0.135317	0.099272	0.021518	0.205259	0.181009	0.560706		7.14E-12
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Age Group	Pearson Corre	-0.111278168	-0.02398	0.085484	-0.21101	0.013772	0.117327	-0.04621	0.5644	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.216655664	0.790697	0.343195	0.018172	0.878847	0.192547	0.608863	7.14E-12	
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 11:Spearman's rho

		PJsumT1	DJsumT1	IPJIFJsum	PJsumT2	DJsumT2	IPJIFJsum	Gender	tenure	Age Group
PJsumT1	Correlation Coefficient	1	0.744037	0.363796	0.443676	0.226899	0.253781	-0.05262	-0.17081	-0.147772
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.000001	3.04E-05	0.000001	0.01094	0.004293	0.560031	0.056832	0.1000543
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
DJsumT1	Correlation Coefficient	0.744037	1	0.341902	0.397249	0.288524	0.239092	-0.0588	-0.13376	-0.069761
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000001	.	9.52E-05	4.5E-06	0.001102	0.007246	0.514808	0.136985	0.4394904
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
IPJIFJsumT1	Correlation Coefficient	0.363796	0.341902	1	0.153805	0.181975	0.293712	-0.13749	0.145113	0.104019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	3.04E-05	9.52E-05	.	0.0868	0.042245	0.000886	0.126251	0.106382	0.2483287
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
PJsumT2	Correlation Coefficient	0.443676	0.397249	0.153805	1	0.405121	0.474235	-0.29412	-0.18408	-0.260445
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000001	4.5E-06	0.0868	.	2.78E-06	0.000001	0.000871	0.039882	0.0033525
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
DJsumT2	Correlation Coefficient	0.226899	0.288524	0.181975	0.405121	1	0.313074	-0.22005	-0.12635	-0.015121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01094	0.001102	0.042245	2.78E-06	.	0.000378	0.013669	0.160288	0.8670755
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
IPJIFJsumT2	Correlation Coefficient	0.253781	0.239092	0.293712	0.474235	0.313074	1	-0.17422	0.117469	0.0843599
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004293	0.007246	0.000886	0.000001	0.000378	.	0.052001	0.192007	0.3496
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Gender	Correlation Coefficient	-0.05262	-0.0588	-0.13749	-0.29412	-0.22005	-0.17422	1	-0.04869	-0.027121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.560031	0.514808	0.126251	0.000871	0.013669	0.052001	.	0.589715	0.7640001
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
tenure	Correlation Coefficient	-0.17081	-0.13376	0.145113	-0.18408	-0.12635	0.117469	-0.04869	1	0.5861519
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.056832	0.136985	0.106382	0.039882	0.160288	0.192007	0.589715	.	0.000001
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125
Age Group	Correlation Coefficient	-0.14777	-0.06976	0.104019	-0.26045	-0.01512	0.08436	-0.02712	0.586152	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.100054	0.43949	0.248329	0.003353	0.867075	0.3496	0.764	0.000001	.
	N	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125	125

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).