The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

The Mary Jean and Frank P. Smeal College of Business

A COLLECTIVE ACTION APPROACH TO PROACTIVITY

A Dissertation in

Business Administration

by

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Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2017

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ABSTRACT

In this dissertation, I draw on the social movements literature and system justification theory to put forward a collective action approach to the study of proactivity. To this end, in the first chapter, I develop a collective action process for change implementation by incorporating individual, meso, and organizational influences on the implementation of proactive initiatives in the workplace. Specifically, I propose a multi-phase process where the proactive employee (1) crafts a proactive initiative to capitalize on an opportunity or prevent a problem in the workplace, (2) mobilizes his/her coworkers to play a role in implementing the initiative, (3) puts together a collective action team, (4) which then works together to refine the proactive initiative and implement the change in the workplace. In doing so, I draw on the social movements literature to outline how proactive employees may mobilize a collection action to implement the change and I draw on system justification theory to examine when and why employees will be willing to challenge the status quo and engage in a collective action process for change implementation.

Following which, in the second chapter, I test one part of a collective action process for change implementation by examining the recruitment of coworkers to participate in implementing a proactive initiative. In this chapter, drawing on the social movements literature and system justification theory, I examine the effectiveness of framing strategies that proactive employees may use and the role of the organizational context in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Across two experimental designs, I examined the effectiveness of the framing strategies and organizational context in motivating peers to participate in implementing a student-led mentorship program. Taking together the results of the empirical studies, I outline the limitations of the study designs and discuss

directions for future research on the recruitment of coworkers to participate in a collective action

process for change implementation.

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This PhD process has been an incredibly challenging yet an immensely rewarding experience. I have been very blessed to have the mentorship of brilliant and kind faculty, support from friends, and unconditional love and encouragement from my family. Thank you for choosing to be part of my journey and helping me become the person I am today!

First and foremost, I am grateful for my advisor, Lance Ferris, for giving so much of himself to developing a scholar out of me. Lance gave me the intellectual freedom to explore ideas that I was most excited about, taught me the craft of writing and communicating my ideas by patiently providing feedback on countless manuscript revisions and multiple presentations, and most importantly he taught me how to persist through the numerous setbacks in this academic process. It is very rare that you meet someone who puts in so much of their effort and energy into making the best out of someone else. Lance believed in me and held me to high standards for which today I am immensely grateful. And above all, Lance brought serenity to the roller coaster ride that this academic pursuit has been and he brought smiles to my face when the going got rough. Thank you!

I would not have been able to benefit from the intellectual risks that I undertook in this dissertation if not for the mentorship of my dissertation committee. Forrest Briscoe, thank you for believing in the idea, guiding me through the fundamentals of the social movements literatures, and for helping me understand the nuances of the process that I am developing in this dissertation. Five years ago, I never thought that I would venture into the world of social movements; thank you for showing me how and for taking this leap of faith with me! Alicia Grandey, thank you for being instrumental in helping me shape my dissertation around an idea that I am truly passionate about, for your valuable feedback on the experimental designs in this research, and for encouraging me to push the boundaries and develop exciting research designs! Stephen Humphrey, thank you for challenging me to think more critically about the ideas that I developed, teaching me how to challenge assumptions, motivating me to be more intellectually capable than I had imagined myself to be, and reminding me to carve more balance into my life! Most importantly, thank you for being a great mentor from the very first day I joined the MNO family!

I am very fortunate to be able to call the Penn State MNO family, a family that I belong to. Thank for welcoming me into your fold, nurturing my development over these years, and role modelling what it means to be a good academic. Aparna Joshi, thank you for your kind words of motivation during the job market period (they meant more to me than you can imagine!), for your valuable time and feedback on the ideas that I've brought to you and on my research presentations. Srikanth Paruchuri, thank you for reminding us about the realities of academic demands through your colloquium seminar and for your valuable feedback on my job talk presentations. Vilmos Misangyi, thank you for sharing your experiences on managing the academic career, for the pep talks during the job market period, and for the critical feedback on shaping my research presentations. Tim Pollock, thank you for being a very helpful PhD coordinator, for your advice and support throughout the job market process, and for sharing your insights on the collective action literature that I was drawing on for my research. Wenpin Tsai,

thank you for sharing with us your passion for social networks research and for challenging us to think critically about the social networks literature. Barbara Gray, thank you for teaching me how to question the functionalist in me and to take a step back and think about the methodologies that we use to view and process the world around us – I am also grateful for your kind words and pep talks which helped me overcome my personal barriers. Raghu Garud, thank you for your kind and supportive words which put the job market in perspective and thank you for pushing us to be critical consumers and producers of knowledge. Don Hambrick, thank you for always taking the time to provide feedback on multiple research presentations and for helping me to refine the ideas that I pursued. Linda Trevino, thank you for your moral support and words of advice which helped put my struggles into perspective and for always encouraging me to look after myself and to nurture my passions outside of research! Denny Gioia, thank you for the countless ways in which you supported and encouraged my growth – in particular, thank you for the timely funding support which played an important role in my ability to develop my research network and thank you for holding us to high standards and pushing us to think about the grand shazam of our research!

The MNO family will not be complete without our staff and students who have made this process every bit more memorable. Holly Packard, you were the first staff member I met when I first got to Smeal and all these years through your warm smile and wisdom you've been a life-saver on so many occasions. Tena Ishler, I honestly don't know how I could have gotten through the job market period without your help with my letters. And thank you for volunteering so much of your time to code my dissertation data! Sue Cherry, thank you for staying on top of the countless research reimbursements, managing all of my RA appointments, and for your kind uplifting notes during the hectic job market process. And, I am very grateful for the support and guidance from fellow Penn Staters – in particular, Shubha Patvardhan, Abhinav Gupta, Abhijith Acharya, MK Chin, and Jen Eury. Also, a special shout-out to our work-study students (Joshua Rosato and Sophia Nabie) and my wonderful research assistants (in particular, Joelle Darby and Emily Forcht) who came through for me on so many occasions!

In addition, I am very thankful for my State College family that kept me sane all these years! Bee Yan Roberts, you were the very first person I met when I moved to State College. Thank you for inviting me into your home, sharing your motherly warmth, and playing such a pivotal role in helping me set up my life here. Br. Charles Morgan and Iffa Gaffoor, thank you for giving me a family in State College. Thank you for inviting me into your home, for reaching out and helping me even when I was too shy to ask for help, and for being there for me during the ups and downs over the last 5 years. And Apoorva Karamchandani, thank you for being a wonderful friend all these years – you gave me the space to be myself, shared so many laughs, and made State College a whole lot more memorable by sharing these memories with me.

This academic path would not have been possible if not for the mentorship and guidance of Matthias Spitzmuller, Chris Barnes, Michael Frese, and Jayanth Narayanan. Matthias Spitzmuller, thank you for taking me under your wings 7 years ago, for giving me numerous opportunities to learn a variety of skills and develop my competence, and for the much-needed

CHAPTER 1

A COLLECTIVE ACTION PROCESS FOR CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

Workplace proactivity is a process in which employees create a positive change in the workplace by identifying opportunities or problems in the work environment and working towards capitalizing on the opportunity or preventing the problem (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008). For example, a nurse working in a hospital may notice a recurring problem with mold growing within some of the equipment, as there is not a fixed schedule requiring a thorough cleaning of the equipment. As a result, patients' health could be affected if nurses were to use that equipment by accident. To address this problem, the nurse could speak to his/her supervisor about implementing a fixed cleaning schedule. In essence, by identifying and acting on the problem in the work environment, the proactive actions of this nurse has an impact not just on her work outcomes but also for the health and safety of patients in that hospital.

Employees' successful attempts at capitalizing on opportunities or averting serious problems have far-reaching implications for the performance of the organization (Detert, Burris, Harrison, & Martin, 2013). These benefits of proactivity have motivated in-depth scholarly pursuits leading to a wealth of knowledge on the causes and consequences of proactivity. In particular, we are well informed of the individual characteristics that lead to proactive behavior (e.g., proactive personality, role-breadth self-efficacy; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker, Williams, Turner, 2006), the situational factors that encourage proactive behavior (e.g., job autonomy, job demands; Frese & Fay, 2001; Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007), the different types of proactive behaviors that employees can engage in (e.g., voice, taking charge; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and the outcomes of those proactive behaviors (e.g., problem prevention, career success; Parker, Williams, Turner, 2006; Seibert, Kraimer, &Crant, 2001). As a result, we have a rich understanding of proactivity at the individual level – i.e., what propels

individuals to be proactive and the personal outcomes of engaging in proactive behavior.

Yet while an individual employee could independently identify opportunities or problems in the work environment, he/she would typically not be able to single-handedly effect a change in the workplace. For example, even if a marketing executive in an organization identifies an opportunity to partner with sustainability institutes to promote the products developed by the organization, he/she needs the participation of other employees to act on the opportunity and turn it into a success. Specifically, while the marketing executive may have the know-how to develop a business proposal for the partnership, he/she may need a design engineer to put together a product demonstration or a corporate manager to liaise with potential sustainability institutes.

More broadly, these examples illustrate how scholarly work on the proactivity process has given the lion's share of attention to individual proactivity (i.e., the proactive employee) and less attention to the influences of the collective on proactivity. In this chapter, I will argue that proactivity is a multi-level phenomenon relying on both the individual proactive employee (i.e., individual level) as well as a collective effort involving coworkers (i.e., meso level), and that this process is influenced by the organizational context in which employees are embedded. Specifically, I will introduce the concept of a *collective action process for change implementation* – an unfolding, multi-level process where the proactive employee and his/her coworkers coordinate to achieve a common goal of implementing a change in the workplace. By focusing on a collective action process for change implementation, I aim to address the important role that coworkers and context play in influencing the successful implementation of proactive initiatives.

The successful implementation of change is a cornerstone in proactivity as proactive employees would not be able to create a positive impact in their work environment if their

proactive initiatives are not effectively translated and put into effect in the workplace (Frese & Fay, 2001). Hence, focusing on the implementation aspect of proactivity and putting forward a collective action process for change implementation helps advance the proactivity literature in several ways. First, the construct of collective action process for change implementation addresses the largely individual-level focus in the proactivity literature by shifting the focus to the influence of the collective (i.e., coworkers participating in enacting the change) in ensuring the successful implementation of a proactive initiative. Second, and in doing so, the study of a collective action process for change implementation offers new research directions by identifying new concepts such as collective action teams that facilitate the collaboration among employees for implementation of the proactive initiative. Lastly, a collective action process for change implementation offers a more systematic study of the process (i.e., strategies, mechanisms, boundary conditions) through which proactive employees can successfully effect the change that they envisioned for their workplace.

To briefly summarize the outline of the chapter, I begin with an overview of proactivity as it is currently understood, highlighting how the extant literature has primarily conceptualized proactivity as an individual-level phenomenon. Next, I provide a brief overview of the collective action process for change implementation, a four-phase process through which proactive individuals recruit coworkers to participate in collective action teams to implement proactive initiatives. After discussing the scope conditions and nomological network of the collective action process for change implementation, I discuss each of the four phases in detail. The first phase discusses the generation of the proactive initiative and introduces system justification theory as a framework for understanding what factors influence whether proactive individuals choose to enact or drop their proactive initiatives. The second phase discusses the different

recruitment targets and recruitment tactics proactive employees can use to convince coworkers to join the collective action process for change implementation, as well as what occurs when coworkers do or do not choose to join. The third phase discusses the emergence of collective action teams from the various coworkers recruited piecemeal in the second phase, as well as factors which influence whether or not collective action teams emerge. Finally, the fourth phase outlines the various ways in which collective action teams can refine the proactive initiative, as well as deal with obstacles to its implementation.

THE NEED FOR A COLLECTIVE ACTION APPROACH TO PROACTIVITY

Proactive employees are those who identify opportunities or problems in the workplace and then engage in proactive behaviors to enact a change and improve their work environment (Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001). The proliferation of research on proactive behaviors has resulted in a rich repertoire of proactive behaviors through which employees can act on their initiative and create a change (see for example, Crant, 2000; Parker & Collins, 2010). Voice ("expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize"; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998: 109), taking charge ("voluntary and constructive efforts by individual employees to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed"; Morrison & Phelps, 1999: 403), and feedback seeking ("actively attending to evaluations from others and directly seeking verbal appraisals of their behavior"; Ashford & Cummings, 1983: 370) are some exemplars of the proactive behaviors through which employees can effect a change in their work environment.

To provide a unifying and organizing framework for the broad array of proactive behaviors in this literature, researchers have conceptualized a model known as the "proactivity process". The *proactivity process* is a three-stage process where employees anticipate

opportunities or problems, design a plan, and engage in actions to implement a change in their workplace (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; please see Figure 1). This process view provides an overarching and inclusive framework of proactive behaviors by highlighting that any behavior that involves *anticipation*, *planning*, and *implementation* – i.e., the three stages – is considered a proactive behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

The proactivity process is posited to unfold as follows. First, employees anticipate or look out for opportunities that would be beneficial to the organization or problems that would be detrimental to the organization (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). In doing so, they also anticipate the positive impact that will be created in the workplace by acting on the opportunity or by averting the problem. Second, employees develop a plan of action to outline the strategies that they will pursue to secure the opportunity or prevent the problem (Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Third, and finally, they put their plan into action and work towards implementing the proactive change (Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). In the process of implementing the change, proactive employees also engage in self-regulation (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010) to reflect on the effectiveness of their strategies and to determine whether to continue with their initial initiative or to modify the initiative based on feedback.

Taken together, over the years, the systematic and rigorous research on the proactivity process has enriched our understanding of the psychological mechanisms that underlie proactivity at the individual level – i.e., the proactive employee anticipates, plans, and implements the change. Yet although anticipation and planning for proactive change may take place at the individual level, the implementation of any significant change in the workplace usually cannot be done alone, given the change will likely impact other people in the workplace.

For example, the marketing executive (in the example earlier) would require the technical expertise of the design engineer to develop a product demonstration that would allow the team to effectively pitch the product to the sustainability institutes.

Given the complexity and interdependent nature of work (e.g., task interdependence, cross-functional collaborations), it is therefore likely that the proactive initiatives proposed by proactive employees have implications for the work tasks of the proactive employee's coworkers as well (i.e., they might need to take on additional tasks or change the way they are currently performing a task). Similarly, a single proactive employee likely does not have all the information, resources, skills, or power required to enact the change that they anticipated. As a result, proactive change may be resisted at best, or punished at worst. This reflects a popular notion in the proactivity literature wherein proactive efforts are viewed as possibly causing reprisal from organizational decision makers who view the proactive effort as a challenge to authority (Frese & Fay, 2001). Thus, viewing proactivity as purely an individual effort ignores both the interdependence of most organizational work and the difficulties this poses for implementing proactive initiatives. However, applying a collective perspective to proactive change efforts illustrates how the collective can overcome obstacles in the way of the initiative.

COLLECTIVE ACTION PROCESS FOR CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION –

CONSTRUCT OVERVIEW

To develop a collective action process for change implementation, it is important to first understand the notion of collective action. Collective action is defined as "individuals coordinating to act together to further a common interest [i.e., a social problem or social order; Tilly, 1978; King & Soule, 2007] which could not be achieved independently" (Wilhoit & Kisselburgh, 2015: 575; also see Becker & Tausch, 2015; Cornelissen & Werner, 2014;

McCarthy & Zald, 1977; Davis & Thompson, 1994; Davis & McAdam, 2000; Rao, Morrill, & Zald, 2000; Davis, McAdam, Scott, & Zald, 2005). Collective action is an action-oriented process that motivates individuals to participate in the change process (Benford & Snow, 2000). Individuals participate in collective action through behaviors that range from non-disruptive behaviors (e.g., petition signing, letter writing) to disruptive behaviors (e.g., protests, sit-ins, building occupation).

Applying the notion of collective action to the phenomenon of proactivity, I define a collective action process for change implementation as an unfolding, multi-level process where the proactive employee and his/her coworkers coordinate to achieve a common goal of implementing a change in the workplace. Specifically, this is a four-phase process where the proactive employee develops a proactive initiative, recruits his/her coworkers to participate in the change, and forms a team that works together to implement the proactive initiative (see Figure 2). As a result of this collective action process for change implementation, the proactive employee is able to harness the unique resources of different coworkers and enhance the legitimacy of the proactive initiative, improving its chances for implementation.

The Four Phases: A Brief Overview

First, the collective action process for change implementation starts with the proactive employee identifying an opportunity or problem in the work environment. This phase embodies the first and second stages of the proactivity process (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010), where the proactive employee anticipates the impact of the proactive initiative on the work environment and outlines a plan to implement the change. However, as a single proactive employee may not have all of the necessary skills or resources to independently implement a

change, he/she needs to bring in his/her coworkers who can contribute their unique resources to the change implementation.

Hence, in the second phase of the collective action process for change implementation, the main purpose is to recruit coworkers in a dyadic manner. Here the proactive employee reaches out to different coworkers such as their friends, teammates, mentors, or supervisors and aims to get their buy-in on the proactive initiative. Specifically, the employee would frame the proactive initiative in a way that would appeal to different audiences. Consequently, the proactive employee develops dyadic relationships with others who are interested in the proactive initiative and are willing to participate in implementing the change in the workplace.

In the third phase of this process, these disparate dyads come together to form a collective action team and to work together as a team to implement the change. A team starts to take shape when coworkers interact beyond their respective dyads and form connections with other coworkers who are part of the proactive initiative. As a result of being part of a team, members will experience cohesion (which motivates them to continue working towards implementing a change) and through working with each other they will develop a sense of collective efficacy (which gives them the faith that their collective efforts will lead to fruition). As a result, coworkers would be more likely to persist in using their unique resources to champion the change implementation.

Lastly, this process culminates in the implementation of the proactive change in the workplace. For the change to be successfully implemented, the collective action team members engage in different actions to increase the feasibility of implementing the change, and awareness of the proactive initiative among other coworkers. As a result of a combined effort the collective

action team will be more successful in implementing the change in the workplace than if the proactive employee had attempted to do so single-handedly.

The Moderating Role of the Organizational Environment

The aforementioned four-phase collective action process of change implementation outlines how what begins with an individual initiative unfolds into an implemented proactive initiative that results in the modification of existing work practices, processes, or policies. In this sense, the proactive initiative changes the status quo. For this reason, it is important to consider factors that might influence the extent to which people are willing to change the status quo. One theoretical framework that specifically deals with factors that influence our willingness to accept changes to the status quo is system justification theory.

Specifically, system justification theory posits that individuals are motivated to "believe that the prevailing structural arrangements that constitute the status quo are desirable and legitimate, and in order to maintain this belief, they…rationalize away these systems' defects" (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014: 174; also see Jost & Banaji, 1994; Kay, Jimenez, & Jost, 2002; Laurin, Kay & Fitzsimons, 2012). Individuals engage in system justification (i.e., they rationalize and defend their system) so as to avoid the anxiety and uncertainty that arises from acknowledging that their system is flawed (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). This motivation to defend the system by avoiding changes has important implications for both the proactive employee and his/her coworkers' motivation to participate in change implementation (i.e., changing the status quo to capture an opportunity or avert a problem). Specifically, when the proactive employee or his/her coworkers are motivated to defend their work system they would prefer to maintain the current system and refrain from initiating or participating in collective action process for change implementation. Thus, system justification theory provides an overarching framework to

examine when proactive employees initiate changes in the workplace and when coworkers will be willing to participate in change implementation.

Taken together, this collective action process for change implementation contributes to the proactivity literature in several ways. First, it builds on and extends the proactivity process by moving beyond individual processes to consider the dyadic, team, and system level influences that lead to effective change implementation. In doing so, the model explains why and how employees come together and champion a proactive initiative. Second, and as a result of employees coming together, this model highlights the importance of an emergent collective action team for employees to experience cohesion and confidence in their ability to transform their efforts into a successful outcome. Third, in addition to individual, dyadic, and team influences, this model also considers the role of the broader work system in which employees are situated by drawing on system justification theory to illuminate the role of the broader work system and its impact on proactive employees and others' inclination to engage in change implementation.

COLLECTIVE ACTION PROCESS FOR CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION – SCOPE CONDITIONS AND DIFFERENCES FROM OTHER CONSTRUCTS

Having outlined the core elements of the collective action process for change implementation, I will now outline the scope conditions for this process model. As constructs do not apply universally, I put forward two scope conditions (i.e., the "circumstances under which a construct will or will not apply" Suddaby, 2010: 347). First, a collective action process for change implementation is designed to apply within an organizational context where the aim is to understand how a proactive employee can mobilize participation from his/her coworkers and then effect a change in the workplace. Although the concept of collective action focuses on

effecting a change in the broader institutional environment (i.e., society, national government; e.g., Becker & Tausch, 2015) and is typically centered on the mobilization of individuals towards a social cause (Morrill, Zald, & Rao, 2003), the collective action process for change implementation is tailored specifically for proactive initiatives within organizations.

Second, a collective action process for change implementation would not apply to personal or individual career-related proactive initiatives, but rather applies only to those proactive initiatives that have the potential to impact other employees' work. For example, a proactive employee would not be able to mobilize his/her coworkers to participate in collective action to help the proactive employee attend training workshops to develop his/her own skills for a new job, as the impact on the coworkers would likely be minimal. In sum, these two scope conditions suggest that for coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, the initiative needs to be (a) work-related and (b) it should involve a shared purpose (i.e., an initiative that has an impact on the work of other employees as well).

Having highlighted the scope conditions for this process model, it is also necessary to differentiate this construct from other constructs within its nomological network ("semantic network of conceptual connections to other prior constructs"; Suddaby, 2010: 350). There are two main constructs that the collective action process for change implementation is related to: 1) the proactivity process, and 2) organizational change. First, the proactivity process (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010), as outlined earlier, describes the process through which an individual proactive employee identifies a proactive initiative, anticipates the impact of the proactive initiative on the workplace, designs a plan, and implements the plan to effect the change. While the collective action process for change implementation and the proactivity process both examine processes through which a proactive employee initiates and implements a

change, the former builds on and extends the proactivity process by highlighting the relational and system level influences on change implementation. Specifically, a collective action process for change implementation acknowledges the importance of the collective and the diversity of its resources, the role of a team, and impact of the broader work system on the successful implementation of a change in the workplace, while the proactivity process is largely silent on these issues. Thus, a collective action process for change implementation is conceptually connected to the proactivity process, but it goes beyond the latter to take a broader multilevel perspective on change implementation.

Second, organizational change refers to organizational decision makers' efforts to create a shift in the organization's practices by "establish[ing] conditions that are different from the current conditions" (Furst & Cable, 2008: 453). Although both the organizational change literature and the collective action process for change implementation deal with change in organizations, the approaches taken by each differ. Specifically, the organizational change literature typically examines top-down implementation of change as senior management identifies the broad level strategic changes that the organization needs to adopt (e.g., implementing changes to adapt to the "denationalization and deregulation of marketplaces" Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis, 2013: 111; see also Bercovitz, & Feldman, 2008; Furst & Cable, 2008). Thus, the organizational change literature focuses on ways in which managers can increase employees' support for (and reduce their resistance against) the change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). While organizational change focuses on the top-down implementation of change (i.e., senior management identifies necessary changes), a collective action process for change implementation is developed to address the bottom-up implementation of change (where the proactive employee identifies the change and mobilizes coworkers to enact the change).

Moreover, since organizational change efforts are geared at shifting the organization's current stance, the scope of changes dealt with in the organizational change literature are usually broader and may be less frequent (e.g., there may be a shift in the culture of the organization only every five to ten years). In contrast, a collective action process for change implementation may be used to pursue proactive initiatives which are less extensive in nature (thus occurring more frequently) but still create a meaningful impact on the organization (e.g., partnering with sustainability institutes is a relatively minor change but has important consequences for the organization).

Having briefly outlined the concept of collective action process for change implementation and differentiated it from related constructs, in what follows I describe in more specific detail the processes that unfold within each phase of the collective action process. This process spans across four phases. In the first phase, the proactive employee identifies an issue in the work environment and determines whether to pursue the issue by initiating collective action process for change implementation. In the second phase, having decided on pursuing the change, the proactive employee reaches out to other coworkers and attempts to recruit them to participate in implementing the change. In the third phase, having recruited dyads of coworkers, the proactive employee and the dyads work together to transition into a collective action team. In the last phase, the collective action team engages in behaviors that will help transform the proactive initiative from an idea to a feasible and tangible outcome.

PHASE 1: THE PROACTIVE INITIATIVE

The collective action process for change implementation begins when the proactive employee identifies an opportunity or problem in the work environment and decides to act on the opportunity or problem. In this sense, Phase 1 essentially encompasses the first two phases of the

proactivity process (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010). First, the proactive employee anticipates a change that can be created in the workplace by identifying opportunities for improving or enhancing work processes, or problems that would impede work processes (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010). The employee subsequently anticipates the long-term impact of the proactive initiative on the work environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010) and, after conducting a cost-benefit analysis to ensure it is worth expending personal and organizational resources to implement the change, the employee designs a plan for implementing the change (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010).

Returning to an earlier example, a marketing executive in the marketing team of an organization may detect an opportunity to increase awareness of the organization's green products by partnering with sustainability institutes in the country. This marketing executive may anticipate the proactive initiative would create a meaningful and long-lasting impact on public awareness and availability of the products, and in this sense has identified an idea for a change and envisioned the long-term impact of the change.

However, while a problem or opportunity may be detected and a potential proactive initiative may be envisioned, there is no guarantee that the employee will choose to take the next steps to enact the proactive initiative – that is, to begin to move from Phase 1 to Phase 2 of a collective action process for change implementation. In particular, I argue that organizational level factors play an important role in determining whether proactive employees will choose to pursue the proactive initiative. To understand the organizational or system level factors that will motivate proactive employees to pursue or discard the proactive initiative, I draw on system justification theory.

System justification theory posits that individuals possess a *system justification motive* – that is, they are motivated to "believe that the prevailing structural arrangements that constitute the status quo are desirable and legitimate" (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014: 174). This system justification motive can arise even if the status quo will lead to problems or missed opportunities, and even if the individual is personally disadvantaged by the status quo (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Kay, Jimenez, & Jost, 2002; Laurin, Kay & Fitzsimons, 2012). For example, female participants told about the unequal representation of women in business were nevertheless motivated to maintain the status quo (i.e., maintain the unequal gender representation) and even negatively evaluated those who were seen as violating or challenging the status quo, despite the fact that the status quo substantially disadvantaged them (Kay et al., 2009). The reason individuals engage in system justification (i.e., rationalizing and defending their system) is because individuals prefer to believe the systems they are involved in are legitimate, desirable, and optimal as this allows them to avoid the anxiety and uncertainty that arises from acknowledging that the system they are embedded in is flawed (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). Hence, individuals generally prefer to maintain the status quo (i.e., the way practices or policies currently are) rather than to change the status quo.

This motivation to defend the system by maintaining the status quo has important implications for proactivity, since the goal of the collective action process for change implementation is to alter the status quo to capture an opportunity or avert a problem. Consequently, system justification theory suggests that when system justification motives are activated, employees will be motivated to defend their organizational system (to manage the uncertainty and anxiety that comes with accepting that the organization and its policies or practices are faulty) and will therefore prefer to maintain the organization's current work

practices (i.e., the status quo) rather than embark on a collective action process for change implementation. Integrating research on system justification theory with the organizational literature, I argue there are three distinct organizational opportunity structures (i.e., characteristics of the organization and the environment that it is embedded in; Briscoe & Gupta, 2016) which influence the extent to which proactive employees' system justification motives are activated: *organizational threat*, *organizational stability*, and *external labor markets*.

Organizational Threat

Organizational threat refers to a context where the legitimacy of the organizational system is threatened (Kay et al., 2009; Cutright, Wu, Banfield, Kay, & Fitzsimons, 2011). In situations where there is such a threat from an external event, proactive employees are less likely to initiate a collective action process for change implementation owing to the sense of anxiety and uncertainty that accompany threatening external events. As anxiety and uncertainty activate the system justification motive, employees should try to maintain the status quo and reject possible changes.

Events such as mergers or acquisitions, scandals (e.g., sweatshop practices), and negative media representation (e.g., the negative image of British Petroleum following the Gulf of Mexico oil spill) constitute threatening external events that would motivate employees within the organization to defend their system and be averse to changes in the status quo (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). For example, in a health service organization that was involved in a scandal, employees expressed higher affective commitment and engaged in more organizational citizenship behaviors to boost the legitimacy of their organization, when they perceived the media coverage of the scandal to be highly threatening to the image of the organization (Riketta & Landerer, 2005). Similarly, individuals who read a passage that highlighted the shortcomings of their

country (e.g., quality of life, standard or living) were more motivated to support their country by choosing their national brands over international brands of products, than individuals who read a passage highlighting the merits of their country (Cutright et al., 2011).

Taken together, employees experience high organizational threat when an event challenges or threatens the optimal, legitimate, and desirable nature of the organizational system. Here, proactive employees would be motivated to defend the organizational system by maintaining the status quo (i.e., *not* initiating a collective action process for change implementation) so as to avoid the anxiety and uncertainty that comes with acknowledging the flaws in the organization which led to the threat (e.g., organizational scandal). On the other hand, proactive employees experience low organizational threat in the absence of any event that challenges or threatens the legitimacy of the organizational system. Here, proactive employees do not have a need to defend the organizational system and thus, they would be open to changing the status quo (i.e., initiating collective action process for change implementation).

Proposition 1: Organizational threat moderates the positive relationship between the proactive employee's issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of threat there is a weaker relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation; while at low levels of threat there is a stronger relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation.

Organizational Stability

Organizational stability refers to a context in which the system that individuals are embedded in is relatively stable and unchanging (Laurin, Gaucher, & Kay, 2013) – i.e., the practices, norms, and processes within the system have not been subject to change in a long

period of time. Military systems are prime examples of stable systems as certain military practices and traditions are strongly adhered to across time and change usually takes a long period of time. When individuals are a part of such a highly stable organizational system, they are motivated to defend the status quo because changes to the system would imply that the individual has been part of a longstanding system that is actually flawed, activating system justification motives.

Consequently, in highly stable organizational systems, proactive employees may be inclined to avoid the anxiety and uncertainty that follows from acknowledging that they belong to an organization that is stable yet also flawed. To illustrate, Johnson and Fujita (2012) found that individuals who were exposed to high organizational stability (i.e., they read about unsuccessful attempts to change the university's orientation program) were less confident about the possibility of future changes taking place in that university and less open to information on the weaknesses of the university, than those who were exposed to low organizational stability (i.e., they read about a more successful attempt to change the university's orientation program). This suggests that proactive employees who are motivated to justify the organizational system would be less willing to implement changes even if the changes will help avert problems or capitalize on opportunities.

In the presence of high organizational stability, proactive employees would be less inclined to initiate a collective action process for change implementation, as it would require acknowledging the presence of flaws in a system that has been relatively stable. In contrast, employees experience low organizational stability when they are in an organization that has recently experienced some changes to its work practices, policies, or processes; here proactive employees would be inclined to initiate a collective action process for change implementation

because system justification motives are less likely to be activated. Taken together, when there is high organizational stability, proactive employees are less likely to initiate a collective action process for change implementation, than when there is low organizational stability.

Proposition 2: Organizational stability moderates the positive relationship between the proactive employee's issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of stability there is a weaker relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation; while at low levels of stability there is a stronger relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation.

External Labor Markets

The strength of the external labor market in which the organization is embedded determines whether it is feasible for an individual to leave his/her organizational system (Kay et al., 2009; Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). When the external labor market is strong, employees find it easier to leave their organization as there are many job alternatives available. In contrast, when the external labor market is weak, employees find it difficult to leave their organization as there are fewer job alternatives available. This external labor market may also be a function of the type of industry that the organization is embedded in. The nature of certain industries may limit employees' opportunities to leave their organization and find alternative job arrangements (e.g., in specialized professions such as the Swiss watchmaking industry).

In a weak external labor market, employees are motivated to rationalize and defend their current organizational system to avoid the anxiety that comes with acknowledging that they are "stuck" in a system that they are not able to escape from; moreover, acknowledging that a system they are "stuck" in may also be flawed is likely to be profoundly anxiety-inducing (Proudfoot &

Kay, 2014). For example, informing employees of the weak external labor market motivated them to defend their organizational system by overlooking and downplaying the flaws or inefficiencies in their company and highlighting the merits of the company, compared to those informed of a strong external labor market (Proudfoot, Kay, & Mann, 2015). Thus, when there is a weak external labor market, proactive employees would be inclined to rationalize the flaws in their organization and support the current status quo by not initiating a collective action process for change implementation. In contrast, when there is a strong external labor market, proactive employees would not be inclined to rationalize the flaws in their organization and would be more likely to initiate a collective action process for change implementation.

Proposition 3: The strength of external labor markets moderates the positive relationship between the proactive employee's issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation such that in weak external labor markets there is a weaker relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation; while in strong external labor markets there is a stronger relationship between issue detection and initiation of a collective action process for change implementation.

To summarize the first three propositions, the proactive employee ultimately must make a decision on whether he/she should initiate a collective action process for change implementation, or whether he/she should drop the proactive initiative. This decision is influenced by the presence of high organizational threat, high organizational stability, or a weak external labor market, such that proactive employees may become demotivated and may decide to drop the proactive initiative. However, should the employee initiate a collective action process for change implementation, the second phase of the process entails reaching out to coworkers and recruiting them to participate in implementing the change.

PHASE 2: RECRUITING FOR COLLECTION ACTION

Having decided on pursuing the proactive initiative, in Phase 2 the proactive employee would then engage in a course of action to implement the change. However, as a single proactive employee may not have all the skills or resources to single-handedly implement the change, it becomes important to bring together other employees to successfully implement the change. For example, while the marketing executive may have the necessary skills to develop a business proposal, he/she may not have the technical expertise to present the products to the sustainability institutes nor the power to allocate financial resources to implement the change. Therefore to successfully transform the proactive idea into a tangible outcome, the proactive employee will need the active participation of other employees.

While Phase 1 of a collective action process for change implementation entails proactive employees anticipating and planning for the change, in Phase 2 employees begin efforts to implement the change by recruiting other employees to participate. By reaching out to other employees, proactive employees can get their buy-in and commitment to actively participate in championing the proactive initiative. As part of this process, I argue that the different targets (i.e., different coworkers) the proactive employee approaches and the framing of the proactive initiative the proactive employee uses influences the emotional and motivational reactions of their coworkers. In turn, these reactions determine the proactive employee's ability to successfully recruit coworkers and proceed to Phase 3.

Recruitment Targets

Proactive employees recruit coworkers for a collective action process for change implementation by first identifying the different targets that they can reach out to. The nature of the proactive initiative will determine which target(s) the proactive employee will reach out to.

For example, if a computer programmer detects a bug in a new web application that the team is developing, then he/she will need to reach out to his/her team members to fix the problem as opposed to reaching out to middle management. Thus, contingent on the nature of the change, the proactive employee will reach out to different targets to leverage on the different resources that these targets may be able to contribute. In general, I argue proactive employees need to target one of two types of recruitment targets: those whose work is directly impacted by the change (e.g., fellow team members and/or subordinates) and those upper-management employees who have the power to help make the case for the change (e.g., mentors and/or influential organizational decision makers).

For the former, recruiting those whose work is directly impacted by the change is needed to get the buy-in of those whose cooperation is critical for change implementation. For example, when the marketing executive is planning to partner with sustainability institutes, he/she needs to reach out to his/her marketing colleagues as these teammates' work processes will be affected as they will need to facilitate the marketing and advertising aspects of the partnership. Reaching out to and getting the buy-in of coworkers who might be affected by the change decreases resistance to the change and thus increases the likelihood of the change being successfully implemented. Moreover, by reaching out to those whose work is directly impacted by the change, the proactive employee gains access to individuals who possess unique task related information or expertise needed for the proactive change. For example, the marketing executive would need to reach out to product developers in the research and design team as they possess the technical expertise to create a demo of the product to display to the sustainability institutes. In recruiting these individuals who have expertise or unique information, the likely success of the proactive initiative is increased as these coworkers will be able to troubleshoot potential problems and also

lend credibility to the change effort (e.g., Baldwin, Bedell, & Johnson, 1997; Brass, 1984; Sparrowe & Liden, 2005).

For the latter, recruiting those upper-management employees who have the power to help make the case for the change is needed to get the buy-in of individuals who have the power to allocate resources and advocate for the change at senior levels of management. As employees are trying to implement change from lower levels of the organization (as opposed to acting on changes instituted by senior management), they have to lobby support from senior management for resources required to implement the change. Owing to the power and status differentials between lower level employees and senior management, employees may be hesitant or may not have direct connections to senior management (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009; Venkataramani, Zhou, Wang, Liao, & Shi, 2016). However, getting the buy-in of influential organizational decision makers is critical so these individuals can use their higher status and information on the organization's strategic interests to more effectively advocate for the proactive initiative and garner more recognition and legitimacy for the proactive initiative among senior management (Howell, Harrison, Burris, & Detert, 2015).

Framing the Change: Reinforcing or Altering the Status Quo

In addition to identifying recruitment targets, the proactive employee needs to decide how to frame the proactive initiative so as to motivate the recruitment target to take part in the proactive initiative – i.e., to achieve the "buy-in" referenced in the prior section. While a proactive employee may identify opportunities or problems in his/her workplace, the extent to which recruitment targets also see these opportunities or problems as valuable and important enough depends on how the proactive employee frames the opportunity or problem. An initiative that is framed ineffectively could in fact turn targets against the initiative and motivate them to

defend the current work practices by not implementing the change. Therefore, proactive employees need to be cognizant about how they frame the proactive initiative.

I draw on the social activism literature to outline the framing strategies that proactive employees can use to mobilize individuals to participate in a collective action process for change implementation (e.g., Tilly, 1978; King & Soule, 2007; McCarthy & Zald, 1977; Davis and Thompson, 1994; Davis & McAdam, 2000; Rao, Morrill, & Zald, 2000; Davis et al., 2005). The concept of *insider activism* (where employees within an organization identify social issues that need to be improved, mobilize their resources, and promote the change to the organizational decision makers; Meyerson & Scully, 1995), is particularly related to employee proactivity as these concepts both involve change agents within the organization (i.e., insider activists or proactive employees). Owing to their membership within the organization, these employees have access to in-depth information on the organization (e.g., business goals, business values, decision makers' preferences) while at the same time are limited in the type of actions that they can pursue since they are dependent on the organization for resources such as their salary (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016). As employees are resource dependent on their organization they would be less likely to engage in disruptive tactics (e.g., protests, sit-ins) but more likely to use non-disruptive tactics (e.g., letter writing) and leverage their information advantage to frame the proactive initiative in ways that would appeal strongly to their coworkers (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016).

Integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature, I argue that a major determinant of the effectiveness of framing strategies in mobilizing coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation is the extent to which the proactive initiative is framed as one that *reinforces the status quo*. When a proactive initiative is framed as reinforcing the status quo, the proactive employee is signaling to other employees that

the proposed change is one that builds on and strengthens the existing status quo in the organizational system. For example, when advocating for an anti-discrimination policy in the workplace, employees framed the change (i.e., the inclusion of the policy) as one that will benefit and bolster the existing the culture and norms of the company (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002). In doing so, it reassures other employees that implementing the proposed change is one that economically rational for the organization (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002). As a result, these employees will be more inclined to participate in implementing the proactive initiative.

In contrast, when a proactive initiative is framed as *altering the status quo*, the proactive employee is signaling to employees that there is a fault in the current status quo in the organization which needs to be remedied through introducing a new work process or work goal. For example, if employees had lobbied for the anti-discrimination policy by highlighting that the company needs to not only focus on profit maximization goals but also focus on civil rights protection in the workplace, then these employees are emphasizing that the current work practices are sub-optimal and that a change is needed to fix the problem. However, highlighting that the organizational system is sub-optimal will activate employees' motivation to defend and justify the status quo. This is because acknowledging that one is part of and dependent on an organization that is flawed evokes anxiety and a lack of control over one's environment (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; Kay, Gaucher, Napier, Callan, & Laurin, 2008). To reduce this anxiety, then employees will then be motivated to rationalize away the flaws and defend the status quo by not participating in the proactive initiative.

This distinction between framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing and altering the status quo is crucial for proactivity because proactive change is sometimes seen as "rocking the boat" or challenging the current work processes, practices, or policies (Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant,

2013) by highlighting a problem or an opportunity that the organization has not acted upon. Thus, the very nature of proactive initiatives invites coworkers to perceive these initiatives as a challenge, which then leads to coworkers' motivation to rationalize existing work practices and to resist the proactive change. In addition, mobilizing coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation itself also primes a notion of challenging the organization as participation suggests that there *is* a fault or shortcoming in the system that needs to be overcome. As result, the nature of proactive initiatives and invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation both signal a challenge to the organizational system and trigger coworkers' motivation to maintain a system. Hence, to steer away from this motivation to resist the change, proactive employees need to expressly highlight how the proactive initiative will reinforce the existing status quo.

Taking together, framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing rather than altering the current status quo will have important implications for coworker's participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Specifically, when a proactive employee introduces the proactive initiative as strengthening the current status quo, employees will be motivated to participate in the proactive initiative. In contrast, when a proactive employee introduces the proactive initiative as changing or altering the current status quo, employees will be motivated to defend the existing status quo by not participating in the proactive initiative. More generally, I propose the following:

Proposition 4: Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in an organizational system will be more likely to motivate employees to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, than framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in an organizational system.

Framing the Change: Strategic Work Systems or Personal Work Systems

The effectiveness of the framing strategy in mobilizing coworkers also depends on matching the recruitment target to the framing of the business case. When recruitment targets are upper-management employees who have the power to help make the case for the change, framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the strategic work system is likely to be effective. In contrast, when recruitment targets are at lower levels of management – including, often, those whose work is directly impacted by the change – framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in the personal work system is likely to be effective. In this sense, tailoring the proactive initiative to suit the needs and interests of the target audience increases favorability towards the proactive initiative.

When the proactive employee frames the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in the strategic work system, he/she is in effect highlighting to higher levels of management the economic rationality of the change and how the change relates to the norms in the organization (Briscoe & Safford 2008; Meyer, Boli, Thomas, & Ramirez, 1997; Zald, Morrill, & Rao, 2005; Stryker, 2003) – i.e., the proactive employee is emphasizing that the change builds on and is service of the status quo in a strategic work system. The status quo in a strategic work system is one that comprises the strategic work practices and strategic work goals of the organization. Proactive employees can capitalize on information regarding what is valuable and central to the organization (e.g., the company's ten-year strategic plan) and use it to their advantage by emphasizing how the initiative helps to achieve these. Consequently, employees at higher levels of management will be more open to participating in a collective action process for change implementation. To illustrate, corporate ethics officers advocating for a modification to the current ethical practices were more successful when they framed these ethical practices as being

in line with the definition of ethics espoused by the company (Scully & Meyerson, 1993).

Therefore framing a proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in the strategic work system

will be effective in recruiting higher levels of management to participate in implementing the

initiative.

Alternatively, when proactive employees want to recruit coworkers whose work is

directly impacted by the change – typically those at lower levels of the organization – they need

to frame the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in the personal work system. In

doing so, the proactive employee is emphasizing that the change builds on and is service of the

status quo in a personal work system. The status quo in a personal work system is one that

comprises work practices and work goals that allow the coworker to carry out his/her job tasks.

At lower levels of the organization, performance on these personal work goals or adherence to

work practices are central to coworkers' performance evaluation. As a result, they will be more

attuned to their personal work goals (e.g., sales targets) than that of the organization's (i.e.,

strategic work goals). Here, proactive employees can capitalize on information and interests that

is valuable and central to the employees (i.e., their personal work goals) and use it to their

advantage by emphasizing how the initiative helps to achieve these. Consequently, employees at

lower levels of management will be more open to participating in a collective action process for

change implementation.

In contrast, the personal work goals and the strategic goals of the organization more

closely converge at higher levels of management. In this sense, at higher levels of management, a

proactive initiative that is framed as reinforcing the status quo in the strategic work system is

more likely to also be seen as one that reinforces the status quo in the personal work system.

However, the same approach (i.e., framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in

a strategic work system) is unlikely to motivate employees at lower levels of the organization to view the proactive initiative as one that also reinforces the status quo in the personal work system. As a result, to recruit employees at lower levels of the organization, it is especially important that the proactive initiative is framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system. More generally, I propose the following:

Proposition 5: Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system will be more likely to motivate employees at higher levels of management, than employees at lower levels of management, to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Proposition 6: Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more likely to motivate employees at lower levels of management, than employees at higher levels of management, to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

In summary, this suggests that when the proactive employee is aiming to recruit coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, the employee needs to tailor the framing of the proactive initiative in two ways. First, the proactive initiative should be framed as reinforcing the status quo as opposed to altering the status quo. Specifically, if framed as building on and strengthening the existing status quo, as opposed to radically changing or disrupting the status quo, the proactive employee will be more effective in mobilizing and recruiting coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Second, the proactive initiative should be framed as reinforcing the status quo in either the strategic work system or the personal work system, with the former being more effective for recruiting those upper-management employees who have the power to help make

the case for the change, and the latter being more effective for recruiting those whose work is directly impacted by the change.

Evoking Emotions

Apart from using an appropriate framing, proactive employees can mobilize coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation by evoking an emotional experience[1] in their coworkers. To preview my arguments, I will use an approach/avoidance framework of emotion to argue that evoking approach-based emotions will be more effective at motivating coworkers to take action by participating in a collective action process for change implementation than avoidance-based emotions. Proactive employees may evoke these approach or avoidance emotions by highlighting whether the proactive initiative reinforces or alters the current status quo. Specifically, by highlighting that the proactive initiative reinforces the status quo, proactive employees evoke approach emotions (e.g., positive affect) in their coworkers that will motivate them to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. In contrast, by highlighting that the proactive initiative alters the status quo, proactive employees evoke avoidance emotions (e.g., negative affect) in their coworkers that will motivate them to avoid participating in a collective action process for change implementation. In what follows, I examine the role of approach/avoidance emotions in motivating coworkers' to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Approach and avoidance are basic distinctions in human cognition, affect, and behavior (Elliot, 2006; Elliot & Covington, 2001) – where approach represents a tendency to move

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[1] This chapter focuses on proactive employees' attempts to evoke emotions in their coworkers' as opposed to proactive employees' display of these emotions. This is an important distinction because proactive employees' display of negative emotions, in particular, has been documented to engender negative reactions in one's supervisor. For example supervisors gave less credit (i.e., higher performance evaluations) to employee's proactive behavior when these employees exhibited high levels of negative affect than low levels of negative affect (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). Thus when proactive employees display their negative affect they divert their supervisor's attention from the proactive initiative and instead create a resistance against the initiative (Detert & Ashford, 2015). In contrast, this chapter focuses on proactive employees' attempts to evoke emotional experiences in their coworkers to motivate them to take action by participating in a collective action process for change implementation.

towards stimuli whereas avoidance represents a tendency to move away from stimuli. Approach/avoidance also serves as a framework for organizing emotions by classifying the type of behaviors that these emotional experiences engender. Specifically, approach emotions activate an individual's action tendencies by motivating them to engage in action to pursue a stimuli (Ferris, Yan, Lim, Chen, & Fatimah, 2016; Lerner & Keltner, 2001). In contrast, avoidance emotions activate an individual's avoidance tendencies and motivate them to avoid the stimuli by moving away from it (Watson et al., 1999; Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Lerner & Keltner, 2001).

Proactive employees evoke approach emotions in their coworkers when they emphasize that the proactive initiative is one that reinforces that status quo in which employees are embedded. Here, the proactive initiative is seen as strengthening and bolstering the functions of the current system; thus suggesting that the change is one that is favorable and likely to be well received by others (e.g., Burris, 2012). As a result, these positive aspects of the proactive initiative will evoke positive affect in coworkers. Experiencing positive affect will motivate coworkers to engage in approach behaviors or to take action towards the favorable situation (e.g., Nifadkar, Tsui, & Ashforth, 2012). Therefore evoking positive affect through framing the change as reinforcing the current status quo will motivate coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation so as to enact the change that bolsters the functions of the organization or the personal work goals of the employees.

In contrast, when proactive employees highlight that the proactive initiative is one that alters the current status quo, they evoke avoidance emotions such as negative affect in their coworkers. Coworkers will experience negative affect as the proactive initiative signals that the system in which they are embedded is not adequate or that it is flawed – thus requiring a shift in the current goals to rectify the gap or inadequacy in the current system. When coworkers

experience negative affect (i.e., emotions that engender movement away from an event or action; e.g., Nifadkar et al., 2012) they are motivated to rationalize and defend the existing system and its practices. Thus, they will be motivated to maintain the current strategic goal or personal work goal and not participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Proposition 7: Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a) the personal work system or b) the strategic work system will evoke approach emotions in coworkers which will engender their participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

Proposition 8: Framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a) the personal work system or b) the strategic work system will evoke avoidance emotions in coworkers which will inhibit their participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

Although the framing of the proactive initiative and the emotions that it engender may motivate coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, several organizational level factors may limit coworkers' participation in the process. As the proactive employee and his/her coworkers are embedded in the same organizational environment, the same organizational factors that will affect the proactive employee's decision to pursue the proactive initiative will also affect coworkers' decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Specifically, organizational factors such as the presence of threatening external events, organizational stability, and the external labor market play an important role in determining whether coworkers' will participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

First, coworkers experience high organizational threat when an event challenges or threatens the legitimacy of the organizational system (e.g., mergers and acquisition). Here,

coworkers will be motivated to defend the organizational system (i.e., *not* participating in a collective action process for change implementation) so as to avoid the anxiety and uncertainty that comes with acknowledging the flaws in the organization. On the other hand, coworkers experience low organizational threat in the absence of any event that challenges or threatens the legitimacy of the organizational system. Here, coworkers do not have a need to defend the organizational system and thus, they would be open to participating in a collective action process for change implementation).

Proposition 9: Organizational threat moderates the positive relationship between the proactive employee's recruitment attempts and coworker's decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of threat there is a weaker relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate; at low levels of threat there is a stronger relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate.

Second, in the presence of high organizational stability, coworkers would be less inclined to participate in a collective action process for change implementation as it would require acknowledging the presence of flaws in a system that has been relatively stable and resistant to change. In contrast, employees experience low organizational stability when they are in an organization which has recently experienced some changes to its work practices, policies, or processes; here coworkers would be inclined to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Taken together, when there is high organizational stability, coworkers are less likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, than when there is low organizational stability.

Proposition 10: Organizational stability moderates the positive relationship between the

proactive employee's recruitment attempts and coworker's decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of stability there is a weaker relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate; at low levels of stability there is a stronger relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate.

Lastly, in a weak external labor market, employees are motivated to rationalize and defend their current organizational system to avoid the anxiety that comes with acknowledging that the system that they are not able to escape from is also flawed (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). Specifically, when there is a weak external labor market, employees are inclined to rationalize the flaws in their organization and resist the proactive change by not participating in a collective action process for change implementation. In contrast, when there is a strong external labor market, employees are not inclined to rationalize the flaws in their organization and would be more likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Proposition 11: The strength of external labor markets moderates the positive relationship between the proactive employee's recruitment attempts and coworker's decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation such that in weak external labor markets there is a weaker relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate; in strong external labor markets there is a stronger relationship between the recruitment attempts and the decision to participate.

When Coworkers Say No: Choosing to Abandon or Persist with the Proactive Initiative

After reaching out to their coworkers to recruit them to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, the proactive employee needs to determine if there is sufficient support for the implementation of the change. If there is an insufficient number of

coworkers who are interested in participating in a collective action process for change implementation, then the proactive employee needs to decide if they want to terminate the proactive initiative or persist with the proactive initiative by modifying the proactive initiative and reaching out to a different set of coworkers. Modifying the proactive initiative may involve taking the feedback and experience that they gathered from attempting to recruit coworkers earlier to adapt the proactive initiative to better appeal to the interests and goals of fellow coworkers.

Whether or not the employee decides to persist with or abandon the proactive initiative likely depends on a number of factors (e.g., self-efficacy); one particularly relevant factor for persisting with proactivity is whether an individual is dispositionally proactive or not. Employees with a proactive personality are those who scan for opportunities, show initiative, take action, and persevere until they reach closure by bringing about change (Bateman & Crant, 1993: 105). As a result of this dispositional inclination to identify and persevere in enacting a change in their work environment, employees with a strong proactive personality are more likely to persist with the proactive initiative than employees with a weak proactive personality. Specifically, employees with a strong proactive personality will be more likely to persist with their proactive initiative by modifying and refining the initiative such that it more effectively appeals to other coworkers.

Proposition 12: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between the coworker's rejection to participate in a collective action process for change implementation and the proactive employee's decision to persist with the proactive initiative such that for proactive employees' with strong proactive personality there is a positive relationship between the coworker's rejection and the decision to persist; for proactive employees' with weak proactive

personality there is a negative relationship between the coworker's rejection and the decision to persist.

When Coworkers Say Yes: Spillover Recruitment

In the event that coworkers are on board with the proactive initiative and willing to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, the proactive employee continues to the third phase of the process where they attempt to bring together the dyads of coworkers to form a collective action team. Parallel with this, I argue that the coworkers who have been convinced to participate are likely to engage in *spillover recruitment*. That is, when proactive employees have successfully recruited coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, these coworkers may also be inspired to recruit other coworkers. Having observed the framing strategies that the proactive employee is using, the recruited coworkers may reach out to their peers and supervisors and use similar strategies to recruit them to implement the change. As a single proactive employee is limited the extent of their connections to others in the organization, spillover recruitment can play a role in spreading the word of the change implementation to others within the organization. As a result, the diversity of coworkers, resources, and skillsets available to participate in a collective action process for change implementation increases.

Proposition 13: Targets who have been successfully recruited will be more likely to recruit other coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, than targets who declined the proactive employee's invitation to participate.

PHASE 3: MOBILIZING A COLLECTIVE ACTION TEAM

After getting the buy-in of coworkers and recruiting them to participate in the implementing the change, in Phase 3 the disparate dyads of recruited coworkers form a collective

action team. A collective action team is a team of coworkers who share a similar goal of implementing the proactive initiative in the workplace. Specifically, a collective action team is the result of an emergent process where dyads of coworkers (e.g., friends, mentors, supervisors), brought together by the proactive employee, begin to interact across the respective dyads and a team emerges to implement the change. For example, when the design engineer, corporate outreach manager, and marketing team manager (who were recruited by the marketing executive) start interacting with each other to implement the change, it results in the emergence of a collective action team.

In line with current definitions of teams (Humphrey & Aime, 2014), collective action teams can be described as a social arrangement within which coworkers brought together by the proactive employee are embedded. Collective action teams are fluid, as coworkers who are brought into this collective action team may choose to stay or leave the team throughout a collective action process of change implementation. The collective action team is also dynamic, as these coworkers may also start to take on different roles within the team as they engage in the process of implementing the change. For example, while the marketing executive may have been the one to bring everyone together, given the nature of the proactive initiative, the corporate outreach manager might move on to play a bigger role in liaising between the organization and potential sustainability institutes with whom the organization wishes to partner with.

As I shall outline in Phase 4, for the successful implementation of change it is vital that a collective action team emerges. Hence, in the following, I will outline the various mechanisms that will enable dyads of coworkers to transition and form a collective action team. Specifically, task interdependence and cohesion-promoting structures allow for the development of interdependence and cohesion necessary for teams to emerge and retain members.

Task Interdependence

Task interdependence represents "the degree to which task work is designed so that members depend upon one another for access to critical resources and create workflows that require coordinated action" (Courtright, Thurgood, Stewart, & Pierotti, 2015: 1828). I argue that collective action teams are more likely to emerge to the extent that the proactive initiative requires a high degree of task interdependence among those participating in a collective action process for change implementation. The presence of high task interdependence paves a path for disparate dyads of coworkers to interact and work with other coworkers who are similarly interested in implementing the change. Specifically, when coworkers work together on interdependent tasks they are exchanging unique information, skills or resources that is required to complete the task. For example, a single marketing executive would not have all the information that is required to develop the proposal for the sustainability partnership, thus he/she is dependent on the unique information that the corporate outreach manager would be able to provide. Hence, when the marketing executive and the corporate outreach manager are working together to develop a proposal, they are reliant on the unique set of resources that each is bringing to the table to develop a well-thought out proposal that would gain the confidence of organizational decision makers for the feasibility of the initiative.

As a result of being task interdependent, these coworkers would have an opportunity to meet and develop ties with other coworkers who are working towards the same objective. On the other hand, if coworkers worked on tasks independently, they would have fewer opportunities for interaction with other coworkers working towards the same goal. As task interdependence is fundamental element of teams (Humphrey & Aime, 2014), in the absence of task interdependence, a collective action team may not emerge from the disparate dyads of

coworkers.

Proposition 14: Proactive initiatives that require high task interdependence are more likely to foster the emergence of collective action teams than proactive initiatives that require low task interdependence.

Cohesion-Promoting Structures

Cohesion-promoting structures are characteristics of the organization and the environment that promote the development of cohesion ("strength of the interpersonal bond between team members as indicated by their level of attraction and commitment to one another"; Courtright et al., 2015: 1829) within a team. Given collective action teams are fluid, with members able to join or leave at any time, maintaining team membership is important to take advantage of the benefits teams provide for implementation of the proactive initiative (see Phase 4). Below, I outline how using free spaces or repurposing existing organizational routines represent cohesion-promoting structures that maintain a sense of cohesion in collective action teams.

Free spaces are defined as meeting places where proponents of a change come together to plan their change implementation strategies and in the process forge their identity as change agents (Johnston, 2011; Rao & Dutta, 2012; Kellogg, 2009). Examples of free spaces include break out rooms, cafés that are within or near the office, and technology that allows coworkers to virtually create their own free spaces (e.g., Skype, intra-office chat rooms). These free spaces "assemble people and empower collectives for often-risky action…sheer assembly of people provides social proof of the willingness of others to participate" (Rao & Dutta, 2012: 630). By providing an opportunity for coworkers to gather and develop ties with others who are working towards the same goal of implementing a change in the workplace, free spaces create

opportunities for coworkers to meet, interact, and develop stronger relationships with each other.

To illustrate, a marketing executive, corporate outreach manager, and design engineer may have little opportunity to meet and interact if their roles position them in distant office spaces. With a free space, these coworkers have a common space to meet, share ideas, and work on tasks that are necessary for the change to be implemented. These free spaces thus enable team members to develop cohesive relationships with their peers who are working towards the same goal. In the absence of this cohesion, the disparate dyads of coworkers may be more likely to leave the collective action team.

Apart from free spaces, employees can use their knowledge of the company's routines or existing work structures to mobilize coworkers to develop a collective action team (Briscoe & Gupta, 2016; Kellogg, 2011; Banaszak, 2010). For example, to implement a change in the work practices of surgical residents that will benefit not only the residents but also the safety of patients, hospital staff across various positions (e.g., chiefs, residents, interns) came together to leverage on an existing routine (i.e., afternoon rounds or meetings) to gather face to face and discuss their plans to execute the change (Kellogg, 2011). Similarly, employees can leverage on the presence of certain routines in their team, department, or organization to meet other coworkers and work together to implement the change. Repurposing existing routines to meet fellow change agents will give these coworkers opportunities to develop cohesive relationships with coworkers who are working towards the shared goal of implementing change in the workplace.

Proposition 15: The presence of cohesion-promoting structures is more likely to foster the emergence of collective action teams the absence of cohesion-promoting structures.

To this point I have outlined how a collective action team may emerge from the variety of coworkers recruited in Phase 2, by virtue of interdependent tasks and cohesion-promoting structures. At the same time, the emergence of this collective action team is dependent on the nature of the proactive initiative – such that certain proactive initiatives may not require employees to work together as a team to effect a change. For example, the chair of an academic department with a proactive initiative of introducing a new academic minor program may reach out to different faculty members to design the different aspects of this minor – these faculty (with expertise in different subject areas) may work independently as they craft different courses for the minor program. Thus the employees or change agents need not interact, share task responsibilities, or be part of a cohesive collective action team for the change to be enacted successfully. However, as I will outline in Phase 4, where possible the development of a collective action team will generally be beneficial for the successful implementation of the proactive initiative because the existence of a collective action team provides a number of advantages that cannot be achieved in the absence of such a team.

PHASE 4: INITIATIVE REFINEMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

Following the successful development of a collective action team, in Phase 4 team members engage in behaviors that enable them to develop and successfully implement the change. The main goal at this phase would be to improve the proactive initiative (as needed) and engage in behaviors that increase the initiative's odds of success. For example, a collective action team may make the sustainability partnership initiative more tangible and feasible by reaching out to intra- or inter-organizational networks to gather more information on similar outreach efforts, researching on sustainability institutes that the organization could partner with, and setting up phone meetings with institutes to gauge their interest or a demand for such

partnerships. By taking action through a variety of behaviors, the collective action team will be able to refine the proactive initiative and increase the feasibility of its implementation in the workplace. In the following I discuss several possible types of behaviors that collective action team members may engage in to enact the change in their workplace. Specifically, I propose that collective action team members may engage in idea refinement, feedback seeking, taking charge, and voice behaviors as means to develop and implement the change in the workplace.

First, collective action team members may engage in idea refinement by sharing their ideas to improve the proactive initiative. As different employees possess unique information about the work environment owing to their task expertise, task related relationships with different coworkers, and knowledge of the organization, these employees will be able to help identify any shortcomings in the proactive initiative and offer suggestions to refine it such that it better addresses the needs of the organization and preferences of the organizational decision makers. Being able to participate in shaping the meaning and content of the proactive initiative also increases team members' sense of autonomy and ownership over the change process (Van Wijk, Stam, Elfring, Zietsma, & Den Hond, 2013). As a result, they would be more motivated to persist in the collective action team to bring their proactive initiative to fruition.

Second, and relatedly, collective action team members with access to unique information and social networks in the organization may be able to seek feedback on the proactive initiative through reaching out to these diverse social relationships at work. Specifically, these team members can seek feedback on the proactive initiative from the employees that they share work tasks with or from employees whom they go to for advice or guidance on work related matters (Sparrowe, Liden, Wayne, & Kraimer, 2001). These employees may possess important information related to the task, organization, and/or organizational decision makers' preferences

and values (e.g., Baldwin, Bedell, & Johnson, 1997; Brass, 1984; Sparrowe & Liden, 2005). As a result, seeking feedback from these diverse groups of employees might be valuable in refining the proactive initiative such that it is more feasible and useful for the organization. For example, when sustainability activists formed relationships and sought feedback from employees within the tourism industry, they leveraged on the employees' information to adapt their sustainable tourism initiative such that it was feasible and did not impose too many constraints on the industry's practices (Van Wijk et al., 2013). Such feedback behaviors are important especially since proactive attempts to introduce changes that are inappropriate or unsuitable for the organization will be futile and will be met with resistance from the organization (Chan, 2006). Hence, collective action team members may seek feedback from other employees at work to improve the proactive initiative and enhance its feasibility in the eyes of the organizational decision makers.

Third, and in addition to seeking feedback, collective action team members may also take charge of certain tasks that are necessary for the change to be successfully implemented. Taking charge "entails voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999: 403). Collective action team members may take charge by taking ownership for specific tasks that need to be completed to increase the feasibility of the proactive initiative. For example, the design engineer could take on the responsibility of preparing the product demonstration, which could be used when pitching the proposal to organizational decision makers or to the decision makers at the sustainability institutes. This design engineer might then coordinate with his/her R&D teammates to develop and troubleshoot a product demonstration. As a result of different collective action team

members coming forward to take charge of aspects of the change implementation that they are best suited for, the proactive initiative starts to move from an idea or planning stage to a more tangible outcome that is highly feasible. As an individual proactive employee may not have all the skills or knowledge necessary to effect the change, his/her coworkers could use their unique skills to take responsibility for tasks that are within their area of expertise and thus aid in translating the proactive initiative into a reality.

Lastly, and apart from taking charge, collective action team members may also engage in voice behaviors to raise awareness and increase support for the proactive initiative. Voice behaviors refer to employees' "making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures even when others disagree" (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998: 109). Given the challenging nature of voice behaviors, the characteristics of the employee speaking up about the proactive initiative plays an important role. For example, an employee's status plays a critical role in whether his/her supervisor recognizes their voice behavior – i.e., individual who earned their status within the organization (e.g., leadership position) will be more likely to be recognized and credited for their voice behaviors than those who possess different organizational status cues (Howell et al., 2015). A single proactive employee may not possess all the social cues necessary to successfully garner the recognition and attention needed for the proactive initiative to be taken seriously and subsequently implemented. Therefore, collective action team members who possess higher status within the organization (e.g., supervisor, team managers) may be more effective in voicing the proactive initiative to middle management.

Dealing with Obstacles

Through engaging in idea refinement, feedback seeking, taking charge, and voice behaviors, the collective action team members are able to bring together their diverse strengths to

champion for the change implementation. The concerted efforts of the collective plays an important role in enhancing the importance and legitimacy of the proactive initiative, thus motivating organizational decision makers to approve the change implementation. However, the proactive initiative may nevertheless encounter obstacles which hinder its implementation in the organization. These obstacles may range from a lack of involvement from employees within the organization to organizational decision makers arguing that it is not the right time to implement the change, as proactive initiatives are often seen as risky and 'rocking the boat' (Frese & Fay, 2001).

In the face of such obstacles, the presence of a collective action team facilitates persisting with a collective action process for change implementation. When they are part of the collective action team, team members are aware that other coworkers are also involved in this process and observe that these coworkers are also contributing their unique resources to enhance the legitimacy and viability of the proactive initiative. As a result, coworkers would experience greater collective efficacy in the team's abilities to ultimately successfully implement the initiative. In addition, the higher team cohesion involved in collective action teams enhances their sense of belonging and purpose, thus motivating them to persist in being part of the team. Hence, coworkers who are part of the collective action team would be motivated to persist in their efforts to implement the change in the workplace. In this sense, the cohesion and efficacy associated with being a member of a collective action team illustrates why collective action teams are likely to be more successful at implementing proactive initiatives, compared to a lone individual or a series of dyadic relationships. Furthermore, as a collective action team can be conceived of as a system that coworkers are embedded in, the goal of implementing the change may itself become the status quo that coworkers will be motivated to maintain and persist on.

Proposition 16: Collective action teams are more likely to successfully implement proactive initiatives compared to individuals working alone or in dyads.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

In summary, a collective action process for change implementation highlights the means through which employees may be recruited (i.e., framing strategies), the formation of collective action teams which facilitate the implementation of change, and organizational factors which may limit the effectiveness of a collective action process for change implementation. In doing so, a collective action process for proactive change implementation offers a more systematic study of the process (i.e., recruitment strategies, mechanisms, and boundary conditions) through which proactive employees can successfully implement the change that they envisioned for their workplace. Hence, focusing on the implementation aspect of proactivity and putting forward a collective action process for change implementation helps advance the proactivity literature in three ways.

First, a collective action process for change implementation changes the focus of proactivity research by moving away from a focus on antecedents of proactive initiatives to a focus on implementing the proactive initiative. Extant research in the proactivity literature has focused on the antecedents of proactive initiatives by examining characteristics that determine when employees detect opportunities or problems (e.g., proactive personality; job autonomy) and the antecedents of proactive implementation by examining participation in proactive behaviors such as voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). In this chapter, a collective action process for proactive change implementation instead unpacks the various phases through which a proactive initiative can be implemented in the workplace. As a result, this process highlights the role of framing strategies in recruiting coworkers, the role of

collective action teams in facilitating collaboration among a diverse set of employees, and the role of the organizational context in limiting employees' motivation to participate in implementing the change.

Second, and in doing so, a collective action process for change implementation changes the assumptions of proactivity research. A fundamental assumption in past literature on proactivity is that proactive employees will single handedly initiate and implement a proactive change (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). However, an individual proactive employee may not have all the necessary skills or influence to effect the change – especially if the proactive initiative is one that has an impact on the broader work environment (e.g., affects the work processes of coworkers). It is thus imperative that proactive employees mobilize their coworkers, drawing on the diverse set of resources, skills, and influences that these coworkers possess, to be able to successfully implement a proactive change in the workplace. Hence, a collective action process for change implementation changes the assumption in the proactivity literature by calling for acknowledgement of the collective in implementing a proactive initiative.

Third, and consequently, the study of a collective action process for change implementation offers new research directions by identifying new concepts such as collective action teams. Specifically, collective action teams that emerge from dyadic relationships between proactive employees and their coworkers facilitate collaboration among employees for implementation of the proactive initiative. Exploring the composition of these collective action teams and the mechanisms that sustain these teams will be an important avenue of research to further understand the process through which proactive initiatives are implemented.

Limitations

While a collective action process for change implementation highlights the various phases of the implementation process there are three main limitations present in this process model. First, with regards to framing strategies, in this chapter I theorize that proactive employees will be more effective in recruiting coworkers to participate in collective action process for change implementation when the proactive initiative is framed using work goals (personal or strategic) that reinforce the status quo. However, it may not be possible to frame all proactive initiatives using work goals that reinforce the status quo. Going forward, through qualitative inquiry across various types of proactive initiatives it will be important to explore the alternative strategies that proactive employees may use when the proactive initiative is not one that can be framed using work goals that reinforce the status quo.

Second, with regards to the role of affect, in this chapter I explore the main effects of affect in motivating employees to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. However, as affective experiences do not occur in isolation, it is important to also consider the contextual factors that may moderate the role of affect in motivating employees to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. For example, in the context of a merger or acquisition, employees who are anxious and concerned about their job security may be less likely to experience positive affect even if the proactive initiative is framed using work goals that reinforce the status. Thus, examining the moderators of employees' affective experience will be important in understanding when these employees will be motivated to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Lastly, in putting forward an overarching process model for proactive change implementation this chapter focused on the aspects of the change initiative (i.e., framing strategies) and role of the meso environment (e.g., collective action teams). However, this model

did not focus on the characteristics of the individuals involved in the change. For example, the amount of resources that employees possess (e.g., their existing work demands) or their willingness to take risks may play an important factor in their decision to participate in implementing the change; above and beyond the effectiveness of the framing strategy. While the current chapter is the first to explicate the various stages involved in implementing a proactive change it will also be beneficial for future research to explore the role of individual characteristics which facilitate or limit employees' participation in effecting the proactive change in the workplace.

Future Research

Going forward, the understanding of a collective action process for change implementation can be further enriched by exploring the mechanisms of shared leadership and unpacking the role of system justification motivation at different levels of analysis. First, an avenue for future research may stem from drawing on the shared leadership literature to examine the mechanisms through which employees work together to effectively implement a proactive initiative. Although the proactive employee may be the first to identify the problem or opportunity and initiate the change implementation process, the successful implementation of the change rests on the resources and skills contributed by the collective. Therefore to facilitate this collective effort it may be necessary for the different employees to assume leadership (Pearce & Conger, 2003) over the different aspects of the change implementation process contingent on the unique skills that they possess. Drawing on the shared leadership literature (Pearce, 2004; Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007), future research could examine how leadership is distributed across the collective action team and potential benefits (e.g., division of labor) or drawbacks (e.g., power struggles) of shared leadership on the implementation of the proactive initiative.

Second, an avenue for future research may also stem from unpacking the role of system justification motivation at different levels of analysis. In the current model of a collective action process for change implementation, I examine the role of organizational context in activating employees' motive to justify and defend their organizational system. Apart from organizational contexts, it will be beneficial for future research to also explore the factors within the immediate work environment in activating employees' system justification motivation. For example, the structure of the work team or department in which employees are embedded (e.g., hierarchical structure with highly centralized decision making) may play an important role in determining whether employees are motivated to defend the existing work practices of the team and thus resist participating in efforts to change the status quo within the work team or department. Therefore, future research on the activation of system justification motivation across different levels of analysis offers a means to enrich our understanding of the nuances involved in the process through which the collective implements a proactive initiative.

Conclusion

In conclusion, through examining the role of framing strategies at the dyadic level, the role of collective action teams at the meso level, and the role of the organizational context in limiting or facilitating the change implementation, a collective action process for change implementation puts forward offers a systematic study of proactive change implementation. As the successful implementation of change is a cornerstone in proactivity (Frese & Fay, 2001), unpacking the various stages across which a collective comes together to implement a change represents an important contribution to the proactivity literature. And future research expanding on the mechanisms put forward in each stage of the current process model will allow for a better understanding of the means through which proactive employees and their coworkers can

successfully implement changes in their workplace.

CHAPTER 2

RECRUITING COWORKERS TO PARTICIPATE IN A COLLECTIVE ACTION

PROCESS FOR CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

A collective action process for change implementation is an unfolding, multi-level process where the proactive employee and his/her coworkers coordinate to achieve a common goal of implementing a change in the workplace. As a single proactive employee may not have all the skills or resources to single-handedly implement the change, he/she recruits coworkers to leverage on their unique skills and abilities to effect the change. For example, a marketing executive who notices an opportunity for his/her company to partner with sustainability institutes to promote the products developed by the company may have the necessary skills to develop a business proposal, but he/she may not have the knowledge of a paralegal in outlining the legal boundaries of establishing a partnership with sustainability institutes. Therefore to successfully transform the proactive initiative into a tangible outcome, the proactive employee needs to get the buy-in of coworkers whose cooperation will be critical for implementation of the change. In recruiting these individuals who have expertise or unique information, the likely success of the proactive initiative is increased as these coworkers will be able to troubleshoot potential problems and their involvement also lends credibility to the change effort (e.g., Baldwin, Bedell, & Johnson, 1997; Brass, 1984; Sparrowe & Liden, 2005).

However, recruiting coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation is easier said than done. This is because proactive efforts to create a change in the existing work processes, practices, or policies in the workplace is perceived by coworkers and supervisors as "rocking the boat" or challenging the current status quo (Frese & Fay, 2001; Grant, 2013). One reason why individuals resist challenges to the status quo is because they are motivated to justify and rationalize the system. In particular, system justification theory (Jost & Banaji, 1994) argues that individuals are motivated to justify and defend the system as a means to reduce the anxiety that stems from acknowledging that their system is sub-optimal or flawed.

As participating in a collective action process for change implementation requires that coworkers acknowledge the shortcomings of the organizational system (i.e., a proactive initiative is needed because a problem or opportunity has gone unattended by the company), system justification theory would posit that coworkers will be resistant to participating in a collective action process for change implementation so as to reduce the anxiety associated with acknowledging that the organizational system that they are a part of is flawed.

Integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature, in this chapter I identify elements of a collective action process for change implementation that will enable coworkers to overcome the status quo and participate in implementing the change. First, drawing on the social movements literature, I posit that the way in which proactive employees frame a proactive initiative plays an important role in facilitating coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Here, applying system justification theory, I argue that framing the proactive initiatives using work goals that reinforce the status quo is more likely to motivate coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than framing the proactive initiative using work goals that alter the status quo. Second, and drawing on the social movements literature, I posit that the organizational context in which employees are embedded also plays a role in facilitating coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Again, applying system justification theory, I make a case that coworkers will be more likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation in the context of low organizational threat than in the context of high organizational threat. Taking this together, in this chapter, across two experimental studies I examine the effectiveness of the framing strategies and the role of the organizational context in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Bringing together both the social movements literature and system justification theory to identify how and when coworkers will participate in a collective action process for change implementation helps advance the proactivity literature in several ways. First, the successful implementation of a proactive initiative is a cornerstone in proactivity research as proactive employees will not be able to effect a change in their workplace if the proactive initiative is not effectively implemented (Frese & Fay, 2001). Yet, the existing literature on proactivity has predominantly focused on the antecedents of proactive change implementation – i.e., focusing on what makes employees proactive (e.g., proactive personality, job autonomy; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Frese & Fay, 2001) and the various types of proactive behaviors that they can engage in (e.g., voice, taking charge; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, voicing the presence of a problem or opportunity does not necessarily translate to the implementation of a change to address the problem or opportunity. In addition, the proactivity literature has rarely examined the end-point of this proactivity process – i.e., whether the proactive employee is indeed successful in implementing the proposed initiative. Therefore, in this chapter, I focus on the means through which proactive initiatives are successfully implemented by first examining the role of framing strategies and organizational context in motivating coworkers to get on board with implementing the proactive initiative.

Second, drawing on both system justification theory and the social movements literature advances the proactivity literature by examining why coworkers resist changes to the status quo (i.e., activation of system justification motive), what motivates coworkers to participate in implementing the change (i.e., framing strategies, organizational context), and when coworkers will be able to overcome the status quo and participate in implementing the change (i.e., absence of threat or challenge to the organizational system). Finally, focusing on the role of the collective

advances the proactivity literature by shifting the focus away from the individual proactive employee to focusing on the role of their coworkers in implementing the change – especially since these coworkers' skills and resources can be critical for the successful implementation of the proactive initiative.

In what follows, I examine the means through which proactive employees recruit their coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. First, I discuss the three main components which constitute coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Next, I draw on system justification theory to outline the motivational mechanism which underlies coworkers' decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Then, integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature I develop hypotheses regarding the role of framing strategies and organizational context which will influence coworkers' motivation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Following which, I test these predictions across two experimental studies and I discuss the results of these empirical tests and put forward directions for future research examining the recruitment of coworkers to a collective action process for change implementation.

PARTICIPATION IN A COLLECTIVE ACTION PROCESS FOR CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION

The successful implementation of a proactive initiative rests on the participation of the proactive employee and his/her recruits (i.e., coworkers) in a collective action process for change implementation. When coworkers participate in a collective action process for change implementation, they are not only acknowledging that the proactive initiative is one that is important but they are also contributing their unique resources and skills to help materialize the

proactive change. Drawing on the social movements literature, I argue that three main forms of participation are integral to the successful implementation of change.

First, individuals participate in a social movement by validating the importance of the issue being addressed (Scully & Segal, 2002). For example, women in an activist group "through their lunch meetings…came to realize how the culture on the project spawned a set of norms that the women were not comfortable with" (Scully & Segal, 2002: 150). Owing to this validation from fellow women (i.e., peers echoing the discomfort with the status quo and the need for change), these women then acted on this problem by pressing senior management for a change (Scully & Segal, 2002). In the context of a collective action process for change implementation, similarly, coworkers' participation through the acknowledgement of the importance of the proactive initiative for the organization and its incumbents will play an important role in the implementation of the change.

Second, individuals participate in a social movement by contributing their unique resources to advance the organization's adoption of the issue. For example, when administrative assistants (mostly women) were excluded from a bonus that the rest of the project team received (despite a collaborative effort across levels of hierarchy), more powerful women in the team (e.g., managers) stepped forward by raising the issue with senior management (Scully & Segal, 2002). Through using their unique resources (i.e., their power and status within the team) these employees who were not directly affected by the problem were able to advocate for those who were affected by the problem. In the context of a collective action process for change implementation, similarly, coworkers direct involvement through contribution of their resources will be necessary to address the limitations of a single proactive employee (and his/her limited resources).

Third, a network of recruitment is needed to ensure that more individuals are mobilized towards the social movement (Klandermans & Oegema, 1987). Existing members of a social movement may reach out to potential participants, friends, or relatives to explain the movement and motivate this wider audience to participate (e.g., Bolton, 1972; Orum, 1974; Wilson & Orum, 1976). Reaching out to and mobilizing more individuals is essential for the movement to learn new skills from this diverse set of participants. For example, collaborations between social movement organizations allowed for a diffusion of tactics where the organizations were able to learn from each other and then potentially use the newly learnt tactics to frame the change initiative in a way that appeals to a wider audience (Wang & Soule, 2012). Similarly, when coworkers recruit other coworkers it allows for an expansion of unique resources to draw on to refine the proactive initiative and make it more palatable to organizational decision makers.

Taking this together, I propose that participation in a collective action process for change implementation will comprise of coworkers' verbal acknowledgement that the proactive initiative is important, direct involvement in tasks that are fundamental to materializing the change, and recruitment of other coworkers to participate in implementing the change. First, coworkers may participate in a collective action process for change implementation by verbally acknowledging the importance of the proactive initiative for the work group or the organization at large. When the proactive employees' coworkers resonate that the proactive initiative is important and one that needs to be implemented in the organization, it sends a strong signal to other coworkers and senior management that the change is one that is valued. For example, when women (a minority voice in the White House senior committee meetings) supported fellow female staffers' ideas by repeating these ideas and giving credit to the female employee who proposed the idea, the men in these meetings (the majority voice) were more likely to pay heed

to those ideas (Eilperin, 2016). This is in line with studies showing that at minimum two coworkers are needed to endorse an idea for the idea to gain traction among other coworkers (Laughlin, 1980; Hinsz, Tindale, & Vollrath, 1997; Ellis et al., 2003). The endorsement of the proactive initiative or acknowledgement of its importance is a critical first step in coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. When coworkers' endorse the proactive initiative it sends a strong signal to organizational decision makers (e.g., supervisors, senior management) that the proactive initiative is one that resonates with the collective as an important course of action. This is especially important here because the proactive employee is attempting to implement a change from lower levels of the organization (as opposed to acting on change directives mandated by senior management). Therefore, coworkers' participation by verbally acknowledging the importance of the proactive initiative plays an important role in the proactive initiative gaining traction with the broader collective and organizational decision makers so as to ensure its successful implementation.

Second, coworkers may participate in a collective action process for change implementation by being directly involved in tasks that are fundamental to materializing the change. When coworkers take charge of aspects of the change implementation that they are best suited for, the proactive initiative starts to move from being an idea to be a more tangible outcome. In contrast, if coworkers verbally acknowledge the importance of the proactive initiative but are not willing to take action on tasks by contributing their unique resources then it will not be possible to successfully implement the proactive initiative. In fact, the very premise of bringing together a collective to implement the change stems from the reality that a single proactive employee does not have all the skills or resources to implement the change single handedly. For example, in the arena of politics, Georgia's lawmakers worked across partisan

lines to help pass a bill that addressed an important problem of a backlog of rape kits by not only unanimously acknowledging the importance of the bill but also by getting directly involved in the tasks that were crucial for the bill to be passed (Bee, 2017). To illustrate, one Democratic lawmaker volunteered a bill that she had passed to then be replaced with the content for the rape kit bill, the Speaker of the House sent a note to other lawmakers endorsing the bill, and to ensure that the amended bill can be passed in the final minutes before the end of the 2016 calendar year session the Republican members helped by handing out physical copies of the bill to other members in the House. Therefore the direct involvement of coworkers is essential for the successful implementation of a change initiative.

Third, coworkers may participate in a collective action process for change implementation by recruiting other coworkers – i.e., spillover recruitment. Since a single proactive employee is limited in the extent of their connections to others in the organization, coworkers' spillover recruitment enables other employees to learn about the proactive initiative and get on board to implement the change – thus, spillover recruitment allows for a faster diffusion of the proactive initiative (Van Wijk et al., 2013; Becker & Tausch, 2015; Baldassarri & Diani, 2007; Kogut & Walker, 2001; Uzzi & Spiro, 2005). In doing so, spillover recruitment also broadens the pool of skills to draw on. Specifically, when coworkers recruit other coworkers they are actively reducing barriers among employees with skills that are relevant for the proactive initiative by bringing these individuals into direct contact with each other (Watts, 1999). By bringing together these individuals (and their unique skills) the pool of resources from which to implement the proactive initiative also expands. This diverse group of employees will then be able to leverage their unique skills to highlight areas for improvement and identify serious shortcomings in the implementation of the proactive initiative (e.g., Wang & Soule,

2012). Taken together, coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation through spillover recruitment allows for the proactive initiative to reach a wider organizational audience that is relevant for implementing the change.

Although coworkers are important for the implementation of a change, it is however a challenge to recruit coworkers to this end. This is because the implementation of a proactive initiative results in the modification of existing work practices, processes, or policies – therefore, participating in a collective action process for change implementation is in fact participation in an effort to change the status quo at the workplace. The proactivity literature documents that employees engaging in proactive behaviors are seen as 'rocking the boat' and challenging the authority of those in power (Frese & Fay, 2001). Consequently, attempting to change the status quo and implement a change is often met with resistance from coworkers and supervisors. For this reason, it is important to consider why individuals are motivated to defend the status quo and how to reduce individuals' motivation to defend the status quo.

OVERCOMING THE STATUS QUO

System justification theory (a theoretical framework that specifically deals with factors that influence individuals' need to defend the status quo) puts forward that individuals have an inherent motivation to justify the system that they are a part of – i.e., a motivation to "believe that the prevailing structural arrangements that constitute the status quo are desirable and legitimate" (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014: 174; also see Jost & Banaji, 1994; Kay, Jimenez, & Jost, 2002; Laurin, Kay, & Fitzsimons, 2012). Systems are a broad array of social arrangements such as institutions, organizations, and social groups (Jost & Banaji, 1994). This motivation to rationalize and justify the system is manifested in individual's resistance to changes to the existing status quo (e.g., existing work practices) so as to avoid the anxiety that arises from

coming to terms with the fact that the system they depend on and believe to be legitimate is faulty and in need of change (Jost & Hunyady, 2005).

The motivation to defend the system by maintaining the status quo provides one potential explanation for why coworkers and supervisors resist proactive changes in the workplace and by extension may resist participation in a collective action process for change implementation. The main goal of a proactive initiative and an invitation to participate in implementing the proactive initiative is to alter the status quo to capitalize on an opportunity or avert a problem. An invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation inadvertently signals that the current organizational system is sub-optimal and that the proactive initiative will change the status quo in this system by capitalizing on an opportunity or preventing a problem. Consequently, system justification theory suggests that an invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation will activate employees' motivation to justify the organizational system (to rationalize away the flaws of the organizational system) thus resulting in coworkers' motivation to defend the status quo and resist the change.

System justification theory thus provides a possible explanation for why certain factors affect individuals' willingness to change the status quo. For example, past research in the social movements literature has highlighted the effects framing (Snow, Rochford, Worden, & Benford, 1986; Meyerson & Scully, 1995; Benford & Snow, 2000; Lounsbury, 2001) and context (Briscoe, Chin, & Hambrick, 2014; Wright & Boudet, 2012) have on individuals' willingness to support a social movement and participate in changing the status quo. From a system justification perspective, when the framing strategy or organizational context activates individuals' motivation to justify the status quo, it will be less effective in facilitating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

FRAMING THE CHANGE

Social movements research suggests that proactive employees can motivate their coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation by framing the initiative in a way that appeals to the coworkers' work goals. For example, when advocating for the prevention of workplace discrimination against LGBT employees, activists framed the issue as one that was "good for business" (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002: 491) by "creating legitimating accounts that resonate with their organization's market strategies…corporate cultures…concern for cost containment…reputation, and sense of corporate citizenship (Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002: 491). By framing the initiative using work goals, the proactive employee is in effect highlighting the economic rationality of the change and how the change relates to the norms in the organization (Meyerson & Scully, 1995; Creed, Scully, & Austin, 2002; Raeburn, 2004).

Integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature, I argue that while framing the change as a business case is important it is also crucial that the framing does not activate coworkers' motivation to justify the organizational system. Specifically, I propose that framing a proactive initiative as one that introduces changes to the existing status quo will activate coworkers' motivation to justify the system and defend the organizational system. By framing a change as altering the status quo the proactive employee is signaling that the current organizational system is flawed or sub-optimal and thus requires a new work goal to restore optimal functioning of the organizational system. Consequently, to avoid the anxiety of having to acknowledge that they are part of and dependent on an organizational system that is flawed (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Kay, et al., 2009), coworkers will be motivated to rationalize away the flaws of the system and defend the status quo within the system by resisting the change.

In contrast, a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing or strengthening the current status quo is more likely to motivate coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. When a proactive initiative is framed as reinforcing the existing status quo, the proactive initiative is seen as supporting and not threatening the organizational system. As a result, coworkers will experience less anxiety and will be more willing to participate in implementing the change.

To illustrate the application of system justification principles for framing strategies, I refer back to the earlier example regarding the use of framing in advocating for an anti-discrimination policy. Here, framing the anti-discrimination policy as "resonating" with the organization's strategies and culture highlights that the change is in line with the existing status quo in the organization. As a result of framing the change as one that reinforces the existing status quo, organizational decision makers' were less likely to be motivated to justify the status quo (thus being more open to the anti-discrimination policy). Alternatively, if the policy had been framed as one that changes the existing status quo (e.g., that the organization needs to not only focus on maximizing profit but also focus on addressing civil rights), then the change will be seen as challenging the existing status quo – which would have then activated the decision makers' motivation to justify the status quo and resist the change.

In sum, through integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature I put forward that proactive employees' attempts at successfully recruiting their coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation rests on the extent to which the proactive initiative is framed as one that reinforces the existing status quo in the organizational system. In addition, and extending the system justification theoretical framework, I propose that the organizational system can be represented in two different forms –

i.e., personal work systems and strategic work systems. Furthermore, I propose that framing a proactive initiative along these different systems may have a differential impact on coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

Framing the Change: Type of Systems

Traditionally, the system justification theoretical framework views the concept of system as a singular entity and that individuals are motivated to defend this singular system (e.g., Cutright et al., 2011). Applying system justification theory to the organizational literature, I argue that the broad organizational system can comprise multiple sub-systems which employees may favor differentially. One reason for the assertion of multiple sub-systems stems from the presence of multiple goals within an organization. Specifically, while individual employees are held responsible for their personal work goals (e.g., meeting sales target), the organization as a whole is oriented towards the attainment of broader strategic goals (e.g., being a market leader). Accounting for the presence of two main types of goals in an organization, I argue for the presence of two sub-systems: 1) personal work systems which comprise structural arrangements that are meant to facilitate employees' personal work goals and 2) strategic work systems which comprise structural arrangements that are meant to facilitate the organization's strategic work goals. In what follows, I elaborate on how a proactive employee may frame the proactive initiative with regards to the coworkers' personal work system or with regards to the strategic work system. In doing so, I also make a case for why the personal work system may be relatively more influential that the strategic work system in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

First, I propose that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system is more likely to be effective in motivating coworkers to participate in a

collective action process for change implementation than framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system. The status quo here refers to the current work practices that the employees adhere to (e.g., standard operating procedures) or work goals that employees are tasked with and expected to fulfill (e.g., sales targets). Framing the proactive initiative as one that builds on and advances coworkers' current work practices or personal work goals emphasizes that the change is also a means for coworkers to expedite their own efforts at fulling their current work goals. As the proactive initiative is seen as fulfilling one's own personal work goals, it is seen as a form of maintaining the status quo in their personal work system; in which case, coworkers' motivation to defend the status quo will not be activated. As a result, they will be more likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

In contrast, I propose that framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system is less likely to be effective in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system highlights that the current work practices or personal work goals are flawed and that a new personal work practice or personal work goal is needed to remedy the flaw. As addressing the flaw will evoke anxiety (Jost & Hunyady, 2005) coworkers will be motivated to justify and rationalize the existing personal work practices or personal work goals (i.e., defend the status quo). Thus coworkers will be less likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation when the proactive initiative is framed as altering the status quo in a personal work system. Taken together, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 1: A proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action

process for change implementation than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a personal work system.

Second, I propose that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system is more likely to be effective in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. The status quo here refers to the current strategic practices that the organization adheres to (e.g., corporate social responsibility events) or strategic work goals that the organization is geared towards achieving (e.g., ethical responsibility). Framing the proactive initiative as one that builds on and advances the organization's current strategic work practices or strategic work goals emphasizes that the change is consistent with the strategic work practices and strategic work goals that the organization espouses. In doing so, the proactive employee is emphasizing that the change is economically rational (Briscoe & Safford 2008; Meyer, Boli, Thomas, & Ramirez, 1997; Zald, Morrill, & Rao, 2005; Stryker, 2003). For example, when corporate ethics officers (lower level employees) framed the need for a change in ethical practices as one that was in line with the organization's strategic work goals concerning ethics, they were more successful in effecting the change (Scully & Meyerson, 1993). As the proactive initiative is seen as fulfilling the organization's strategic work practices or strategic work goals, it is seen as a form of maintaining the status quo in the strategic work system; in which case, coworkers' motivation to defend the status quo will not be activated. As a result, they will be more likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

In contrast, I propose that framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system is less likely to be effective in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Framing the proactive initiative as altering

the status quo in a strategic work system highlights that the current strategic work practices or strategic work goals are flawed and that a new strategic work practice or strategic work goal is needed to remedy the flaw. As addressing the flaw will evoke anxiety (Jost & Hunyady, 2005) coworkers will be motivated to justify and rationalize the existing strategic work practices or strategic work goals (i.e., defend the status quo). Thus coworkers will be less likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation when the proactive initiative is framed as altering the status quo in a personal work system. For example, George Akerlof's 'Market for 'Lemons'' paper – arguing for the importance of informational asymmetry on the quality of goods in the market (which earned him a Nobel prize) – was first rejected by three journal editors before it was published. As this paper deviated from the traditional theories of economics (i.e., the status quo) by calling for the need to also acknowledge informational asymmetry in market decisions, it most likely threatened the legitimacy of the institution (i.e., the study of economics; Gans & Shepherd, 1994). As a result, to avoid the anxiety associated with acknowledging flaws in the system, the editors of the journal may have been more inclined to reject the paper (i.e., resisting a change that is viewed as altering the status quo). Taking this together, I propose that framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system is less likely to be effective in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Hypothesis 2: A proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system will be more effective in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a strategic work system.

Lastly, and again drawing on system justification theory, I put forward that coworkers will perceive their personal work system to be relatively more important than the strategic work system such that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system is more likely to be effective in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, than framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system. In addition to framing the change as one that strengthens the existing system, system justification theory suggests that the system itself needs to be one that is personally and immediately relevant for the coworker. Specifically, system justification theory argues that individuals will be motivated to justify and defend the status quo in a system only when the system is immediately relevant to them (Kay et al., 2009). For example, when individuals were reminded that the governmental system has important implications for their work and social outcomes (i.e., activating motivation to justify the governmental system) they were more likely to resist changes to a government funding policy (which currently distributes funds across the different parts of the country in an unequal manner) than to resist changes to a university funding policy (which currently distributes funds across academic departments in an unequal manner; Kay et al., 2009). Taken together, the personal relevance of the system plays an important role in activating individuals' motivation to justify the system.

Similarly, I propose that personal work systems are more immediately relevant and consequential for coworkers' individual outcomes than the strategic work system – because coworkers may be less aware of (or concerned with) the organization's strategic goals (e.g., being a market leader), but rather more concerned with their personal work goals (e.g., sales targets for that quarter) as they would be evaluated on their ability to successfully complete the tasks and goals assigned to their job role. As a result, coworkers are likely to attribute more

importance to their personal work system than the strategic work system, and in doing so, more likely to justify and maintain their personal work system than the strategic work system. Consequently coworkers will be more inclined to participate in a collective action process for change implementation when the proactive initiative is framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system than when it is framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system. For example, a Walmart employee who stocks shelves may be more likely to participate in implementing the change if the proactive initiative is framed as benefiting his/her personal work goal (e.g., a change in the standard operating procedure advances his/her personal work goal of stocking more shelves in an hour) than if it is framed as benefiting the strategic goal of the company (e.g., a change in the standard operating procedure advances the company's strategic goal of improving service to customers). Taken together, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 3: A proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system.

ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

Apart from framing, in the social movements literature, organizational context (i.e., characteristics of the organization and the environment that it is embedded in; Briscoe & Gupta, 2016) has been argued to influence employees willingness to challenge the status quo and introduce a change. For example, the context in which socially responsible practices are adopted by an organization (i.e., changing the status quo) plays an important role in determining whether peer organizations follow suit in adopting the socially responsible practice (i.e., peers' willingness to challenge the status quo; Briscoe, Gupta, & Anner, 2015). Specifically, peer

organizations (not targeted by activists) were more likely to adopt the socially responsible practice (i.e., sanctioning a supplier for worker rights violations) when organizations (targeted by activists) adopted the practice in the context of non-disruptive activism (e.g., victim testimonials) than in the context of disruptive activism (e.g., sit-ins, protests, picketing; Briscoe, Gupta, & Anner, 2015).

I integrate social movements literature with system justification theory to identify the characteristics of organizational contexts that determine whether coworkers will be motivated to overcome the status quo and participate in a collective action process for change implementation. System justification theory posits that when the organizational context evokes a sense of anxiety, coworkers will be motivated to justify the status quo in the organizational system by resisting changes to the status quo (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). In particular, I focus on one form of organizational context – i.e., organizational threat (events which challenge the legitimacy of the organizational system; Kay et al., 2009; Cutright et al., 2011). I propose that in the context of high organizational threat, coworkers' system justification motive is activated which will then deter them from participating in a collective action process for change implementation. On the other hand, in the context of low organizational threat, coworkers' system justification motive is not activated and consequently they will be motivated to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

High organizational threat is a context in which the organization experiences events which threaten the optimal, legitimate, and desirable nature of the organizational system. For example, events such as mergers or acquisitions, scandals, and negative media representation constitute threats to the legitimacy of the organization. However, acknowledging that one is part of an organization that is flawed could result in employees' experiencing a lack of control over

their situation which then results in heightened anxiety and uncertainty (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). Hence, in an effort to reduce anxiety and regain a sense of control, in the context of organizational threat, employees will be motivated to defend and rationalize the current status quo (Proudfoot & Kay, 2014). For example, when the media coverage of a scandal in a health service organization threatened the image of the organization, employees expressed higher affective commitment and engaged in more organizational citizenship behaviors to boost the legitimacy of their organization (Riketta & Landerer, 2005). In the context of high organizational threat, coworkers' motive to justify the system is activated which then will deter them from overcoming the status quo to implement a proactive initiative.

In contrast, low organizational threat is a context in which the organization does not experience any event that challenges the legitimacy of the organizational system. For example, when an organization receives positive media coverage for engaging in a corporate social responsibility activity, it acknowledges and reinforces the legitimacy of the organizational system. As a result, in this context, employees' system justification motive will not be activated and they will be more open to overcoming the status quo by participating in a collective action process for change implementation.

To illustrate the application of system justification principles for organizational context, I refer back to the earlier example regarding the adoption of a socially responsible practice (i.e., Briscoe, Gupta, & Anner, 2015). Applying a system justification perspective suggests that adopting the change in reaction to the disruptive activism experienced by targeted organizations signals a threat to the legitimacy of the structural arrangements which comprise the system in the peer organization – i.e., the reactive change adoption is necessary to rectify the existing flaw. To avoid acknowledging that their organizational system is flawed (and the anxiety that this

engenders) peer organization's decision makers were more likely to justify the existing status quo by resisting the change. In contrast, adopting the change in reaction to the non-disruptive activism experienced by targeted organizations does not signal a threat to the legitimacy of the structural arrangements which comprise the system in the peer organization. As a result, decision makers in peer organizations will not experience any anxiety that will motivate them to justify the existing status quo and resist the change. Instead these decision makers were more willing to consider the merits of the change in reinforcing the organizational system and thus were more likely to adopt the change. In sum, through integrating system justification theory with the social movements literature, I put forward that the effectiveness of a proactive employee's framing strategy in successfully recruiting his/her coworkers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation is contingent on the organizational context in which employees are embedded. More generally, I propose the following:

Hypothesis 4: Organizational threat moderates the positive relationship between framing and peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of threat there will be no difference between a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing or altering the status quo in a personal work system; at low levels of threat, a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a personal work system.

Hypothesis 5: Organizational threat moderates the positive relationship between framing and peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of threat there will be no difference between a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing or altering the status quo in a strategic work system; at low levels of threat, a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system will be more

effective than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a strategic work system.

Hypothesis 6: Organizational threat moderates the positive relationship between framing and peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation such that at high levels of threat there will be no difference between a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system or strategic work system; at low levels of threat, a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective than a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system.

OVERVIEW OF STUDIES

Across a set of experiments, I aim to examine the effectiveness of framing strategies and the role of organizational context in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. These experiments were conducted in a university context where six trained confederates played the role of a business school sophomore proposing a student-based mentorship program where sophomores, juniors, and seniors mentor freshmen students on the entrance to major courses. In the business school sampled in this research, a good grade in the entrance to major courses is required for students to be admitted in the major of their choice. Hence the student based mentorship program was a proactive initiative that was both relevant and relatable to the student sample in these experiments. In addition, participation in a collective action process for change implementation (i.e., implementing the student-led mentorship program) has personal implications for the students in this sample in that students were led to believe they were choosing to participate in implementing the mentorship program which would then require them to put in their time and effort to mentor freshmen students (in the upcoming academic year), recruit other sophomores, juniors, and seniors to be mentors, or advocate for the

importance of this mentorship program to the university administrators. In essence, the proactive initiative proposed in these studies is one that is relevant and relatable to the sample in which the hypotheses were tested.

Using an experimental design I was able to maximize the internal validity of the causal mechanisms proposed in this chapter (Schwab, 2005). First, the temporal order of the study variables was controlled by ensuring that the experimental manipulations (i.e., the framing strategies and organizational context) preceded the measurement of the dependent variable (Schwab, 2005). Second, random assignment of participants to the experimental manipulations reduced the likelihood of alternative explanations for the results (Schwab, 2005; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002).

Across the experimental designs, I examined the role of framing strategies and organizational context in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in Study 1, I examined the effectiveness of the framing strategies in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Here, trained confederates proposed the student-led mentorship program using different framing strategies or in the absence of any framing (i.e., control) to a group of participants and asked for their participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Next, in Study 2, I examined the moderating influence of the organizational context on the effectiveness of these framing strategies. Specifically, one form of organizational context – organizational threat – was manipulated such that participants either evaluated a report on an increase in the business school's nation-wide rankings (i.e., low organizational threat) or decrease in the business school's nation-wide rankings (i.e., high organizational threat).

STUDY 1 METHOD

Participants and Procedure

A total of 261 undergraduates (mean age = 18.67 years, S.D. = 0.81; 37.9% women, two participants did not indicate gender) in large introductory business classes at Pennsylvania State University voluntarily participated in this study, receiving course credit for their participation. At the start of the study, the research assistant presented participants with a cover story. Here they were led to believe that they were participating in a focus group conducted by Alex, a fellow student (who was in fact a trained confederate[2]). Participants were told that Alex is proposing a change initiative and is looking to get fellow students' feedback through the focus group. Following this cover story, Alex then met with and spoke to the participants about his/her proposal (i.e., a student-led mentorship program where sophomores, juniors, and seniors mentor freshmen students on entrance to major courses).

In this between-subjects design, participants were randomly assigned to one of five framing conditions or the control condition. In the first framing condition, Alex framed the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (i.e., "participating in this Big Sib program benefits us too by boosting our resume and setting us apart from other candidates in the hiring process"). In the second framing condition, Alex framed the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system (i.e., "mentoring freshmen is another extra thing to do when we're already very busy with juggling classes and work"). In the third framing condition, Alex framed the proactive initiative reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (i.e., "this Big Sib initiative helps Smeal implement its strategic goals and also stays true to Penn State's values of being a community and working together to help and

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[2] To ensure that the delivery of the manipulations was realistic, I recruited confederates who were currently undergraduate students from the same university as the study participants and I placed a poster board with a summary of the proposed program mounted on an easel, which Alex referred to as he/she verbally described the program.

support each other"). In the fourth framing condition, Alex framed the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system (i.e., "[this program] doesn't exactly align neatly with Smeal's strategic goals [but] as a college, we also need to focus on providing more effective guidance for freshmen students"). In addition, I also assessed two comparison conditions – i.e., moral framing[3] and control condition[4]. In the moral framing condition (i.e., the fifth framing condition), Alex framed the proactive initiative using moral goals (i.e., "it's important that we do what is right and help support our freshmen"). In the control condition, Alex framed the proactive initiative in the absence of any framing strategy. Please see Appendix A for the scripts used by confederates to deliver these framing manipulations[5].

After speaking to the participants about the proactive initiative, the confederate handed out a feedback form to the participant asking them to indicate their feedback on the proactive initiative and to indicate their participation in implementing the change. Please see Appendix B for the items used to measure peers' intention to participation in a collective action process for change implementation (i.e., verbal acknowledgement of the importance of the proactive initiative, direct involvement, and spillover recruitment)[6]. In addition to assessing intentions to participate, I also assessed behavioral participation in implementing the change. Specifically, participants were given an option to endorse a letter of support which was directed at a senior university administrator.

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[3] As moral framing is frequently used within the social movements literature (Hunt, Benford, & Snow, 1994; Benford & Snow, 2000), I included a moral framing condition to explore the relative efficacy of framing a proactive initiative in terms of personal or strategic work systems in comparison to the typically used moral framing.
[4] I included a control condition to explore the relative efficacy of framing a proactive initiative in terms of personal or strategic work systems in comparison to the absence of any reference to these systems.
[5] To avoid raising suspicion that the proactive initiative (i.e., the student-led mentorship program) is fake, I did not include a manipulation check examining the effectiveness of the framing strategies in reinforcing or altering the status quo in the personal or strategic work systems. The absence of this manipulation check is a limitation in the study design which I will discuss further in the limitations section.
[6] In this chapter, I assessed intentions to participate across the three forms of participation as intentions are documented to be a strong antecedent to actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991; 2002).

After participants completed the feedback form, the research assistant handed out a short survey (comprising the control variables). Participants were asked to complete the survey as a time-filler. At the end of the study session, participants were debriefed on the goals of the study.

Measures

*Intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation***.** First, to assess participants' verbal acknowledgement of the importance of the proactive initiative, they were asked to evaluate three statements – "this 'Big Sib' program is an important initiative", "the 'Big Sib' program should be implemented in Smeal college", and "freshmen will find this 'Big Sib' program helpful"– on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Second, to assess direct involvement and spillover recruitment, across eight items, participants were asked to indicate their willingness to engage in a range of behaviors (e.g., sharing flyers/posting flyers within the college, meeting with a senior university administrator, volunteer to raise awareness, volunteer to be a mentor in the program). Their willingness to engage in these specific behaviors was recorded using a yes-no format where 'yes' was coded as '1' while 'no' was coded as '0'. Lastly, participants were asked to provide an email address where they can be reached at for their assistance in the areas in which they indicated an interest in participating. Their email entry was recorded using a 1-0 format where providing an email was coded as '1' while not providing an email was coded as '0'. A composite score of intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation for each participant was computed by averaging the standardized scores across these 12 items ($\alpha = .82$). Please refer to Appendix B for the items used to measure intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Behavioral participation in a collective action process for change implementation. In addition to assessing intentions to participate in change implementation, I also assessed

behavioral participation in change implementation. Participants were told that demonstrating students' support for the initiative is critical in securing formal approval and resources from the college administrators (so as to implement the proposed mentorship program). To demonstrate their support, participants had the option to sign a letter in support of the proposed initiative which was directed at the Director of Student Affairs in the Dean's Office. Participants were informed that the support letter, if they choose to sign it, will be detached and sent to the Director of Student Affairs as evidence of support from the student body. To sign this letter, students had to write their name, year in college, major, university email, signature, and date. Similar measures (e.g., petitions; Becker & Wright 2011) have been used in research on collective action to assess behavioral participation in collective action. Here behavioral participation was recorded using a 1-0 format where signing the support letter was coded as '1' while not signing was coded as '0'.

   Controls. In this chapter, I controlled for participants' gender and prosocial values. First, drawing on the system justification literature which posits that men are more likely engage in system justification than women (Feygina, Jost, & Goldsmith, 2010; Jost & Kay, 2005), I controlled for gender in my analyses. Second, to account for the prosocial nature of the change initiative (i.e., inviting peers to help fellow peers), I measured participants' prosocial values with a 3-item measure (Grant & Rothbard, 2013). On a scale of 1 (not at all important) to 7 (extremely important), participants reported the extent to which prosocial values (i.e., "improving the welfare of other people," "helping others," and "making a positive difference in other people's lives"; $\alpha = .89$) were important to them at school.

Analytical Strategy

First, in predicting peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, I tested Hypotheses 1 – 3 using a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the main effect of framing on peers' intention to participate in a collective process for change implementation. In these ANOVA tests, I controlled for gender and prosocial values (centered at the mean). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation in a collective action process for change implementation (a dichotomous dependent variable), I tested Hypotheses 1 – 3 using a chi-square test of independence to assess the main effect of framing on peers' behavioral participation in a collective process for change implementation.

STUDY 1 RESULTS

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, alphas, and correlations of the study variables in the main analyses. In Hypothesis 1, I proposed that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (personal: reinforcing vs. altering) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 92) = 0.09$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 0.28$, $p > .05$). Taken together, Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

In Hypothesis 2, I proposed that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system will be more effective in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to

participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (strategic: reinforcing vs. altering) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F(1, 81) = 2.53$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.03$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 0.32$, $p > .05$). Taken together, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

In Hypothesis 3, I proposed that framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation than framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (reinforcing: personal vs. strategic) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F(1, 92) = 0.05$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 0.96$, $p > .05$). Taken together, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Exploratory Comparisons – Moral Framing

Following the main analyses, I conducted the exploratory analyses where I contrasted the effectiveness of the framing strategies either against a moral framing condition or the control condition. Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables in the exploratory analyses (across both moral framing and control condition). First, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (reinforcing personal vs.

moral) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 88) = 1.95$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.02$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that the framing strategies were statistically different ($\chi^2 [1] = 4.17$, $p < .05$) – such that peers were less likely to engage in behavioral participation when the proactive initiative was framed as reinforcing the status quo in the personal work system (90.4 %) than when the proactive initiative was framed using moral goals (100 %).

Second, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (altering personal vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 82) = 1.05$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.01$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 2.83$, $p > .05$).

Third, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (reinforcing strategic vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 82) = 2.15$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.02$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 1.87$, $p > .05$).

Lastly, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (altering strategic vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 77) = 0.00$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 3.11$, $p > .05$).

Exploratory Comparisons – Control Condition

In an additional set of exploratory comparisons, first, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (reinforcing personal vs. control) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 84) = 0.22$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies ($\chi^2 [1] = 0.03$, $p > .05$).

Second, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (altering personal vs. control) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, $F (1, 78) = 0.03$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated

that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies (χ^2 [1] = 0.45, $p > .05$).

Third, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (reinforcing strategic vs. control) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, F (1, 78) = 0.37, p > .05, (η^2 = 0.00). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies (χ^2 [1] = 1.21, $p > .05$).

Lastly, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a between subjects ANOVA of the framing strategies (altering strategic vs. control) indicated that there was no significant main effect of framing, F (1, 73) = 0.85, $p > .05$, (η^2 = 0.01). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a chi-square test indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the framing strategies (χ^2 [1] = 0.29, $p > .05$).

Supplementary Analyses

In light of the weak support for the system justification theoretical framework across the main analyses, in this supplemental analysis, I explore the impact of the framing strategy on each item of the scale (i.e., intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation) individually. The main reason for examining these items individually is because

the items potentially vary in the extent to which they require effort from participants or the degree to which they are perceived as risky. For example, while sharing flyers requires low levels of effort, volunteering to be a mentor in the student-led mentorship program however may require higher levels of effort from the students. Hence in this supplemental analyses, I treated each item as a separate dependent variable (i.e., 12 standardized dependent variables) and tested Hypotheses 1 – 3 using between subjects ANOVA. In addition, I controlled for gender and prosocial values (centered at the mean) by including these variables as covariates in the ANOVA tests. Table 3 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables explored in the supplemental analyses. In addition, Table 4 presents a breakdown of the mean ratings and proportions by the various components of intention to participate and that of behavioral participation.

First, I examined Hypothesis 1 in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. There was a significant difference between the framing strategies only for one out of the 12 dependent variables (i.e., peers providing an email address at which to be contacted for their participation). Second, I examined Hypothesis 2 in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. There was a significant (or marginally significant) but opposite effect of the framing strategies for three out of the 12 dependent variables (i.e., peers' intention to join a student committee and meet once a month to plan for the implementation of the mentorship program, peers' intention to join a student committee and meet with a university administrator to pitch the initiative, and peers' intention to volunteer as a mentor). Third, I examined Hypothesis 3 in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure intention to participate in a collective action process for change

implementation. This test provided a set of mixed findings. Specifically, there was a significant (or marginally significant) effect of the framing strategies for two dependent variables (i.e., peers' intention to volunteer to mentor freshmen students and peers providing an email address at which to be contacted for their participation) while there was a significant (or marginally significant) but opposite effect of the framing strategies for two other dependent variables (i.e., peers' acknowledgment that the mentorship program should be implemented in Smeal and peers' acknowledgement that freshmen will find the mentorship program helpful) – thus a mixed and weak pattern of results characterizing the effect of the framing strategies on four out of the 12 dependent variables.[7]

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[7] In addition to the composite measure of intention to participate, I also examined the four components of intention to participate (controlling for gender and prosocial values) – i.e., peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, intention to be directly involved, intention to engage in spillover recruitment, and the provision of their email address. First, with regards to Hypothesis 1 there was a significant difference between the framing strategies only for one out of the four components (i.e., provision of email address). Second, with regards to Hypothesis 2 there was a significant difference between the framing strategies only for one out of the four components (i.e., peer's intention to be directly involved). Third, with regards to Hypothesis 3 there was a significant or marginally significant difference between the framing strategies for three out of the four components (i.e., provision of email address, acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, peer's intention to be directly involved). Next, I also compared the effectiveness of the framing strategies against the moral or control conditions on the four components of intention to participate. In particular, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on one of the four components (i.e., acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important). Second, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on two of the four components (i.e., provision of email address, acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important). Third, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system and the control condition on one of the four components (i.e., provision of email address). Lastly, there was a marginally significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system and the control condition on one of the four components (i.e., provision of email address). Taken together, the framing strategies do not effect a consistent and robust pattern of influence across the four components of peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Apart from the main effects of framing, I also examined the moderating influence of gender and Smeal affiliation on peers' participation – i.e., peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, intention to be directly involved, intention to engage in spillover recruitment, the provision of their email address, and peers' behavioral participation. These moderators were selected in particular because gender was significantly and positively correlated with intention to participate (see Table 1) and study participants' affiliation with Smeal College of Business (i.e., whether they were Smeal majors or non-Smeal majors) may have played a role in influencing their motivation to participate. Hence, across five dependent variables, I explored 55 interactions involving gender (controlling for prosocial values) and 55 interactions involving Smeal affiliation (controlling for gender and prosocial values). With regards to the interaction between gender and the framing strategies only two out of the 55 interactions were significant or marginally significant. Specifically, there was a marginally significant difference between gender and framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

Taken together, the results of the first study provide weak support for a system justification perspective on the effectiveness of the framing strategies. Where the main analyses were concerned, Hypothesis 1 – 3 were not supported. Where the exploratory analyses were concerned, framing a proactive initiative using moral goals was more effective than framing a proactive initiative reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system on peers' behavioral participation. However, the overall null findings cast doubt on the robustness of framing a proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Lastly, the supplemental analyses point to an inconsistent effect of the framing strategies (i.e., an absence of a clear pattern of results across the hypotheses). On the whole, the results of Study 1 provide weak support for a system justification perspective on the effectiveness of framing strategies.

STUDY 2 METHOD

In this study, I examine the role of the organizational context in activating system justification motivation and its implication for the effectiveness of the framing strategies in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Specifically I explored the role of organizational context by manipulating the level of organizational threat (through rankings of the business school). In this context of organizational

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or framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important. Lastly, there was a significant interaction between gender and framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system or the control condition on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important. With regards to the interaction between Smeal affiliation and the framing strategies only one out of the 55 interactions was marginally significant. Specifically, there was a marginally significant interaction between Smeal affiliation and framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system or the control condition on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important. Taken together, the overall null findings across the remaining analyses cast doubt on the robustness of the significant interactions outlined above. Consequently, the gender and Smeal affiliation moderators, respectively, do not demonstrate a robust pattern of influence across the different means of participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

threat, I assessed peers' inclination to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Participants and Procedure

A total of 492 undergraduates (mean age = 18.67 years, S.D. = 0.79, 16 participants did not indicate age; 39.2% female, 20 participants did not indicate gender) in large introductory business classes at Pennsylvania State University voluntarily participated in this study, receiving course credit for their participation. At the start of the study, the research assistant presented participants with a cover story. Here they were led to believe that they were participating in two separate focus group studies. Participants were told that the first focus group study was being conducted by faculty in the business school who were interested in students' feedback on the current rankings of the school while the second focus group study was being conducted by Alex, a student who is proposing a change initiative and is looking to get fellow students' feedback through the focus group. In reality, the first focus group was the manipulation of organizational threat, while the second focus group was the manipulation of the framing (as in Study 1).

Following this cover story, the research assistant first handed out the focus group packet containing a cover page, a print version of a webpage with the ranking information (that comprised the manipulation of organizational threat; please see Appendices C and D), and a questionnaire. On the cover page, participants were informed that faculty were interested in students' reactions to rankings of the business school as these rankings have an impact on students' job placements. A print version of a webpage (ostensibly from an esteemed business press outlet) comprised these rankings. Here participants were randomly assigned to read about either high rankings (low organizational threat; Appendix C) or low rankings (high organizational threat; Appendix D). Specifically, in the low organizational threat condition,

participants read about a significant improvement in the business school's rankings and positive reviews (from the business press outlet) associated with these improvements. In the context of these high rankings, there is a lower likelihood of threat to the school's reputation. In contrast, in the high organizational threat condition, participants read about a significant decrease in the business school's rankings and negative reviews (from the business press outlet) associated with this drop in rankings. In the context of these low rankings, there is a higher likelihood of threat to the school's reputation. Following the rankings manipulation, students were asked to report their thoughts and reactions on a comprehension check and manipulation check questionnaire.

After participants had completed the first focus group, the research assistant brought in Alex who conducted the second focus group (same as in Study 1). Following the end of the second focus group, the research assistant handed out a short survey (comprising the control variables). Participants were asked to complete the survey as a time-filler. At the end of the study session, participants were debriefed on the goals of the study.

Measures

The measures for participation in a collective action process for change implementation and control variables used in this study were the same as those in Study 1. In addition, a comprehension and manipulation check for the organizational threat condition was added.

Comprehension check. To determine whether participants paid careful attention to and clearly comprehended the rankings which comprised the organizational threat manipulation that they read about, I administered a three-item semantic differential measure (using a 7-point Likert scale; please refer to Appendix E for the items). Participants' ratings across the three items were reverse coded (where applicable) and averaged ($\alpha = .90$) such that a low score represented exposure to the low organizational threat manipulation (i.e., the school's rankings had improved)

while a high score represented exposure to the high organizational threat manipulation (i.e., the school's rankings had deteriorated).

Manipulation check. To determine whether participants viewed the manipulation as threatening to the organization, I administered a three-item semantic differential measure (using a 7-point Likert scale; please refer to Appendix E for the items). Participants' ratings across these three items were reverse coded and averaged ($\alpha = .93$) such that a low score represented a positive reaction to the low organizational threat manipulation (i.e., the school's rankings had improved) while a high score represented a negative reaction to the high organizational threat manipulation (i.e., the school's rankings had deteriorated).

Analytical Strategy

First, in predicting peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation, I tested Hypotheses 4 – 6 using 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA. In these ANOVA tests I assessed the main effects of framing and organizational threat, and the interaction between framing and organizational threat on peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. I also controlled for gender and prosocial values (centered at the mean) in these ANOVA tests. Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation in a collective action process for change implementation (a dichotomous dependent variable), I tested Hypotheses 4 – 6 using multinomial logistic regression. In these multinomial logistic regression analyses, I assessed the main effects of framing and organizational threat, and the interaction between framing and organizational threat on peers' behavioral participation in a collective action process for change implementation. In addition, I also controlled for gender and prosocial values (centered at the mean) in these multinomial logistic regression analyses.

STUDY 2 RESULTS

Table 5 presents the means, standard deviations, alphas, and correlations of the study variables. Prior to hypothesis testing, I conducted an independent samples t-test to compare the means on the comprehension and manipulation check measure for the organizational threat manipulation. First, with regards to the comprehension check, there is a significant difference between the organizational threat conditions (t (490) = -40.93, $p < .001$), with participants in the low organizational threat condition (coded: 0) indicating that they read about the overall high rankings of Smeal College (M= 1.97, $S.D.$ = 0.72) and those in the high organizational threat (coded: 1) condition indicating that they read about the overall low rankings of Smeal College (M= 5.31, $S.D.$ = 1.05). This indicates that participants comprehended the rankings accurately.

Second, with regards to the manipulation check measure there is a significant difference between the organizational threat conditions (t (490) = -57.63, $p < .001$), with participants in the low organizational threat condition (coded: 0) expressing satisfaction with the overall high rankings of Smeal College (M= 1.73, SD = 0.58) and those in the high organizational threat (coded: 1) condition expressing dissatisfaction with the overall low rankings of Smeal College (M= 5.30, $S.D.$ = 0.78). Participants' response to this manipulation check suggests that the manipulation was effective in signaling the absence or presence of a threat to the organization. Thus I tested the Hypothesis 4 – 6 using the organizational threat manipulation.

In Hypothesis 4, I proposed that in the context of high organizational threat there will be no difference the framing strategies, whereas in the context of low organizational threat a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a personal work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (personal:

reinforcing vs. altering) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F (1, 157) = 0.69$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant ($Z = -0.32$, $p > .05$). Taken together, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

In Hypothesis 5, I proposed that in the context of high organizational threat there will be no difference the framing strategies, whereas in the context of low organizational threat a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system will be more effective than a proactive initiative framed as altering the status quo in a strategic work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (strategic: reinforcing vs. altering) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F (1, 160) = 0.18$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant ($Z = 0.30$, $p > .05$). Taken together, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

In Hypothesis 6, I proposed that in the context of high organizational threat there will be no difference the framing strategies, whereas in the context of low organizational threat a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system will be more effective than a proactive initiative framed as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (reinforcing: personal vs. strategic) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F (1, 147) = 0.00$, $p > .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a

multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = -1.21, *p* > .05). Taken together, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Exploratory Analyses – Moral Framing

Following the main analyses, I conducted the exploratory analyses where I contrasted the effectiveness of the framing strategies either against a moral framing condition or the control condition. Table 6 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables in the exploratory analyses (across both moral framing and control condition).

First, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (reinforcing personal vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F(1, 143) = 0.04$, p > .05, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = -0.47, *p* > .05).

Second, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (altering personal vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F(1, 154) = 0.41$, p > .05, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral

participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = -0.06, *p* > .05).

Third, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (reinforcing strategic vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F(1, 144) = 0.03$, p > .05, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = 0.81, *p* > .05).

Lastly, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system against framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (altering strategic vs. moral) indicated that there was no significant interaction effect, $F(1, 156) = 0.07$, p > .05, ($\eta^2 = 0.00$). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = -0.52, *p* > .05).

Exploratory Analyses – Control Condition

In an additional set of exploratory comparisons, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a

personal work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (reinforcing personal vs. control) indicated that there was a marginally significant interaction effect, $F (1, 140) = 4.06$, $p = .05$, $(\eta^2 = 0.03)$. Pairwise comparisons of the simple effects indicates that there is no significant difference between the framing strategies in the context of high organizational threat (mean difference = -0.19, $p > .05$) or in the context of low organizational threat (mean difference = 0.20, $p > .05$; see Figure 3). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant ($Z = -1.38$, $p > .05$).

Second, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (altering personal vs. control) indicated that there was a significant interaction effect, $F (1, 151) = 10.43$, $p < .01$, $(\eta^2 = 0.07)$. Pairwise comparisons of the simple effects indicates that there is no significant difference between the framing strategies in the context of high organizational threat (mean difference = 0.13, $p > .05$) but in the context of low organizational threat there is a significant difference between the framing strategies (mean difference = -0.42, $p < .01$) such that framing a proactive initiative in the absence of any framing (M= -0.27, S.D. = 0.54) is less effective than framing a proactive as altering the status quo in a personal work system (M= 0.16, S.D. = 0.64; see Figure 4). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral

participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = 0.77, *p* > .05).

Third, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (reinforcing strategic vs. control) indicated that there was a significant interaction effect, $F (1, 141) = 4.70$, $p < .05$, ($\eta^2 = 0.03$). Pairwise comparisons of the simple effects indicates that there is no significant difference between the framing strategies in the context of high organizational threat (mean difference = -0.12, *p* > .05) but in the context of low organizational threat there is a significant difference between the framing strategies (mean difference = 0.26, *p* < .05) such that framing a proactive initiative in the absence of any framing (M= -0.27, S.D. = 0.54) is less effective than framing a proactive as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (M= -0.01, S.D. = 0.68; see Figure 5). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant (Z = 0.02, *p* > .05).

Lastly, in the context of organizational threat, I compared the effectiveness of framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system against the control condition (no framing) on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, in predicting peers' intention to participate, a 2 by 2 between subjects ANOVA of the interaction between the organizational context (high vs. low) and framing strategies (altering strategic vs. control) indicated that there was a significant interaction effect, F

$(1, 153) = 7.92$, $p < .01$, $(\eta^2 = 0.05)$. Pairwise comparisons of the simple effects indicates that there is no significant difference between the framing strategies in the context of high organizational threat (mean difference = 0.15, $p > .05$) but in the context of low organizational threat there is a significant difference between the framing strategies (mean difference = -0.32, $p < .05$) such that framing a proactive initiative in the absence of any framing (M= -0.27, S.D. = 0.54) is less effective than framing the proactive as altering the status quo in a strategic work system (M= 0.14, S.D. = 0.65; see Figure 6). Second, in predicting peers' behavioral participation, a multinomial logistic regression analysis indicated that the interaction effect was not statistically significant ($Z = 0.39$, $p > .05$).

Supplemental Analyses

In light of the weak support for the system justification theoretical framework across the main analyses, in this supplemental analysis, I explore the impact of the interaction between framing and organizational threat on each item of the scale (i.e., intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation) individually. I treated each item as a separate dependent variable (i.e., 12 standardized dependent variables) and tested Hypotheses 4 – 6 using between subjects ANOVA. In addition, I controlled for gender and prosocial values (centered at the mean) in these ANOVA tests. Table 7 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables explored in the supplemental analyses. In addition, Table 8 presents a breakdown of the mean ratings and proportions by the various components of intention to participate and that of behavioral participation.

First, I examined Hypothesis 4 in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. There was a significant interaction effect for only one out of the 12 dependent variables (i.e., peers' intention

to join a student committee and meet with a university administrator to pitch the initiative).

Second, I examined Hypothesis 5 in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure

intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. There was no

significant interaction effect across the 12 dependent variables. Third, I examined Hypothesis 6

in the context of the 12 individual items used to measure intention to participate in a collective

action process for change implementation. There was no significant interaction effect across the

12 dependent variables.[8]

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[8] In addition to the composite measure of intention to participate, I also examined the four components of intention to participate (controlling for gender and prosocial values) – i.e., peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, intention to be directly involved, intention to engage in spillover recruitment, and the provision of their email address. I explored 44 interactions between organizational threat and the framing strategies across these four dependent variables – 10 out of these 44 interactions were significant or marginally significant. Specifically, in the context of organizational threat, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system and the control condition on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important and provision of the email address. Next, in the context of organizational threat, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system and the control condition on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, peer's intention to be directly involved, intention to engage in spillover recruitment, and provision of the email address. In addition, in the context of organizational threat, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system and the control condition on peers' intention to engage in spillover recruitment; and a marginally significant difference on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important and provision of the email address. Lastly, in the context of organizational threat, there was a significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system and the control condition on peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important. Taken together, the overall null findings across the remaining analyses cast doubt on the robustness of the significant interactions outlined above. Consequently, the interaction between the framing strategies and organizational threat do not demonstrate a robust pattern of influence across the different means of participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

Apart from the interaction between organizational threat and framing strategies, I also examined the moderating influence of gender and Smeal affiliation on peers' participation – i.e., peers' acknowledgement that the proactive initiative was important, intention to be directly involved, intention to engage in spillover recruitment, the provision of their email address, and peers' behavioral participation. These moderators were selected in particular because gender was significantly and positively correlated with intention to participate and behavioral participation (see Table 5) and study participants' affiliation with Smeal College of Business (i.e., whether they were Smeal majors or non-Smeal majors) may have played a role in influencing their motivation to participate. Hence, across five dependent variables, I explored 55 interactions involving gender (controlling for prosocial values) and 55 interactions involving Smeal affiliation (controlling for gender and prosocial values). With regards to the interaction between gender, organizational threat, and the framing strategies only one out of these 55 interactions was marginally significant. Specifically, in the context of organizational threat and gender, there was a marginally significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' intention to engage in spillover recruitment. With regards to the interaction between Smeal affiliation, organizational threat, and the framing strategies only two out of these 55 interactions were marginally significant. First, in the context of organizational threat and Smeal affiliation, there was a marginally significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system and framing the proactive initiative using moral goals on peers' intention to be directly

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

Taken together, the results of the second study offer weak support for a system justification perspective on the interaction between framing strategies and organizational threat on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. First, where the main analyses are concerned, Hypothesis 4 – 6 were not supported. Second, the exploratory analyses pointed to an inconsistent effect of the interaction between framing strategies and organizational threat – in particular, in the context of low organizational threat, peers were more likely to indicate intent to participate when the proactive initiative was framed as a) altering the status quo in a personal work system (than in the absence of any framing), b) reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (than in the absence of any framing), and c) altering the status quo in a strategic work system (than in the absence of any framing). In addition, the overall null findings in the other exploratory analyses also casts doubt on the robustness of the significant interactions outlined above. And lastly, where the supplemental analyses are concerned, there is limited support for a system justification perspective (only one interaction effect was significant). On the whole, the results of Study 2 provide weak support for a system justification perspective on the interaction between framing strategies and organizational threat on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Drawing on system justification theory, I proposed that the effectiveness of framing strategies or the organizational context in motivating coworkers to participate in a collective

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involved. Second, in the context of organizational threat and Smeal affiliation, there was a marginally significant difference between framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system and the control condition on peers' provision of their email address. Taken together, the overall null findings across the remaining analyses cast doubt on the robustness of the significant or marginally significant interactions outlined above. Consequently, the gender and Smeal affiliation moderators, respectively, do not demonstrate a robust pattern of influence across the different means of participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

action process for change implementation rests on the extent to which these factors activate coworkers' motive to justify and defend the status quo. Specifically, coworkers' motive to justify and defend the status quo is activated when a proactive initiative is framed as altering the status quo or when an organization is experiencing high threat. When a proactive employee frames the initiative as altering the status quo, he/she inadvertently highlights that the current organizational system is flawed or sub-optimal thus requiring a change in the form of the proactive initiative. Likewise, in the context of high organizational threat the optimal, legitimate, and desirable nature of the organizational system is called into question. To avoid the anxiety that arises from acknowledging that they are part of an organizational system that is flawed, system justification theory posits that coworkers will be motivated to rationalize away the flaws by defending the existing status quo and thus resisting participation in efforts to change the status quo (i.e., implement the proactive initiative). Drawing on this theoretical framework, I proposed that proactive employees will be more likely to motivate peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation when they frame the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system or strategic work system and if they are situated in a context of low organizational threat.

To this end, in Study 1, I examined the effectiveness of the framing strategies in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. In particular, where the exploratory analyses were concerned, framing a proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system was less effective than a moral framing on peers' behavioral participation. On the whole, across the results of the main, exploratory, and supplemental analyses there is very limited support for a system justification perspective on the effectiveness of the framing strategies.

In Study 2, I proposed that in the context of high organizational threat there will be no difference between the framing strategies in recruiting peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation; however in the context of low organizational threat peers will be motivated to participate in a collective action process for change implementation when the proactive initiative is framed as reinforcing the status quo as opposed to when the proactive initiative is framed as altering the status quo. However, I do not find support for this assertion. Specifically, while there was no support for the hypotheses across the main analyses, there was an inconsistent pattern of results from the exploratory analyses, and one significant interaction effect in the supplementary analyses. Taken together, the results of Study 2 also provide very limited support for a system justification framework for peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation.

On the whole, across both studies, there was weak support for a system justification motivation underlying peers' decision to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. While there were a few exceptions which suggested some possibilities for the effect of system justification, these exceptions need to be considered in light of the null findings where system justification motivation did not have an influence on peers' motivation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. An examination of the limitations of the experimental designs in this chapter might offer some insight into the presence of these null findings.

Limitations

There are five main limitations in the design of the experimental studies. The first limitation concerns the lack of social connections between the proactive individual and his/her peer in this study. Specifically, the proactive individual (i.e., the confederate) did not have any

social ties with peers (i.e., participants) in this sample[9] – therefore, participants' decision to participate in implementing the change was not influenced by friendship or social ties with the individual initiating the change. In a field setting, proactive employees and the peers that they may reach out to are most likely socially connected through friendship ties or advice ties which may have an influence on coworkers' likelihood to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. In fact, past research on individuals' participation in social movements suggests that social networks play an important role (Schussman & Soule, 2005; McAdam, 1986) in motivating peers to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. Given the risky nature of proactive initiatives (i.e., requiring coworkers to get on board with changing the status quo at work), coworkers may be more motivated to participate in a collective action process for change implementation if they are invited by a friend (owing to trust between friendship ties; Gibbons & Olk, 2003; Kilduff & Brass, 2010; Venkataramani et al, 2016) than when they are invited by a coworker with whom they are unfamiliar.

A second limitation concerns the assumptions made regarding the personal work system and strategic work system in the context of the current studies. First, with regards to personal work system, the assumption was that participants' (i.e., university students) primary personal work goal is to earn a good grade and secure a competitive job. Second, with regards to the relative importance of personal work system and strategic work system, the assumption was that participants would be more concerned or aware of their personal work system than the strategic system. Surveys that rank higher education institutions offer some evidence for the viability of this assumption. For example, in the surveys conducted by Bloomberg (Levy & Rodkin, 2017), recent graduates' evaluation of their business school's ability to provide high quality education

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[9] With the exception of three participants who were friends of the confederate who delivered the manipulation. Removing these participants from the analyses did not change the results.

and train them for the workplace constitutes a substantial percentage in the computation of the ranking of these business schools (which then serves as indicator to prospective students about the school's quality). However, these assumptions were not directly validated in a pilot study. In a future study, tightly linking the framing strategy to the system that has a personal consequence to participants will provide more value in assessing the role of these framing strategies in motivating peers' to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

The third, and related, limitation concerns the absence of a manipulation check for the effectiveness of the framing strategies in reinforcing or altering the status quo in the personal work system or strategic work system. To avoid raising suspicion among study participants that the proactive initiative (i.e., the student-led mentorship program) is fake, I did not include a manipulation check in the questionnaire that participants received. However the omission of this manipulation check suggests that the weak support for a system justification perspective could have been the result of ineffective framing strategies. Specifically, if participants do not perceive the proactive initiative as reinforcing or altering the status quo, then the underlying system justification principles will not have an impact on peers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation. Hence, in a follow-up study, it will be necessary to examine the effectiveness of the framing strategies in reinforcing or altering the status quo in a personal work system or strategic work system.

The fourth limitation concerns the possibility of a confederate effect where peers' motivation to participate in collective action for change implementation may have been a function of the characteristics of the confederate delivering the framing manipulation as opposed to the effectiveness of the framing strategy. However, conditions that had the same confederate nevertheless were found to exhibit differences between conditions, and such differences would

be unlikely to emerge if effects were solely attributable to confederates. Nonetheless, going forward, using a single confederate to deliver the different framing strategies will reduce the likelihood of a confederate effect on the observed relationships.

The last limitation concerns the assessment of peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. While I was able to assess intentions to participate across the three forms of participation (i.e., through verbal acknowledgement that the proactive initiative is important, direct involvement in tasks, and spillover recruitment), I was not able to assess behavioral participation across those forms of participation owing to the nature of the experimental design. As participants were exposed to a fake proactive initiative, behavioral participation (e.g., following up with participants after a month to assess the number of peers they recruited or assessing whether they spread the word about the mentorship program through their social media accounts) will violate the ethical boundaries of this research (where participants have to be immediately debriefed on the deception involved in the study). Although intention is a strong antecedent to actual behavior (Ajzen, 1991; 2012) – since peers with an intention to participate are those who hold a positive attitude towards actual behavioral participation (Ajzen, 1991; 2012) – evidence suggests that coworkers' intention to participate may not always translate to actual behavior (Ward, 2016). While "motivation can predict willingness [i.e., intention] to participate…willingness is a necessary but insufficient condition of participation" (Klandermans & Oegema, 1987: 520). Factors such as time or resource constraints may impose barriers on coworkers' ability to take action on their intention to participate by actually engaging in behavioral participation. In this chapter, although I was able to assess one type of behavioral participation (i.e., signing a support letter) in a future study it will be important to assess peers' behavioral participation across the three forms of participation.

Contributions and Future Directions

In sum, although there was weak support for the theoretical framework, one contribution of this chapter lies in the collective approach to proactive change implementation. In particular, by focusing on the role of the collective, this chapter advances the proactivity literature by shifting the focus away from the individual proactive employee to a focus on the role of their coworkers (i.e., fellow students) in implementing the change. This chapter is the first to consider the role of others in implementing a proactive initiative by examining others' reactions to a proposal to join in implementing a student based mentorship program. Future research will be necessary to offer more specific guidelines on when the collective will be more likely to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

In terms of future research directions, although system justification theory did not seem to predict who is motivated to participate in a proactive initiative, drawing on self-determination theory may provide an alternative framework for when the collective may be motivated to overcome the status quo and participate in implementing a change in the workplace. Specifically, self-determination theory posits that individuals are motivated when their need for autonomy (i.e., sense of ownership over one's actions as opposed to acting on external pressures), competence (i.e., the need to learn and master one's skills), and relatedness (i.e., sense of belonging) is satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The satisfaction of the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness might be one reason why coworkers may be willing to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

In particular, an invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation may allow coworkers to satisfy their basic psychological needs. First, by participating in implementing the change, coworkers have control over the change that is about

to take place. On the other hand, when a change is implemented from the top-down (i.e., when a supervisor approves the proactive employee's proposal and makes the change official), coworkers may resist the change as the change is being imposed upon them, thus reducing their sense of control over the change process. Second, an invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation allows coworkers to satisfy the need for competence. By participating in implementing the change, coworkers will be able to use their unique skills or resources and at the same time learn or grow their skills as a function of being involved in a challenging process of implementing changes from lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. Third, an invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation allows coworkers to satisfy the need for relatedness. By participating in implementing the change, coworkers will experience a greater sense of belonging by working together with other coworkers (e.g., through collaborating with other coworkers to implement the change). For example, when women participated in organizational activist groups they experienced a sense of belonging from talking to other women who were experiencing similar challenges (Scully & Segal, 2002). As participating in a collective action process for change implementation will allow coworkers to satisfy these needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, coworkers will be more likely to internalize the need for the change (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and thus be more likely to accept an invitation to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

Future research on coworkers' participation in a collective action process for change implementation will benefit from examining this participation in the context of the main tenets of self-determination theory. First, in addition to focusing on framing the proactive initiative in a manner that will be desirable to coworkers (e.g., reinforcing the personal work system), self-

determination theory suggests that it may also be beneficial to focus on framing the participation in a manner that will satisfy the needs of coworkers. Specifically, proactive employees may highlight to coworkers the benefits of participation by suggesting that participation in implementing the change will allow coworkers to have more control over the change (i.e., satisfying the need for autonomy), participation in implementing the change will be an informative process as they get to put their skills to use and learn new skills from others (i.e., satisfying the need for competence), and that participation in implementing the change will be an enjoyable process as they will be working with others who are similarly interested in the change (i.e., satisfying the need for relatedness).

Another direction for future research would be to examine the type of coworkers that proactive employees seek to recruit. The social movements literature argues that one of the most important predictors of individuals' participation in a movement is whether they were recruited by a person with whom they had personal connections (McAdam, 1986). Therefore, the type of coworkers (i.e., friends, mentors, or teammates) that proactive employees reach out to will have important implications for whether these coworkers agree to participate in a collective action process for change implementation. In addition, it will be helpful to also examine how proactive employees tailor their framing strategies to recruit these different coworkers. For example, given that close friendships are characterized by trust (Gibbons & Olk, 2003; Kilduff & Brass, 2010; Venkataramani et al, 2016), proactive employees recruiting their friends at work may not be inclined to temper the proactive initiative by framing it as one that reinforces the organizational system (as they can be open and straightforward with these individuals whom they trust). On the other hand, when recruiting mentors or teammates it may be more necessary to frame the

proactive initiative using language that signals that the initiative strengthens the status quo and that participation allows for the satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Conclusion

On the whole, although there was weak support for the assertions made on the premise of system justification theory, focusing on the role of the collective offers a first step in shifting the focus away from the individual proactive employee to a focus on the role of their coworkers in implementing the change. Future research, to this end, will be necessary to offer more specific guidelines on when the collective will be more likely to participate in collective action process for change implementation.

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TABLE 1
Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Main Analysis Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender	0.38	0.49	-						
2. Prosocial Values	5.57	1.01	0.16**	(0.89)					
3. Framing: Personal Work System[b]	0.54	0.50	0.12	0.13	-				
4. Framing: Strategic Work System[c]	0.52	0.50	-0.02	-0.15	-	-			
5. Framing: Personal and Strategic Work Systems[d]	0.54	0.50	0.10	0.19	-	-	-		
6. Intention to Participate	0.00	0.58	0.17**	0.22**	0.01	-0.18	0.08	(0.82)	
7. Behavioral Participation	0.93	0.25	0.09	-0.03	-0.05	0.06	-0.10	0.35**	-

[a] N = 86 - 261. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. ** $p < .01$
[b] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded 0); N=97.
[c] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=86.
[d] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=97.

TABLE 2
Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Exploratory Analysis Variables[a]

	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender	0.38	0.49	-											
2. Prosocial Values	5.57	1.01	0.16**	(0.89)										
3. Framing 1[b]	0.56	0.50	0.07	-0.03	-									
4. Framing 2[c]	-0.52	0.50	0.06	0.18	-	-								
5. Framing 3[d]	0.52	0.50	-0.03	-0.24*	-	-	-							
6. Framing 4[e]	-0.50	0.50	0.02	0.09	-	-	-	-						
7. Framing 5[f]	0.58	0.50	-0.08	-0.03	-	-	-	-	-					
8. Framing 6[g]	-0.55	0.50	0.21	0.17	-	-	-	-	-	-				
9. Framing 7[h]	0.55	0.50	-0.18	-0.23*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
10. Framing 8[i]	-0.53	0.50	0.17	0.08	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
11. Intention to Participate	0.00	0.58	0.17**	0.22**	-0.14	0.15	-0.22*	0.04	-0.05	0.07	-0.13	-0.05	(0.82)	
12. Behavioral Participation	0.93	0.25	0.09	-0.03	-0.21*	0.18	-0.15	0.20	0.02	-0.07	0.12	-0.06	0.35**	-

[a] Note. N = 78 - 261. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
[b] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N=93.
[c] Altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded -1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N=86.
[d] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N=86.
[e] Altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded -1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N=82.
[f] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. control (coded 0); N=89.
[g] Altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded -1) vs. control (coded 0); N=82.
[h] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. control (coded 0); N=82.
[i] Altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded -1) vs. control (coded 0); N=78.

TABLE 3
Study 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Supplementary Analysis Variables[a]

	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	0.38	0.49	-								
2. Prosocial Values	5.57	1.01	0.16^{**}	(0.89)							
3. Framing: Personal Work System[b]	0.54	0.50	0.12	0.13	-						
4. Framing: Strategic Work System[c]	0.52	0.50	-0.02	-0.15	-	-					
5. Framing: Personal and Strategic Work Systems[d]	0.54	0.50	0.10	0.19	-	-	-				
6. Email - Intention to Participate	0.64	0.48	0.13^{*}	0.11	0.31^{**}	-0.11	0.21^{*}	-			
7. Monthly meetings with student committee	0.37	0.49	0.18^{**}	0.18^{**}	0.03	-0.22^{*}	0.19	0.39^{**}	-		
8. Meeting university administrator	0.24	0.43	0.16^{**}	0.18^{**}	-0.01	-0.24^{*}	0.16	0.31^{**}	0.64^{**}	-	
9. Volunteer as a mentor	0.50	0.50	0.10	0.12	0.06	-0.22^{*}	0.25^{*}	0.54^{**}	0.41^{**}	0.42^{**}	-

[a] Note. N = 86 - 261. Gender: male = 0, female = 1. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$
[b] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded 0); N=97.
[c] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=86.
[d] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=97.

TABLE 4
Study 1 Mean ratings of acknowledgment and proportions of direct involvement, spillover recruitment, email address, and behavioral participation by condition

Dependent Variable	Personal: Reinforcing	Personal: Altering	Strategic: Reinforcing	Strategic: Altering	Moral	Control
Acknowledgement						
M	5.58	5.73	5.84	5.95	6.18	5.86
S.D.	1.01	0.80	0.77	0.69	0.82	0.88
N	51	45	45	40	41	37
Direct Involvement						
M	0.45	0.42	0.30	0.47	0.44	0.41
S.D.	0.35	0.36	0.29	0.34	0.33	0.37
N	51	45	45	39	41	36
Spillover Recruitment						
M	0.57	0.60	0.57	0.62	0.61	0.68
S.D.	0.31	0.31	0.30	0.27	0.28	0.31
N	51	45	45	39	41	36
Email Address						
Yes	78.80%	48.90%	60.00%	70.70%	70.70%	51.40%
No	21.20%	51.10%	40.00%	29.30%	29.30%	48.60%
N	52	45	45	41	41	37
Behavioral Participation						
Yes	90.40%	93.30%	95.60%	92.70%	100.00%	89.20%
No	9.60%	6.70%	4.40%	7.30%	0.00%	10.80%
N	52	45	45	41	41	37

TABLE 5
Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Main Analysis Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	0.41	0.49	-							
2. Prosocial Values	5.55	1.07	0.09	(0.89)						
3. Organizational Threat[b]	0.51	0.50	-0.01	-0.07	-					
4. Framing: Personal Work System[c]	0.48	0.50	-0.16*	0.04	0.02	-				
5. Framing: Strategic Work System[d]	0.47	0.50	-0.05	0.00	-0.11	-	-			
6. Framing: Personal and Strategic Work Systems[e]	0.51	0.50	-0.06	-0.02	0.01	-	-	-		
7. Intention to Participate	0.00	0.63	0.29**	0.24**	-0.03	-0.14	-0.02	-0.06	(0.87)	
8. Behavioral Participation	0.88	0.33	0.12**	0.13**	0.00	-0.22**	0.11	-0.16*	0.52**	-

[a] N = 162 - 492. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

[b] Organizational threat: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat; N = 492.

[c] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded 0); N=172.

[d] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=171.

[e] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=162.

TABLE 6
Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Exploratory Analysis Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Gender	0.41	0.49	-												
2. Prosocial Values	5.55	1.07	0.09	(0.89)											
3. Organizational Threat[b]	0.51	0.50	-0.01	-0.07	-										
4. Framing 1[c]	0.52	0.50	-0.18*	0.00	0.00	-									
5. Framing 2[d]	-0.54	0.50	0.02	0.04	0.02	-	-								
6. Framing 3[e]	0.51	0.50	-0.12	0.02	-0.01	-	-	-							
7. Framing 4[f]	-0.54	0.50	0.06	-0.02	-0.10	-	-	-	-						
8. Framing 5[g]	0.53	0.50	-0.13	0.07	-0.05	-	-	-	-	-					
9. Framing 6[h]	-0.55	0.50	-0.03	-0.03	0.07	-	-	-	-	-	-				
10. Framing 7[i]	0.52	0.50	-0.07	0.09	-0.06	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
11. Framing 8[j]	-0.55	0.50	0.01	-0.08	-0.05	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		
12. Intention to Participate	0.00	0.63	0.29**	0.24**	-0.03	-0.13	-0.01	-0.08	0.05	-0.01	-0.14	0.05	-0.07	(0.87)	
13. Behavioral Participation	0.88	0.33	0.12**	0.13**	0.00	-0.03	-0.19*	0.13	-0.02	-0.04	-0.18*	0.12	-0.01	0.52**	-

[a] Note. N = 153 - 492. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
[b] Organizational threat: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat; N = 492.
[c] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N = 158.
[d] Altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded -1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N = 166.
[e] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N = 156.
[f] Altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded -1) vs. moral framing (coded 0); N = 167.
[g] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. control (coded 0); N = 155.
[h] Altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded -1) vs. control (coded 0); N = 163.
[i] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. control (coded 0); N = 153.

[j] Altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded -1) vs. control (coded 0); N = 164.

TABLE 7
Study 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Supplementary Analysis Variables[a]

Variable	Mean	S. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Gender	0.41	0.49	-						
2. Prosocial Values	5.55	1.07	0.09	(0.89)					
3. Organizational Threat[b]	0.51	0.50	-0.01	-0.07	-				
4. Framing: Personal Work System[c]	0.48	0.50	-0.16*	0.04	0.02	-			
5. Framing: Strategic Work System[d]	0.47	0.50	-0.05	0.00	-0.11	-	-		
6. Framing: Personal and Strategic Work Systems[e]	0.51	0.50	-0.07	-0.02	0.01	-	-	-	
7. Meet with University Administrator	0.23	0.42	0.12*	0.12**	-0.02	-0.04	-0.03	0.02	-

[a] N = 162 - 492. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Reliability coefficients are reported along the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

[b] Organizational threat: 0 = low threat, 1 = high threat; N = 492.

[c] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a personal work system (coded 0); N=172.

[d] Reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 1) vs. altering the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=171.

[e] Reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system (coded 1) vs. reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system (coded 0); N=162.

TABLE 8
Study 2 Mean ratings of acknowledgment and proportions of direct involvement, spillover recruitment, email address, and behavioral participation by condition

Dependent Variable	Low Organizational Threat						High Organizational Threat					
	1[a]	2[b]	3[c]	4[d]	5[e]	6[f]	1[a]	2[b]	3[c]	4[d]	5[e]	6[f]
Acknowledgement												
M	5.70	5.89	5.78	6.04	5.86	5.38	5.23	5.66	5.70	5.49	5.87	5.99
S.D.	1.02	1.14	1.33	0.97	1.21	1.34	1.22	1.07	1.00	1.10	0.97	0.78
N	38	46	40	36	38	32	38	41	37	53	35	38
Direct Involvement												
M	0.33	0.44	0.35	0.44	0.51	0.24	0.39	0.36	0.38	0.35	0.41	0.36
S.D.	0.34	0.37	0.35	0.39	0.40	0.24	0.39	0.36	0.35	0.32	0.42	0.30
N	38	45	40	36	38	32	38	41	37	52	34	38
Spillover Recruitment												
M	0.52	0.70	0.56	0.60	0.59	0.50	0.52	0.67	0.50	0.58	0.59	0.66
S.D.	0.32	0.29	0.33	0.34	0.33	0.24	0.33	0.27	0.32	0.29	0.35	0.29
N	38	46	39	36	38	32	38	41	37	53	34	38
Email Address												
Yes	64.30%	56.30%	71.40%	60.50%	61.50%	41.20%	57.50%	54.80%	65.80%	60.40%	54.10%	69.20%
No	35.70%	43.80%	28.60%	39.50%	38.50%	58.80%	42.50%	45.20%	34.20%	39.60%	45.90%	30.80%
N	42	48	42	38	39	34	40	42	38	53	37	39
Behavioral Participation												
Yes	85.70%	95.80%	90.50%	84.20%	87.20%	79.40%	77.50%	95.20%	94.70%	86.80%	81.10%	89.70%
No	14.30%	4.20%	9.50%	15.80%	12.80%	20.60%	22.50%	4.80%	5.30%	13.20%	18.90%	10.30%
N	42	48	42	38	39	34	40	42	38	53	37	39

Note.
[a] Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system.
[b] Framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system.
[c] Framing the proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system.

[d] Framing the proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system.
[e] Framing the proactive initiative using a moral frame (i.e., moral condition).
[f] Presenting the proactive initiative in the absence of any framing (i.e., control condition).
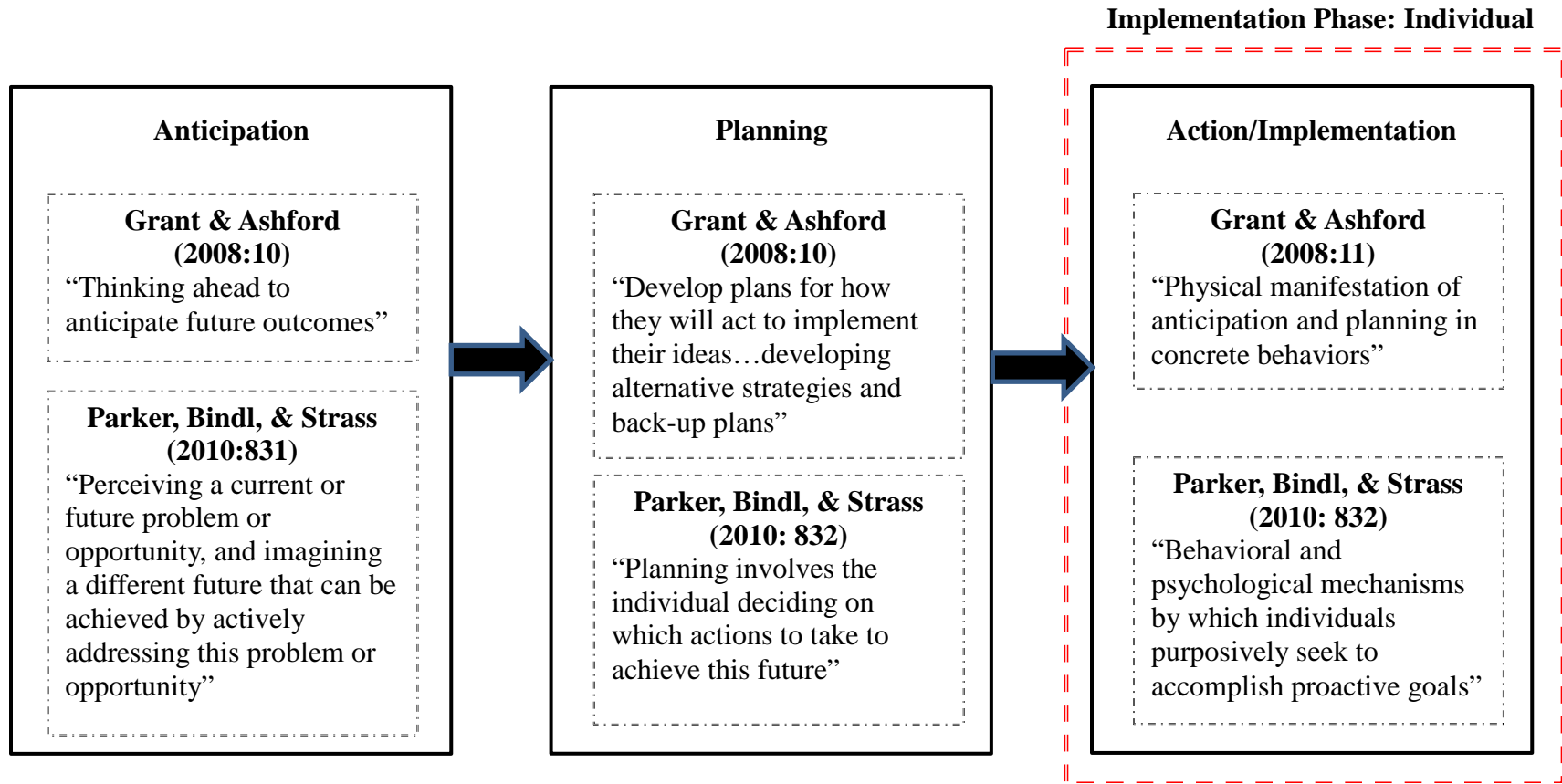
Implementation Phase: Individual

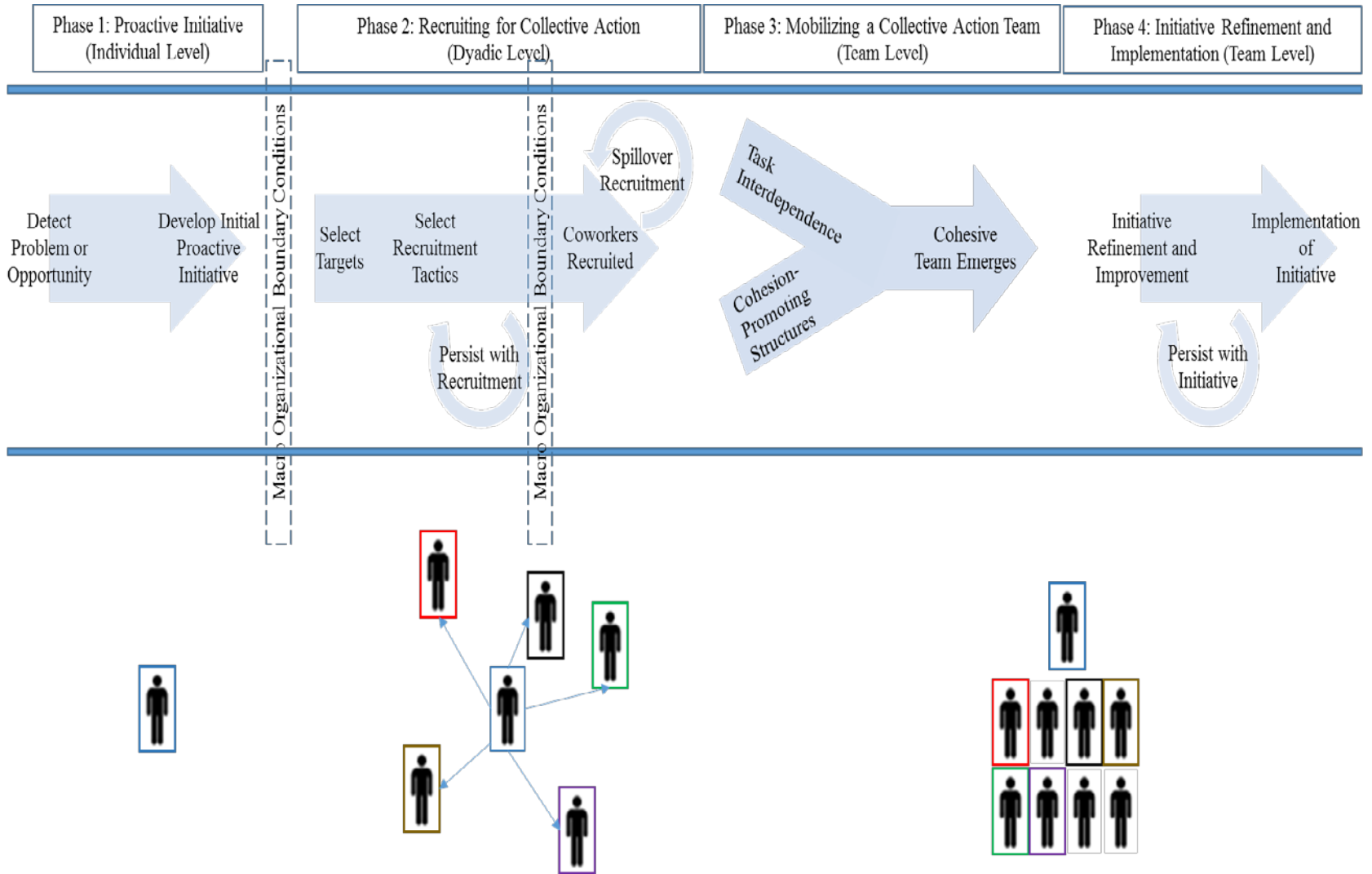| Anticipation	Planning	Action/Implementation
Grant & Ashford (2008:10) "Thinking ahead to anticipate future outcomes"	**Grant & Ashford (2008:10)** "Develop plans for how they will act to implement their ideas…developing alternative strategies and back-up plans"	**Grant & Ashford (2008:11)** "Physical manifestation of anticipation and planning in concrete behaviors"
Parker, Bindl, & Strass (2010:831) "Perceiving a current or future problem or opportunity, and imagining a different future that can be achieved by actively addressing this problem or opportunity"	**Parker, Bindl, & Strass (2010: 832)** "Planning involves the individual deciding on which actions to take to achieve this future"	**Parker, Bindl, & Strass (2010: 832)** "Behavioral and psychological mechanisms by which individuals purposively seek to accomplish proactive goals"

FIGURE 1. Proactivity Process

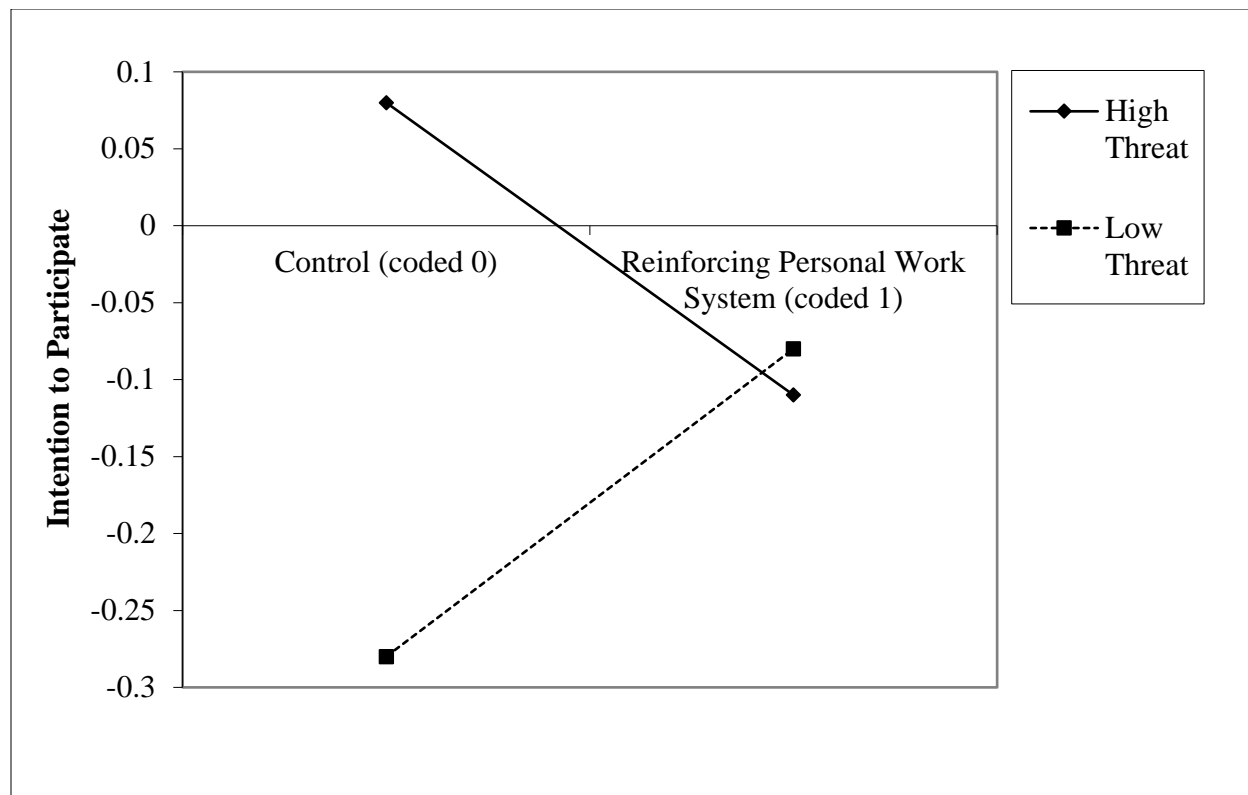**FIGURE 2. A Collective Action Process for Change Implementation**

FIGURE 3. Interaction between framing strategies (reinforcing personal work system vs. control) and organizational threat on peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.
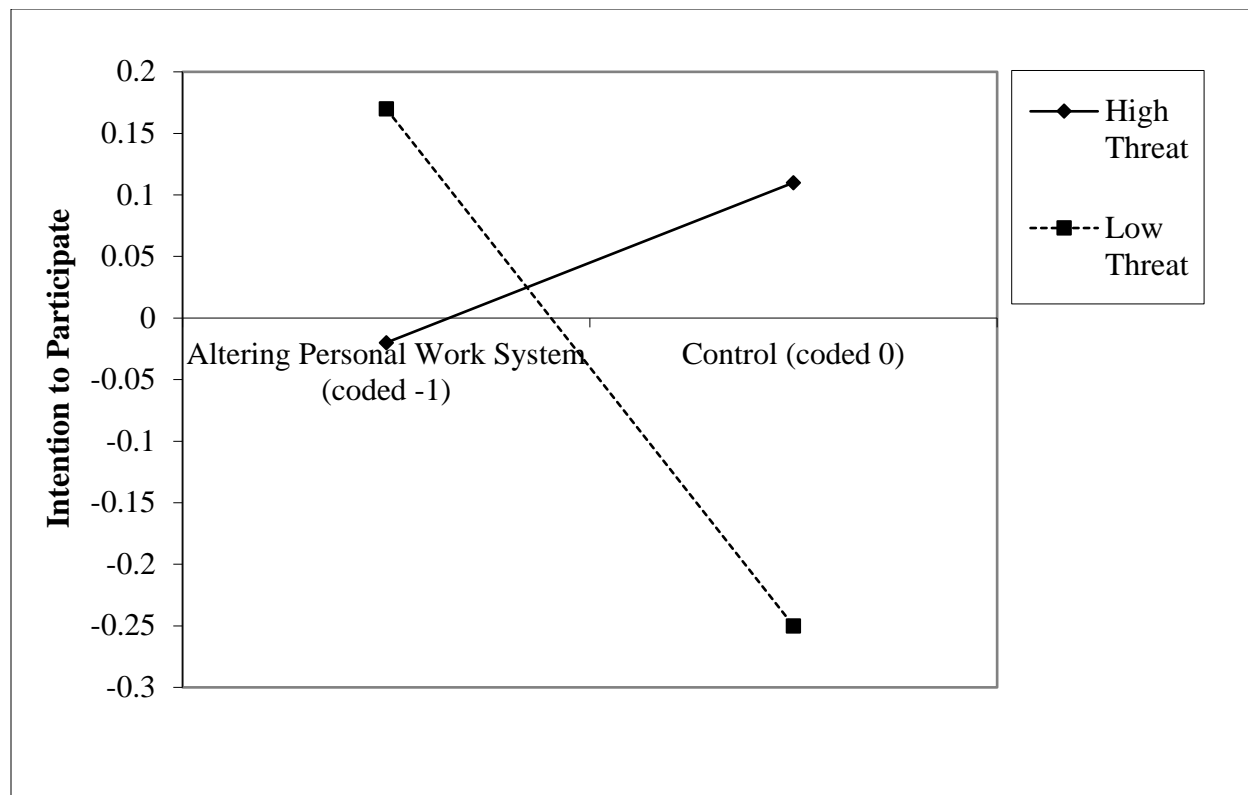
FIGURE 4. Interaction between framing strategies (altering personal work system vs. control) and organizational threat on peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

FIGURE 5. Interaction between framing strategies (reinforcing strategic work system vs. control) and organizational threat on peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.

FIGURE 6. Interaction between framing strategies (altering strategic work system vs. control) and organizational threat on peers' intention to participate in a collective action process for change implementation.
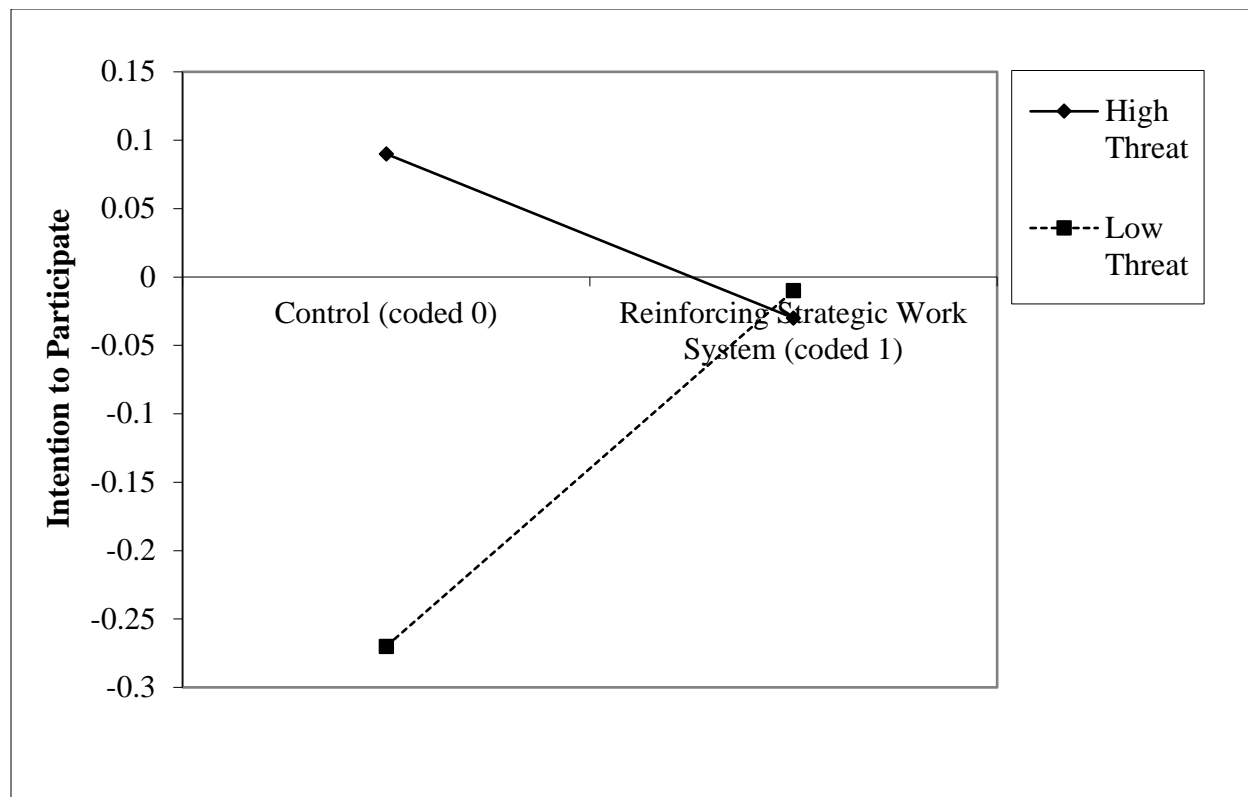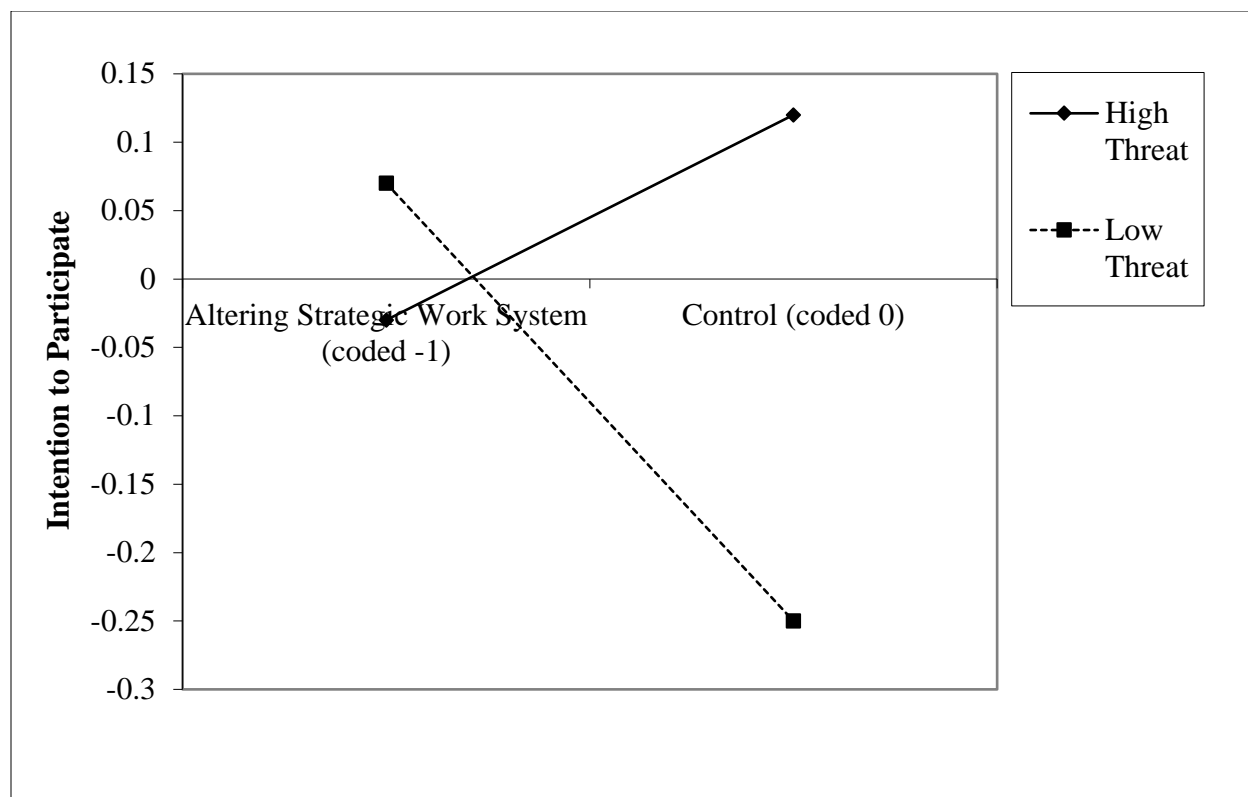
Appendix A. Framing Scripts

Hi everyone, my name is Alex and I'm a sophomore in Smeal. I'm currently putting together a proposal for a new initiative at Smeal and I'm looking to get some feedback on this program from fellow Smeal students. So I reached out to the 205 lab manager to see if I could conduct a focus group where you all give me your thoughts on the proposal in exchange for receiving research credit. So today you won't be doing the typical experiments that we sign up for in this lab, but rather today's session is a focus group.

The new initiative I'm putting forward is called the 'Smeal Big Sib' program, where sophomores and juniors are matched with freshmen to mentor new students as they take the Management 301 or Marketing 301 entrance to major courses. Essentially, through this 'Smeal Big Sib' program, we can host monthly study sessions so freshmen can get help on topics that they're struggling with or to learn more effective methods to study for the exams in these classes.

As we've taken the entrance to major courses such as Management 301 or Marketing 301, I'm sure we can resonate with the feeling of being overwhelmed with the amount of information covered in these classes and studying for exams. In my freshman year, I remember feeling like it was information overload and it was a stressful period. Although freshmen can speak with profs about these issues, I thought it would be very helpful to also learn from other students' first-hand experiences. Since we've already taken these classes we can speak from our personal experiences. Especially since a good grade in these courses is crucial for final approval for a Smeal major, freshmen may be able to learn from our experience to better manage their progress in these critical courses.

<<< Framing >>>

Now, here's where today's focus group comes in: for this program to be successful, I'd like to ask for your feedback on this initiative. So, in this packet [take out a sample packet], you'll find a short feedback form where I'd like you to list some of your thoughts, either for or against this idea. So, once I'm done talking, I'd like you to please take a few moments to write down some thoughts about the Big Sib idea.

The other thing I'd like to ask you for, if you're willing to give it, is your support for the initiative. There are two elements to this. First, for the Dean's office to approve this 'Smeal Big Sib' program and allocate funds to implement the program, the Dean has said we'd need to demonstrate that Smeal students support this initiative and are willing to participate. So if you are interested in this initiative, inside the packet is also a support letter that you can sign. These letters will be collected and sent to the Director of Student Affairs in the Dean's office as evidence of student support for this initiative. If you choose to support it, then when signing this letter please be sure to write your name, year, major, and PSU email at the top of the letter to ensure that the letter is genuinely from a student at Smeal.

The second way you can support this initiative is that I'd appreciate if you can help publicize it in any way you can – so for example, once pamphlets are made you could send them to your friends, once flyers are made you could help post flyers, maybe meet with the Dean to help support the initiative, etc. So if you're willing, I've listed a few ways you can support and help

implement this new initiative. If you're interested, please indicate which methods of helping you prefer and if you can leave an email address at the end, I'll get in touch with you later. Thanks again for your help with this. Does anyone have any questions?

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Framing proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a personal work system: In addition, participating in this 'Smeal Big Sib' program will be useful for you because we all want to land a good job after we graduate, and being able to list on our resumes that we've taken the time to mentor and guide our fellow students can help set us apart from other job applicants because these sorts of student-based mentorships aren't common in a lot of other colleges. By participating, it'll send a signal to future employers that we have a sense of service and responsibility which means that we will be good team players. So participating in this Big Sib program benefits us too by boosting our resume and setting us apart from other candidates in the hiring process.

Framing proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a personal work system: That said, I do realize that as students we're also pretty busy trying to get good grades, improve our GPA, and ultimately land a good job before we graduate. So mentoring freshmen is another extra thing to do when we're already very busy with juggling classes, work, and other stuff. Acting as mentors to other students is an added responsibility that might take some time away from our other goals. So I'm aware that this mentorship program also can provide challenges for us too.

Framing proactive initiative as reinforcing the status quo in a strategic work system: Implementing this Big Sib program is actually also in line with Smeal's strategic goals – if you check out Smeal's goals on our website, one of them is providing students with resources for us to succeed academically. Through this Big Sib program, freshmen will get critical information from us, their peers, and make good decisions on managing the entrance to major courses. So this Big Sib initiative helps Smeal implement its strategic goals and also stays true to Penn State's values of being a community and working together to help and support each other. So this new mentorship initiative will go a long way in supporting and contributing to the goals and values of what makes us Penn Staters.

Framing proactive initiative as altering the status quo in a strategic work system: That said, I do realize that this doesn't exactly align neatly with Smeal's strategic goals on our website, which focus on academic integrity and transforming business. However, as a college, we also need to focus on providing more effective guidance for freshmen students. Engaging the student population as mentors allows freshmen to gain the perspective of fellow students who have already managed the demands of the entrance to major courses. So I'm aware that this mentorship initiative is different from the current strategic focus of Smeal, and there could be challenges for getting Smeal's support for the initiative.

Framing the proactive initiative in terms of moral goals: And more broadly, it is important that we have such a program to mentor and offer guidance to freshmen because it is the right thing to do. Managing the entrance to major courses is often a very challenging experience and many students feel overwhelmed in this process. Putting in place a Big Sib program ensures that our

freshmen have the necessary support and help from peers who have been through the same classes and have the first-hand experience to guide freshmen. Therefore it's important that we do what is right and help support our freshmen as they navigate these critical classes.

Appendix B. Intention to Participate in a Collective Action Process for Change Implementation

1. Acknowledgment of the importance of the proactive initiative

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

This 'Smeal Big Sib' program is an important initiative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The 'Smeal Big Sib' program should be implemented in Smeal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Freshmen will find this 'Smeal Big Sib' program helpful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Direct involvement and spillover recruitment
I am willing to…

Spread the word about this 'Smeal Big Sib' program to my friends in Smeal.	Yes	No
Share flyers regarding the 'Smeal Big Sib' program or post these flyers around Smeal.	Yes	No
Ask my friends in Smeal to sign a letter to support the implementation of the 'Smeal Big Sib' program.	Yes	No
Add my e-mail address to a mailing list to receive recent updates about the 'Smeal Big Sib' program.	Yes	No
Join the 'Smeal Big Sib' student committee and meet once a month during the Spring 2017 semester to help plan for the implementation of this program.	Yes	No
Join the 'Smeal Big Sib' student committee to meet with the Director of Student Affairs to pitch this initiative.	Yes	No
Volunteer for one day at an information booth in Smeal to create awareness about the "Smeal Big Sib" program.	Yes	No
Volunteer in this program to mentor a few freshmen students in Fall 2017.	Yes	No

Email Address: _____

Appendix C. Study 2 Organizational Threat Manipulation (Low Threat)

The Economist World politics Business & finance Economics Science & technology Culture Blogs Debate Multimedia Print edition

Which Business School? » Best American Undergraduate Business Schools 2016 » Pennsylvania State University»

Best American Undergraduate Business Schools 2016
Nov 30th 2016, 13:16 by Charles Miller

The Economist ranks undergraduate business programs in the country based on feedback from employers or recruiters, alumni ratings, starting salary, internships, and job placements. Here are the rankings for Pennsylvania State University (Smeal College).

School Information: Pennsylvania State University (Smeal College)
Annual Tuition and Fees: $17,900 (in-state); $32,382 (out-of-state)
Application Deadline: Rolling
Address: 220 Business Building, University Park, PA 16802-3000
School Type: Public
Semester: Academic Calendar Year
Founded: 1855

Summary of Rankings (The full report is available here)

School: Penn State (Smeal)	2016	2015	Change
Overall Rank	19	30	Up 11 spots from 2015
Internship rank	68	63	Down 5 spots from 2015
Employer survey rank	8	18	Up 10 spots from 2015
Salary rank	35	44	Up 9 spots from 2015

Analyzing The Numbers: This year, the Penn State Smeal program ranks at No. 19 in the nationwide ranking of undergraduate business schools. This current overall rank of 19 out of 200 is a significant improvement for Smeal College compared to its overall rank in 2015 (i.e., 30 out of 200).

In addition, compared to 2015, Smeal also posted stronger numbers in multiple categories. The higher rank for the employer survey category represents an increase in employers' confidence in the extent to which Smeal graduates are prepared for jobs. In addition, the higher rank for the salary category (compared to 2015) represents an increase in the starting base salary of Smeal graduates. However, the lower rank for the internship category highlights an area for improvement as it currently represents a decrease in the proportion of students participating in internships.

The Economist's View: Smeal's efforts in ensuring the employability of their graduates appears to be one of its core strengths. The improvement in the employer and salary category rankings signal higher quality training for Smeal students that results in their ability to secure competitive jobs and work towards successful career paths. These rankings may reflect that recruiters and employers view Smeal graduates as competent as graduates from peer institutions and as high-value assets for their organizations.

Appendix D. Study 2 Organizational Threat Manipulation (High Threat)

Which Business School? » Best American Undergraduate Business Schools 2016 » Pennsylvania State University»

Best American Undergraduate Business Schools 2016
Nov 30th 2016, 13:16 by Charles Miller

The Economist ranks undergraduate business programs in the country based on feedback from employers or recruiters, alumni ratings, starting salary, internships, and job placements. Here are the rankings for Pennsylvania State University (Smeal College).

School Information: Pennsylvania State University (Smeal College)
Annual Tuition and Fees: $17,900 (in-state); $32,382 (out-of-state)
Application Deadline: Rolling
Address: 220 Business Building, University Park, PA 16802-3000
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Semester: Academic Calendar Year
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Summary of Rankings (The full report is available here)

School: Penn State (Smeal)	2016	2015	Change
Overall Rank	30	19	Down 11 spots from 2015
Internship rank	63	68	Up 5 spots from 2015
Employer survey rank	18	8	Down 10 spots from 2015
Salary rank	44	35	Down 9 spots from 2015

Analyzing The Numbers: This year, the Penn State Smeal program ranks at No. 30 in the nationwide ranking of undergraduate business schools. This current overall rank of 30 out of 200 is a significant drop for Smeal College compared to its overall rank in 2015 (i.e., 19 out of 200).

In addition, compared to 2015, Smeal also posted weaker numbers in multiple categories. The lower rank for the employer survey category represents a decrease in employers' confidence in the extent to which Smeal graduates are prepared for jobs. In addition, the lower rank for the salary category (compared to 2015) represents a decrease in the starting base salary of Smeal graduates. However, the higher rank for the internship category highlights a strength of the college as it currently represents an increase in the proportion of students participating in internships.

The Economist's View: Smeal's efforts in ensuring the employability of their graduates needs to be ramped up. The significant drop in the employer and salary category rankings signal lower quality training for Smeal students that affects their ability to secure competitive jobs and work towards successful career paths. These rankings may reflect that recruiters and employers do not view Smeal graduates as competent as graduates from peer institutions or are not high-value assets for their organizations.

Appendix E. Study 2 Comprehension and Manipulation Check Questions

Comprehension Check – Question 1	lower			no different			higher
The 2016 salary category rank indicates that, in comparison to business graduates from peer schools, Smeal graduates receive a starting salary that is…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comprehension Check – Question 2	under- prepared for the job			neither			prepared for the job
The 2016 employer survey category rank indicates that employers' perceive Smeal graduates' as being…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Comprehension Check – Question 3	decreased			remained the same			increased
Compared to 2015, the 2016 internship category rank indicates that the proportion of Smeal graduates' participating in internships has…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Manipulation Check – Question 1	upset			neither			happy
The overall difference in the rankings (i.e., from 2015 to 2016) makes me…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Manipulation Check – Question 2	negatively			neither			positively
The difference in the ranking may impact Smeal's reputation…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Manipulation Check – Question 3	unfavorable			neither			favorable
Based on these 2016 rankings, recruiters may form an impression of Smeal graduates that is…	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

VITA

SHEREEN FATIMAH

ACADEMIC POSITION

Assistant Professor of Organisational Behaviour & Human Resources
Singapore Management University   July 2017

EDUCATION

The Pennsylvania State University (Smeal College of Business)   2012 – 2017
Doctor of Philosophy (Business Administration)

University of Western Australia (Undergraduate Student Exchange)   2007

National University of Singapore   2006 – 2010
Bachelor of Social Sciences (Psychology), 2nd Class (Upper) Honours

RESEARCH PROGRAM

My program of research focuses on processes surrounding proactive work behaviors. Specifically, drawing upon system justification and approach/avoidance motivational frameworks, I take a multi-level approach to understanding the top-down role of the meso and macro environments in encouraging or stifling the proactivity process, as well as how proactivity reciprocally influences the meso and macro environments through bottom-up processes. Throughout this work, I adopt an interdisciplinary approach and integrate the proactivity literature with (and contribute to) research on social movements and activism.

PUBLICATIONS

Ferris, D. L., Yan, M., Lim, V. K. G., Chen, Y., & **Fatimah, S**. 2016. An approach-avoidance framework of workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59: 1777-1800.

Spitzmuller, M., Sin, H. P., Howe, M., & **Fatimah, S.** 2015. Investigating the uniqueness and usefulness of proactive personality in organizational research – A meta-analytic review. *Human Performance*, 28: 351-379.

ACADEMIC GRANTS & AWARDS

- Smeal – Grace G. Albrecht Scholarship for Women in Management   2016-2017
- Smeal – Nominated for the Ossian R. MacKenzie teaching award   2016
- Smeal – Small Research Grant (Total Awarded: USD 5000)   2013, 2015-2017
- Smeal College of Business – Frank and Mary Jean Smeal Endowment Fund   2013-2014
- Smeal College of Business – Management and Organization Excellence Fund   2012-2017
- NUS – Overseas Student Exchange Award (SGD 3500)   2007
- National University of Singapore – Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences Dean's List   2006