


Event-Oriented Organizational Behavior Research: A Multilevel Review and Agenda for Future Research

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A large and growing body of organizational behavior (OB) research has adopted what can be termed an “event-oriented” perspective. Broadly speaking, this stream of research focuses on discrete, change-oriented events that occur at different hierarchical levels as well as the impact of such events on employee outcomes. This event-oriented OB research stands in contrast to the traditional focus on the enduring features of people and collectives. Although event-oriented OB research has become increasingly prominent and influential, a systematic and

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integrative review of this important domain has yet to be conducted. Event-oriented OB research has utilized a wide range of theoretical and methodological perspectives, leading to a fragmented and disconnected literature. A synthesis of extant event-oriented OB studies is needed to obtain a more integrated and holistic view of this domain. In the present review, we propose a four-level framework to enhance our understanding of the types of events studied and synthesize insights from event-oriented OB studies. With this understanding and synthesis, we highlight promising theoretical and methodological opportunities for future research. In sum, our review facilitates a more systematic and refined understanding of events and can assist future event-oriented OB research by highlighting novel avenues for theoretical extensions and methodological improvements.

Keywords: *event-oriented OB research; event system theory; integrative review; theoretical extensions; methodological improvements*

Organizations and their workers are significantly affected by a wide variety of events at different levels. Coworker turnover (Felps et al., 2009), interruptive team events (Zellmer-Bruhn, 2003), organizational scandals (Gadgil & Sockin, 2020), and terrorist attacks (Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007) are but a few examples of impactful events that can substantially impact employees' psychological states, attitudes, and behaviors. For example, work–family conflict episodes may be followed by acute psychological strain (French & Allen, 2020). A terrorist attack may elicit anxiety and stress (Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007). A job promotion may cause the promoted employee to exercise less organizational citizenship behavior (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). The COVID-19 pandemic and its associated impacts have fundamentally altered how employees interact with each other, producing widespread changes (Kniffin et al., 2021). Events can also beget new events that have further downstream consequences. For example, customer mistreatment may cause customer-directed sabotage (Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011), whereas absenteeism may be contagious such that the frequency of team member absenteeism can produce individual employee absenteeism (Mathieu & Kohler, 1990). As these examples suggest, discrete events can have an important impact on many different organizational phenomena.

The importance of such events and their impact on organizations has long been acknowledged (e.g., Allport, 1954; Weick, 1979). Scholars have employed a variety of theoretical lenses (e.g., the transactional model of stress, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; self-determination theory, Deci & Ryan, 1985; conservation of resources theory, Hobfoll, 2011; ego-depletion theory, Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998) to explore the effects of certain events (e.g., stressful events, recognition events, natural disasters, and air pollution events) on employees and teams. However, it was not until the mid 1990s that event-focused organizational behavior (OB) theories started being developed. For example, the unfolding model of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) have become important middle-range theories focused on employee turnover and affective events in organizational settings. More recently, Event System Theory (EST; Morgeson, Mitchell, & Liu, 2015) was developed to provide a more general event-oriented theoretical perspective aimed at explaining how an event may function as a

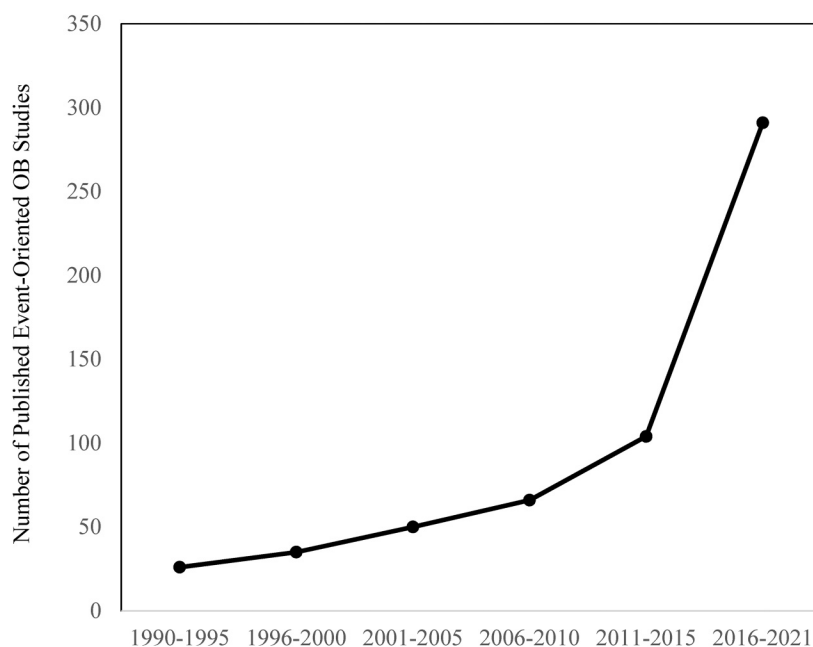
Table 1
Major Event-Related Terms Used in This Review

Terms	Definitions or Explanations
Events	Discrete and discontinuous happenings diverging from the stable or routine features of the organizational environment (Morgeson et al., 2015).
Event-Oriented OB Research	Research that treats events as focal research phenomena and examines the impact of events on employees or teams (e.g., Chen et al., 2021; Morgeson, 2005; Morgeson & DeRue, 2006).
Event Strength	The degree to which an event is novel, disruptive, and critical (Liu et al., 2021; Morgeson et al., 2015). Novelty reflects the extent to which an event is different or varies from current and past behaviors, features, and events (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Morgeson, 2005). Disruption reflects the extent to which an event breaks ongoing routines and triggers adjustment and adaptation (Morgeson, 1998; Zellmer-Bruhn, 2003). Criticality reflects “the degree to which an event is important, essential, or a priority” to entities (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006: 273).
Event Time	Temporal aspects and cues of an event (Morgeson et al., 2015). Duration reflects how long an event lasts (Jiang et al., 2019; Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). Timing reflects the extent to which an event matches the development stage of entities (Morgeson et al., 2015). Phase refers to a distinct stage in the development process of an event (Jiang et al., 2019). Urgency reflects the degree to which entities must “respond immediately to an event in order to either capitalize on its occurrence or mitigate its negative consequences” (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006: 273).
Event Space	Spatial aspects and cues of an event (Morgeson et al., 2015). Spatial direction reflects how events and their effects travel within or across all organizational levels (Morgeson et al., 2015). Spatial origin refers to the hierarchical level at which an event occurs (Morgeson et al., 2015). Spatial dispersion reflects the extent to which the impact of an event is dispersed throughout the organizational hierarchy (Morgeson et al., 2015).
Event Favorability	The extent to which an event is positive or negative (Bono et al., 2013; Koopman et al., 2016).

system comprising three interwoven components: event strength, event space, and event time (see Table 1 for definitions). These theoretical efforts have helped stimulate event-oriented OB studies over the last 30 years, which center on the effects of events on employee and team outcomes. What began as a small body of research in the 1990s has blossomed into a large and growing body of research (Figure 1). Event-oriented OB research publications increased considerably during this period, from approximately 50 studies in the 1990s to over 200 in the 2010s. The 2020s have continued this trend, with over 150 studies published by the end of 2021. An integrative review of event-oriented OB studies will help identify not only areas of progress but also areas where future research is needed.

Toward that end, our review makes three primary contributions to the literature. First, in reviewing the literature, we build on EST (Morgeson et al., 2015) to create a four-level framework (individual, team, organization, and environment) into which the extant literature can be organized and integrated. Drawing from diverse theoretical perspectives, scholars have studied a large variety of events (e.g., shocks, Holtom, Goldberg, Allen, & Clark, 2017; novel and disruptive events, Morgeson, 2005; succession events, Ballinger, Schoorman, &

Figure 1
Growth in the Number of Published Event-Oriented OB Studies



Lehman, 2009; Brexit, Ladkin & Probert, 2021). In addition, novel and sophisticated methods (e.g., artificial intelligence and big data analytics; Jiang, Yin, & Liu, 2019) have been used to study events. Although this diversity is a sign of vibrant research literature, the proliferation of research has increased the need for an integrative review to facilitate a better understanding of the literature and identify valuable future research avenues.

Second, building on our review, we provide theoretical and methodological guidelines for enhancing future event-oriented OB studies and highlight research opportunities that cut across levels. In doing so, we strive to generate a clearer and more in-depth understanding of what, how, and when events arising at different levels impact employees and teams in organizations over time. Our review also reveals novel insights about promising theoretical extensions and methodological advancements. This will help scholars who are interested in conducting event-oriented OB research to develop and test more refined models.

Third, this review expands upon past research focused on documenting and explaining the importance of events for a more in-depth understanding of organizational phenomena. For example, EST was developed to “explain how events become meaningful and come to impact organizations across space and time” (Morgeson et al., 2015: 515). By the end of 2022, the EST paper had been cited over 700 times (according to Google Scholar), suggesting that a considerable body of new event-oriented OB research had been produced in the nearly 7 years since that article’s publication. Our review draws from and extends this work by reviewing the various ways events have been studied (including EST and other theoretical

frameworks) and the different ways in which events have led to certain outcomes. We strive to provide a definitive summary of the state of event-oriented OB research. In terms of scope, our review is intended to showcase important examples of event-oriented OB research rather than to present a comprehensive review of different topics on events.

Review Scope

Conceptual Clarity: Events and Event-Oriented OB Research

To develop conceptual boundaries for our review, it is important to first define events and event-oriented OB research. Events are “discrete, discontinuous happenings which diverge from the stable or routine features of the organizational environment” (Morgeson et al., 2015: 519). Events emerge in the broader interpersonal context, are bounded in time and space, and involve the interplay of multiple entities (e.g., individuals, teams, and organizations). As such, entities’ internal features (e.g., personality traits, team demographics) and psychological arousal and processes (e.g., psychological empowerment, safety climate) are not events.

Feature-oriented OB research, which has historically dominated the literature, typically links internal features, psychological arousal, and the processes of individuals and collectives to workplace outcomes at the individual or team levels (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Liu, Chen, & Holley, 2017; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). In contrast, event-oriented OB research treats events as focal research phenomena and examines the impact of events on employees or teams. Events are discrete, dynamic, and transient elements of the context (Johns, 2017) and can break individuals and teams out of routines and stimulate controlled information processing (Morgeson, 2005). As such, event-oriented OB research is positioned to capture dynamics in the context, thus addressing limitations in feature-oriented OB studies and opening the door to studying organizational phenomena in unique ways.

Article Selection

We focused on articles that met three selection criteria. First, we limited the search to studies that treated events as a focal research phenomenon rather than simply a background or setting for research. Second, we excluded articles that did not meet the above conceptualization of events. Accordingly, we were not interested in entities’ internal features and psychological arousal and processes. Third, we focused on articles that conceptualized or investigated their focal phenomena from an event-oriented OB perspective. Thus, we did not include studies whose focal phenomena met the above event definition but have been largely examined from a feature-oriented OB perspective. Finally, we included only studies that examined the effects of events on individual- or team-level outcomes in organizations because this review focused on event-oriented OB research. Therefore, publications that linked events to organizational outcomes (e.g., firm financial performance) were excluded.

We employed three complementary search strategies to identify event-oriented OB articles published from 1990 to 2021. First, in August 2021, we searched EBSCO, PsycINFO, and

Web of Science to generate a pool of potential articles. As suggested by Morgeson and colleagues (2015) and Morgeson and DeRue (2006), we used the following event-related search terms: “event,” “incident,” “shock,” “jolt,” “milestone,” “occurrence,” “prototypic exemplar,” “crisis,” “turning point,” “emergence,” “surprise,” “interruption,” “conflict,” and “organizational change.” Given our focus on event research in organizations, we paired event-related terms with organization-related search terms: “employee,” “staff,” “worker,” “manager,” “job,” “workplace,” “team,” “organization,” “firm,” or “enterprise.” Second, to supplement this database search, we manually searched the table of contents and in press articles of major management and applied psychology journals that are likely to publish relevant research (e.g., *Academy of Management Journal*, *Academy of Management Review*, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Human Relations*, *Human Resource Management*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Management Studies*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *Leadership Quarterly*, *Organization Science*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, and *Personnel Psychology*). Third, we searched all citations for conceptual articles on events in organizations (e.g., Crawford, Thompson, & Ashforth, 2019; Dhanani & LaPalme, 2019; Jett & George, 2003; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Morgeson et al., 2015; Puranik, Koopman, & Vough, 2020; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). We also cross-checked the references from the obtained articles to identify additional articles that met our selection criteria.

A pool of 1,833 potential articles was generated. Among them, 596 articles were retained. Among the 1,237 articles excluded based on our selection criteria, 500 did not treat events as a focal research phenomenon but simply a context, 339 did not meet our conceptualization of events or did not take an event-oriented OB perspective, and 398 studied organizational-level outcomes of events. Our final sample thus included a total of 596 studies.

Research Review: A Four-Level Analysis Framework

EST indicates that events can emerge at four different levels (individual, team, organization, and environment) at which they exert various effects on individuals and collectives in the workplace. There are five major types of event effects related to the level of event origin (Morgeson et al., 2015). Single-level effects reflect events that emerge and impact outcomes at the same organizational level of analysis. Top-down direct effects reflect events emerging at a higher organizational level impacting outcomes at a lower organizational level. Bottom-up direct effects reflect events emerging at a lower organizational level impacting outcomes at a higher organizational level. Top-down moderation effects reflect events emerging at a higher organizational level that impact the relationship between two variables at a lower organizational level. Bottom-up moderation effects reflect events emerging at a lower organizational level that impact the relationship between two variables at a higher organizational level.

Building on EST, we integrate related studies at each of these four levels of analysis by identifying representative event categories, contingency and underlying mechanisms, theoretical perspectives, and methodologies (see the shorter Tables 2a–2d in this article and the full Tables S1a–1d in the online supplemental materials). Given that event-oriented OB research is still relatively new, our review helps researchers to understand what kinds of events have

Table 2a
Major Types of Events, Theories, and Methods in Individual-Level Event-Oriented OB Research

Events Category	Sample Event	Example Article	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Employee Outcomes	Theory Used	Research Methods
Task-Related Events	Interruptive work events	Puranik et al. (2021)	Work intrusions	Self-regulatory resource depletion, belongingness, stress	NA	Job satisfaction	Self-regulation Theory	Experience sampling method
Customer-Related Events	Customer mistreatment	Wang et al. (2011)	Customer mistreatment	NA	Job tenure, service rule commitment, supervisory support climate, negative affectivity, self-efficacy for emotional regulation	Sabotage against customers	Conservation of Resources Theory	Experience sampling method
Coworker-Related Events	Coworker turnover	Hale et al. (2016)	Employee turnover	NA	Manager turnover, branch interdependence	Branch sales performance	Collective Turnover and Group Adaptability Theories	Longitudinal study
Career-Related Events	Career changes	Davis et al. (2015)	Layoff	Underemployment, job satisfaction	Number of layoffs	Future voluntary turnover, accepting an unsolicited job offer, quitting to accept an unsolicited job offer	The Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover	Longitudinal study
Life-Related Events	Major life events	Ladge et al. (2012)	Pregnancy	Cross-domain identity uncertainties, tentative images	Organizational context, personal context	Reactions to anticipated cross-domain identity changes	The Literature on Identity Transitions	Qualitative study

Table 2b
Major Types of Events, Theories, and Methods in Team-Level Event-Oriented OB Research

Events Category	Sample Event	Example Article	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Employee Outcomes	Theory Used	Research Methods
Team Process Interruptions	Team interactive events	Zellmer-Bruhn (2003)	Team interruptive events	Knowledge transfer effort	NA	Team knowledge acquisition	The Literature on Routines and Interruptions	Cross-sectional design
Team Personnel Events	Team leadership succession event	Li et al. (2020)	Leader succession	Feelings of uncertainty	Attributes of the succession context	Employee turnover	Uncertainty Management Theory	Longitudinal study
	Team member change	Summers et al. (2012)	Strategic core roles, information transfer	Flux in coordination	New member relative cognitive ability	Team performance	Small Groups as Complex Systems, Entrainment Theory	Experiment
Team Conflict Events	Team conflict events	Kurtzberg and Mueller (2005)	Daily task, process, and relationship conflicts	NA	Resolution	Perceived creativity	Conflict Theory	Daily diary method
Team Reinforcement Events	Social recognition event	Zheng et al. (2019)	Recognizing the top performer in teams	Network reconfiguration	NA	Team performance	Social Comparison Theory	Field experiment
	Team after-event review	Chen et al. (2018)	after-event reflexivity intervention	Change in quantitative role overload, change in job control, change in colleague support	Median team tenure	Change in emotional exhaustion, change in cynicism, change in inefficacy	Job Demands-Resources Model	Quasi-field experiment

Table 2c
Major Types of Events, Theories, and Methods in Organization-Level Event-Oriented OB Research

Events Categories	Sample Events	Example Articles	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Employee Outcomes	Theories Used	Research Designs
Organizational Changes	Merger	Lipponen et al. (2017)	Pre-merger identification, status change, distributive justice, process justice	NA	Organization's pre-merger status	Post-merger identification	Social Identity Theory	Time-lagged design
	Downsizing	Paulsen et al. (2005)	Job uncertainty	Personal control	Stages of the downsizing process (i.e., anticipation stage, implementation stage, post-implementation stage), survivors vs. victims	Emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction	The Literature on Job Uncertainty	Longitudinal study
Organizational Misconduct	General organizational change event	Rodell and Colquitt (2009)	Justice anticipation	Experienced justice	Event characteristics (uncertainty and outcome favorability)	Support for the organizational change	Fairness Heuristic Theory	Time-lagged design
	Financial misconduct events	Groysberg et al. (2016)	Financial misconduct event	NA	Job function proximity to the misconduct, recency of the misconduct, an employee's seniority	Compensation of alumni managers	Stigma Theory	Archival data
Organizational Crises	Organizational crises	Chou et al. (2020)	Organizational crises, sympathetic climate, sarcastic atmosphere, citizenship pressure, job crafting	Emergence of interpersonal helping	Self- vs. Other-oriented motives	Prosperity of interpersonal helping, eradication of interpersonal helping	Chaos Theory	Theoretical paper

Table 2d
Major Types of Events, Theories, and Methods in Environment-Level Event-Oriented OB Research

Events Categories	Sample Events	Example Article	Independent Variables	Mediators	Moderators	Employee Outcomes	Theories Used	Research Designs
Natural Environment Events	Natural disaster	Freedy et al. (1992)	Exposure to a natural disaster	Resource loss, coping behavior, personal characteristics	NA	Psychological distress	Conservation of Resources Theory	Cross-sectional design
	Air pollution event	Gong et al. (2020)	Actual air pollution	Perceived air pollution, state anxiety	Cloudiness	Unethical behavior	The Air Pollution Literature	Time-lagged design, panel design
Economic Crises	Economic crisis	Stoker et al. (2019)	Financial crisis	NA	Power distance, macro-economic impact of the crisis, manufacturing sector, financial sector	Directive leadership	The Threat-Rigidity Hypothesis	One group before and after design
Public Health Crises	COVID-19	Liu et al. (2021)	Perceived COVID-19 strength	NA	Work meaningfulness	Work engagement, taking charge	The Transactional Model of Stress	Time-lagged design, longitudinal field experiment
Terrorist Attacks	(9/11)	Bacharach and Bamberger (2007)	Intensity of critical incident involvement	9/11-related posttraumatic distress	Supervisory support climate, employee control climate	Negative emotional states	Conservation of Resources Theory	Cross-sectional design

been studied at each level, how the events may impact outcomes, and what theoretical and methodological tools to use. We also critically evaluate prior event-oriented OB studies and point to specific research opportunities tied to the unique issues of each of the four levels. As such, this four-level analysis framework is not only useful for synthesizing the literature but also paves the way for future research. Adopting a multilevel lens is “critical to enrich and enhance our understanding of organizational phenomena” (Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, & Mathieu, 2007: 1396) as it can reveal the richness of events and draw attention to the hierarchical levels, where distinct events occur and exert multilevel effects in organizations.

Individual-Level Events

Most likely because of the conventional focus of OB research on individual-level phenomena, event-oriented OB studies have primarily focused on the individual level. Individual-level event-oriented OB publications can be grouped into five categories according to the source of the events: (1) task-related events, (2) customer-related events, (3) coworker-related events, (4) career-related events, and (5) life-related events. EST indicates that individual-level events may exhibit three types of effects: single-level effects, bottom-up direct effects, and bottom-up moderation effects. However, scholars have generally focused on the single-level effects of individual-level events (Tables 2a and S1a).

Task-related events. Considerable progress has been made in highlighting the relationship between task-related events and employee outcomes. Considering event favorability, which refers to the extent to which an event is positive or negative, scholars have generally classified task-related events into positive and negative work events (e.g., Bono, Glomb, Shen, Kim, & Koch, 2013; Koopman, Lanaj, Bono, & Campana, 2016). Drawing from affective events theory, Ilies, Keeney, and Scott (2011) focused on positive work events and explored the indirect relationship between positive work events and job satisfaction through positive affect. Building on conservation of resources theory, broaden and build theory, and the job demands-resources model, Bono and colleagues (2013) found that positive work events were associated with lower stress, improved health, and greater work detachment, while negative work events were associated with higher stress, worse health, and lower work detachment. Specific categories of positive work events (e.g., meeting an established goal, accomplishing what was hoped for) and negative work events (e.g., receiving negative feedback or criticism, experiencing conflict) have also been identified (Koopman et al., 2016). Thus, this stream of literature can be extended by delving into specific work events and their differential effects on employees.

An increasing number of studies have focused on specific interruptive work events that cause the “unexpected suspension of the behavioral performance of, and/or attentional focus from, an ongoing work task” (Puranik et al., 2020: 817). In their daily work, employees are often disrupted by phone calls, e-mails, unexpected visits and conversations, background noise, and coworkers’ or leaders’ requests for assistance (Jett & George, 2003; Puranik et al., 2020). Research suggests that these interruptions in task sequences affect individuals’ performance and well-being by influencing their cognition, self-regulation, or emotions. For example, goal-disruptive events induce negative emotion and fatigue (Zohar, Tzischinski, & Epstein, 2003). Frequent workflow interruptions reduce individuals’ satisfaction with

their performance and cause irritation through the mediation mechanisms of mental demands and time pressure (Baethge & Rigotti, 2013). Unforeseen changes in familiar tasks trigger transition adaptation (i.e., immediate performance decline following a change) and reacquisition adaptation (i.e., regaining performance over time; Lang & Bliese, 2009). In line with the lens of learned helplessness theory, being involved in an accident in the workplace is positively related to compliance among individuals with a higher level of psychological empowerment, but is positively related to withdrawal, production deviance, and sabotage among individuals with a lower level of psychological empowerment (Erdogan, Ozyilmaz, Bauer, & Emre, 2018).

There is also evidence that daily task setbacks result in end-of-day emotional exhaustion (Chong, Huang, & Chang, 2020). Extant studies seem to assume that interruptive work events lead to negative consequences. However, a recent study that explored the dark- and bright-side effects of daily work interruptions revealed that work intrusions can deplete one's self-regulatory resources and simultaneously fulfill one's need for belongingness (Puranik, Koopman, & Vough, 2021). Thus, it is important to adopt a balanced view of workplace interruptions and examine the situations in which employees can minimize the negative implications of interruptive work events and maximize the positive influences of such events.

Customer-related events. Employees in some occupations (e.g., the service sector) are often viewed as the "face" of the organization because of their frequent interactions with customers. Abundant evidence has documented the impacts of customer mistreatment events on a wide range of employee outcomes, such as employees' well-being (e.g., Baranik, Wang, Gong, & Shi, 2017), emotions (e.g., Song et al., 2018), performance (e.g., Baranik et al., 2017; Sliter, Sliter, & Jex, 2012), and deviant behaviors (e.g., Sliter et al., 2012; Song, Skarlicki, Shao, & Park, 2021). Research also reveals that customer mistreatment incidents may set off a chain of workplace events. For example, customer mistreatment events can prompt employees to sabotage customers; this effect is exacerbated by employees' negative affectivity but weakened by employees' self-efficacy for emotional regulation, job tenure, and service rule commitment (Wang et al., 2011). Customer verbal aggression provokes employee incivility, especially when it includes second-person pronouns, is interruptive, and has few positive emotion words (Walker, van Jaarsveld, & Skarlicki, 2017). Some initial research evidence has suggested that emotion is a key mechanism underlying employees' perceptions of customer-related events. For example, during customer calls, employees' start-of-workday mood is associated with their perceptions of customers' affective display, which is related, in turn, to employees' performance quality and productivity (Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). Our review indicates that more research should be directed toward positive customer treatment events, which have been found to elicit employees' positive affect (Zhan, Wang, & Shi, 2016). Future studies should move beyond customer treatment events to examine other customer-related events. For example, one qualitative study showed that experiencing patient death may trigger profound emotional reactions in health workers (Kessler, Heron, & Dopson, 2012).

Coworker-related events. Coworker mistreatment represents the most widely studied coworker-related event and has been examined in various manifestations, such as ostracism, social undermining, incivility, bullying, interpersonal conflict, discrimination, sexual harassment, violence, and aggression (e.g., Griffin & Lopez, 2005; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis

et al., 2007; Howard, Cogswell, & Smith, 2020; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Robinson, Wang, & Kiewitz, 2014; Williams, 2007). Despite the diversity in construct labels, coworker mistreatment events usually involve three parties: a victim, an instigator, and an observer. As victims, employees who experience coworker mistreatment events appear to feel reduced organizational commitment (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), negative emotions (e.g., Sakurai & Jex, 2012), and lower job satisfaction (e.g., Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). Victims of coworker mistreatment also display lower performance (e.g., Sliter et al., 2012) and engage in more deviant behaviors (e.g., Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Coworker mistreatment has also been found to cause additional events in the future. Employees who are mistreated by coworkers may seek social support, report illegal actions to authorities, or confront the instigator, which may incur the instigator's retaliation if the target employee has lower status or if the mistreatment is frequent (Cortina & Magley, 2003). From a bystander's perspective, observing coworker mistreatment events leads to decreased well-being, increased negative emotions and interpersonal deviance, and worse performance (Dhanani & LaPalme, 2019; Lin & Loi, 2021; O'reilly & Aquino, 2011).

In addition to mistreatment, coworker turnover has emerged as an influential type of coworker-related event because of its contagious and disruptive nature. The departure of coworkers may influence the functioning of employees who remain with the organization and even the whole group. For example, an employee turnover event may be followed by an immediate decline in, and a gradual recovery of, group performance (Hale, Ployhart, & Shepherd, 2016). In addition, coworker turnover may result in structural changes in job demands, resources, and work relations, especially when the turnover event is novel, disruptive, and critical (Laulié & Morgeson, 2021). After actively assessing the benefits and drawbacks of these structural changes, remaining employees will develop corresponding attitudinal and behavioral responses, whereby an unfavorable interpretation can prompt new turnover events.

Career-related events. Career-related events may occur throughout individuals' careers and significantly shape their professional development. Research on the unfolding model of voluntary turnover contends that career shocks represent a major reason why employees quit (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996). Examples of shocks include experiencing the birth of a child or a spouse's job transfer, receiving unsolicited job offers, winning the lottery, being passed over for promotion, and having an argument with one's boss (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005). Shocks elicit thoughts of quitting without affecting an employee's job satisfaction and usually precipitate quick turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1996). Career shocks may also prompt career deliberations and increase the likelihood of pursuing further education (Seibert, Kraimer, Holtom, & Pierotti, 2013). Using the theoretical logic from EST, Seibert, Nielsen, and Kraimer (2021: 1224) conceptualized a displacing work event (i.e., "an event or situation that disrupts the inherent inertia maintaining an individual's current life or career path"). A displacing event may function as an "awakening" stimulus that strengthens the positive effect of entrepreneurial identity aspirations on engagement in entrepreneurial discovery and exploitation behaviors.

Career changes (e.g., job loss, promotion, denied promotion, demotion, recognition, and transition) also constitute salient career-related events. For example, job loss in which paid

employment is involuntarily terminated harms individuals' psychological and physical well-being (McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). A layoff produces spillover effects on subsequent employment by reducing the quality of future employment (Davis, Trevor, & Feng, 2015). Thus, individuals who experience layoffs are more likely to become underemployed and develop lower job satisfaction, which is associated with a greater probability of future voluntary turnover. In contrast to conventional career research that considers receiving a promotion or recognition to be an indicator of career success, from an event-focused theoretical perspective, some studies treat a promotion or recognition as a trigger of attitudinal and behavioral changes in employees. For example, promotion improves job attitudes and intention to remain, and the effects of these events are stronger among promoted employees with an internal locus of control than among other employees (Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000). As suggested by self-determination theory, achievement and recognition events facilitate the satisfaction of people's competence, relatedness, and autonomy needs, thereby enhancing their work engagement (Wang, Zhu, Dormann, Song, & Bakker, 2020). However, a promotion event may also lead to negative behavioral changes, such as a decline in organizational citizenship behavior levels among employees who hold a higher instrumentality perception of organizational citizenship behavior (Hui et al., 2000). Job transitions are also salient career-related events that shape employees' job perceptions, interpersonal relationships, job opportunities, and psychological well-being (Swaen, Kant, van Amelsvoort, & Beurskens, 2002). Given that employees experience both intra- and inter-organizational job transitions, more work is needed to understand the implications of these two types of transitions for the employees, coworkers, and family members involved.

Life-related events. Events that originate outside of the workplace domain can nevertheless have spillover effects on workplace outcomes. Many studies in this area have adopted the work and family intersection perspective. For example, Crawford and colleagues (2019) developed a theory of work–life shock events and posited that for dual-earner couples, shock events originating in one partner's domain can activate the evaluative sensemaking of both partners, thus impacting the couple's work–life resource allocation. In addition, boundary violations at work are indirectly related to family-to-work conflict via work goal obstruction, and to positive affect at work via family goal facilitation (Hunter, Clark, & Carlson, 2019). French and Allen (2020) investigated the reaction and recovery patterns associated with episodic work–family conflict and the cumulative effects of conflict episodes over the course of a day. Their findings reveal that work–family conflict is followed by acute psychological strain and additional work–family conflict in the future.

Previous research has identified several specific life events with significant implications for work-domain outcomes. These include marriage, pregnancy, the birth of a child, the death of a family member, a break-up with a partner, divorce, and violent acts committed against the employee (Bakker, Du, & Derks, 2019; Georgellis, Lange, & Tabvuma, 2012; Ivancevich, 1986). For example, a person's first pregnancy may function as a trigger event that evokes cross-domain identity transitions (i.e., adapting one's established work identity to integrate changes in one's nonwork identity; Ladge, Clair, & Greenberg, 2012). Major life events may reduce an individual's work engagement and job performance by undermining his or her effective use of personal resources (Bakker et al., 2019). Additionally, traumatic life events may initiate a discontinuous career transition and necessitate the reconstruction of

foundational assumptions about one's job and oneself, which may ultimately push the person onto a new career path (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). Life events may differ in their functioning processes. For example, some death and break-up events may take longer to fully exhibit their influence than a pregnancy. Thus, scholars should develop refined models to consider the temporal dynamics of the events being studied.

Future Research Opportunities. The above review of research on individual-level events shows several examples that capture within-person dynamics in individual behaviors and attitudes as responses to various workplace events. As events often produce changes and variability, shifting from the traditional feature-oriented static approach to an event-focused dynamic approach can generate new research insights that advance diverse research fields. Specifically, we anticipate that important contributions can be made in future research by pursuing the following research opportunities:

Conceptualize behavioral occurrences as events. Instead of examining the general level of a behavioral variable, researchers can treat each behavioral occurrence as an event and investigate its evolving processes, transient fluctuations, trajectories over time, and dynamic consequences. Such an event-oriented theorizing approach can yield a more novel and nuanced view of widely studied phenomena in the management literature. For example, research on helping may treat interpersonal helping as a discrete event. Following this approach, Kiffin-Petersen, Murphy, and Soutar (2012) showed that instances in which an employee helps customers—viewed as problem-solving events—can trigger positive emotions in employees. Lee, Bradburn, Johnson, Lin, and Chang (2019) found that receiving others' gratitude can link proactive and reactive helping events to helpers' work engagement and perceived social impact.

For another example, considering the generation of creative thoughts as a work event, Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, and Staw (2005) found reciprocal effects between creative thought events and positive affect. In their review of creativity studies, Anderson, Potočnik, and Zhou (2014: 1320) suggested that, "creativity and innovation are often experienced as disruptive events...and may be initiated in response to distress related stimuli." Examining creativity as a disruptive event may help balance the positive bias of creativity and move the field forward substantially (Breidenthal, Liu, Bai, & Mao, 2020; Lua, Liu, & Shalley, 2023). Vogel and Bolino (2020) identified abusive supervision as a traumatic event and maintained that the extent to which employees perceive an abusive supervision event as extraordinary, uncontrollable, and overwhelming, is related to changes in their self-concept. The literature also shows other informative examples of studying employee behaviors from an event-focused perspective, including citizenship behavior (Caldas, Ostermeier, & Cooper, 2021), impression management (Klotz et al., 2018), and voice (Welsh, Outlaw, Newton, & Baer, 2022).

Delve into the nature of events. Based on our review, research on individual-level events generally follows three approaches to assessing events: evaluating individuals' perceptions of events (e.g., Hunter et al., 2019; Seibert et al., 2013), using dummy variables to capture the occurrence of events (e.g., Lam & Schaubroeck, 2000; Zohar et al., 2003), and measuring the frequency or number of events during a fixed period of time (e.g., Baranik et al., 2017; Ilies

et al., 2011). There are advantages and disadvantages of each approach. The first approach may confuse events with individuals' reactions to events. Although the last two approaches can separate events from individuals' responses, they cannot fully probe the characteristics or nature of events. Because of the lack of in-depth investigation thus far, many unanswered questions remain. For example, it is rare to see studies that capture the spatial and temporal cues of events. Moreover, certain individual-level events occur in a frequent, regular, or predictable fashion in everyday experiences. Hence, it is valuable to explore what attributes beyond "novelty," "disruption," and "criticality," as suggested in Morgeson and colleagues (2015), can characterize different events, and what individual and contextual factors can cause similar or dissimilar reactions to different events among individuals.

Moreover, do the effects of events gain or lose strength over time if one is continually exposed to such events? It is conceivable that employees may experience multiple events simultaneously, and that these events may interact with each other. How do interpretations differ when events happen separately versus simultaneously? Can the effects of events substitute for, amplify, or even cancel each other out? Past studies have focused on individual events and their outcomes, with little research focused on event precursors. The nature and functioning of an event may be attributed to event antecedents. As such, additional research is needed to unpack the contextual and personal cues and forces that give rise to various events. Research focusing on event antecedents may not only imbue events with meaning and purpose but also guide organizations to proactively initiate events to produce positive changes in employees.

Team-Level Events

At the team level, scholars have primarily studied events that involve interruptions to team processes, personnel changes within teams, team conflict, and the reinforcement of team accomplishments (Tables 2b and S1b). Most of the outcomes studied are team-level outcomes. As illustrated by EST, team-level events can generate all five different types of effects (Morgeson et al., 2015). However, scholars have largely studied single-level effects. The other four types of event effects (top-down direct effects, top-down moderation effects, bottom-up direct effects, and bottom-up moderation effects) clearly need more scholarly attention.

Team process interruptions. Team process interruptions are jarring events that break down normal task cycles and inhibit teams from successfully completing their work (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). Several studies have revealed the consequences of team process interruptions and have advanced solutions for reducing the negative influence of such events. Drawing on affective events theory, Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, and Hirst (2002) show that obstacles to teams' successful project completion have a negative impact on team climate, thereby harming team performance. Team leaders, however, can counterbalance this negative impact by displaying more transformational leadership. Teammates' tardiness incidents may increase the number of an individual team member's own tardiness incidents (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Although team process interruptions emerge as negative events, researchers should not overlook their silver lining effects. For example, team interruptive events can foster team knowledge acquisition through enhancing knowledge transfer effort (Zellmer-Bruhn, 2003).

Team personnel events. Team personnel events reflect a variety of human resource-related issues within a team, including the turnover of key team members, absences, or new team members (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). Research has most commonly studied the departure or arrival of team leaders. For example, a longitudinal study based on a 60-year dataset from the National Hockey League reports that team leader succession significantly affects team performance and that the effect depends on when the succession occurs (Rowe, Cannella, Rankin, & Gorman, 2005). Teams with general manager or coach successions during a season show worse performance in that season, whereas teams with general manager or coach successions between seasons show better performance in the subsequent season. Leader–member exchange (LMX) may play a significant role in team members' cognitive and affective reactions to leadership succession events (Ballinger, Lehman, & Schoorman, 2010). Team members who had high-quality (low-quality) LMX relationships with their prior leader may experience negative (positive) affective reactions to leadership succession events.

Leader succession has been identified as a triggering event for employee turnover. As suggested by uncertainty management theory, leader succession disrupts the status quo and increases the remaining members' feelings of uncertainty, which influences the remaining members' decisions to stay or leave (Li, Hausknecht, & Dragoni, 2020). Shapiro, Hom, Shen, and Agarwal (2016) developed a theoretical model that elucidates the psychological process underlying the relationship between leader departure and team member organizational attachment. There are abundant research opportunities regarding the role of team member changes (e.g., promotion, demotion, and task reassignment) in team processes and outcomes. For example, when a team experiences the replacement of a member in a strategically core role, the team may encounter coordination difficulties among team members (Summers, Humphrey, & Ferris, 2012).

Team conflict events. Team conflict events arise from a range of disagreements or incompatibilities between team members or between teams themselves (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). Three streams of research on team conflict have emerged: (1) uncovering different types of conflict (Jehn, 1997); (2) antecedents and consequences of team conflict (Greer, Jehn, & Mannix, 2008); and (3) conflict management strategies (Behfar, Peterson, Mannix, & Trochim, 2008). However, the literature appears to focus on team conflict as a phenomenon or a process rather than on team conflict events themselves. Studies have indicated that a more event-centric approach to studying team conflict can generate novel research insights and directions (Ayoko, 2007; Kurtzberg & Mueller, 2005; Morgeson & DeRue, 2006; Rispens & Demerouti, 2016). For example, not all conflict events are harmful or have the same level of impact. As such, it would be valuable to explore how the intensity, direction, dispersion, and temporal phases of team conflict events may determine their ultimate impact and the effectiveness of different conflict response strategies.

Team reinforcement events. Team reinforcement events involve recognizing and reinforcing work accomplishments mostly via positive feedback and praise. Research indicates that team after-event reviews exert a positive influence on team efficacy, cohesion, communication openness, and performance (Villado & Arthur, 2013). In line with the job demands-resources model, team after-event reflexivity interventions reduce employee burnout by

enhancing control and support (Chen, Bamberger, Song, & Vashdi, 2018). Recent research has noted that recognizing the top performer in a team decreases the top performer's teamwork centrality and overall teamwork density (Zheng, Zhao, Liu, & Li, 2019). Therefore, this stream of research can be extended by building on social network and social comparison theories to explore how team reinforcement events can affect team network configurations.

Future Research Opportunities. Although OB scholars have produced an extensive body of team-level research (see Mathieu, Gallagher, Domingo, and Klock, 2019 for a recent review), most prior research has adopted a feature-oriented approach to studying the relationship between team internal attributes (e.g., demographic composition and diversity) and team outcomes. Thus, there are many potential avenues to pursue when exploring team-level event-oriented research.

Broaden the research scope. We found that the extant literature has focused on a relatively small number of team-level events. The research scope can be expanded in two primary ways. First, there are many different team-level events that can be studied. For example, among the team events identified by Morgeson and DeRue (2006), those related to task performance, task resources, task problems, safety, and deadlines are all under-researched team-level events. These team events may significantly shape team behavior, alter team features, and generate additional team events in the future. They may even exert bottom-up or top-down direct effects on organizational and individual outcomes (Morgeson et al., 2015).

Second, events that have been theorized at the individual and organizational levels (e.g., individual turnover and organizational changes) may also exist at the team level. Feature-oriented OB research on entities' internal features (e.g., personality traits, psychological states, organizational structures) has appeared to take a homology approach to identify organizational phenomena that can be generalized across different levels of analysis (Chen, Bliese, & Mathieu, 2005). However, events are distinct from entities' internal features because they are discrete, dynamic, and transient components of individual entities' external context (Johns, 2006, 2017). Hence, researchers should not assume that events maintain theoretical similarity at different organizational levels of analysis. Instead, stronger research insights can emerge if scholars examine how certain events that have been studied at lower or higher organizational levels may unfold differently at the team level and result in unique multilevel processes and outcomes. For example, team affective events may interact with members' collective attributions of such events to trigger team emotional conflict and alter team problem-solving behaviors (Eberly, Liu, Mitchell, & Lee, 2013; Jiang, Yin, Liu, & Johnson, 2022; Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004).

Unveil interteam effects. Previous research has examined the impact of events on team and individual outcomes within a team (Ericksen & Dyer, 2004; Morgeson, 2005). Given that organizations usually have multiple teams, researchers might consider between-team effects as well. More specifically, events may emerge from the interface among multiple teams and thus result in outcomes between teams. For example, a conflict between two team leaders may trigger subsequent conflicts between members of the two teams. Events unfolding in a team may also be contagious or impactful for other teams, and even the entire organization. For example, a team leader's voluntary turnover may cause other team

leaders and firm executives to leave their jobs. Examining the between-team effects of team-level events holds great promise for enhancing our understanding of the ways team events evolve and provoke changes throughout an organization.

Look around, down, and up. Team-level events—which arise at the team level of the organizational hierarchy—can generate same-level effects on team outcomes, downward effects on individual employees, and upward effects on organizations (Morgeson et al., 2015). For example, a team conflict or collaboration event may influence team effectiveness (team-level), individual members' job satisfaction (individual-level), and organizational culture (organization-level). Our review reveals that research that investigates how team-level events influence organization-level phenomena is less common than research on the other two types of influence. It may be interesting to study how different organizational, team, and individual forces give rise to team events. For example, appointing a new firm CEO may lead to team leaders' promotion or quitting. Team task crafting may fuel a number of team events (e.g., team process interruptions). Influential team members (e.g., star performers) may be well-positioned to stimulate or stifle the occurrence of team-level events. When studying team-level events, scholars should more thoroughly theorize and test how the events engender and are engendered by factors operating at different organizational levels.

Organization-Level Events

At the organizational level, scholars have primarily studied events that reflect organizational changes (e.g., restructuring, downsizing, mergers and acquisitions), organizational misconduct (e.g., financial scandals, pollution incidents), and organizational crises (e.g., product failure, labor upheavals). At this level of analysis, top-down direct effects of organizational events on employees have been most widely investigated in OB studies (Tables 2c and S1c).

Organizational changes. Researchers have viewed organizational changes (e.g., restructuring, mergers, acquisitions, and downsizing) as stressful events and have focused on addressing two research questions: (1) what employee consequences result from organizational changes, and (2) how do employees cope with organizational changes? Studies have taken a social identity perspective to explore employees' organizational identification after a merger event (e.g., Giessner, 2011; Gleibs, Mummendey, & Noack, 2008; Lipponen, Wisse, & Jetten, 2017; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Monden, & de Lima, 2002). For example, an employee's postmerger organizational identification is shaped by his or her premerger identification and perceived status change, especially when the employee is from an organization with high premerger status (Lipponen et al., 2017). Postmerger identification of employees from an organization with low premerger status is determined by their perception of the distributive and process justice of the merger event (Lipponen et al., 2017). An employee's perceived benefit of organizational change is positively related to his or her affective commitment to organizational change (Michel, By, & Burnes, 2013). Committing to communication with employees and keeping employees informed about organizational changes improve employees' perception of organizational changes (Chiang, 2010). More refined models can be developed by delving into the different stages of organizational

changes. For example, employees' personal control and job uncertainty may vary across different stages of organizational changes. Employees' personal control is lower and job uncertainty is higher at the anticipation stage of the downsizing process, and employees' personal control and job uncertainty stabilize as the downsizing process progresses (Paulsen et al., 2005). A pressing research need is to examine the ways different organizational changes exert distinct effects on employees. For example, although scholars have started modeling the retention or dismissal of the acquired firm's CEO and executives in the aftermath of acquisitions (Aghasi, Colombo, & Rossi-Lamastra, 2022), in-depth research is needed to reveal how retention and dismissal events may trigger different employee responses.

Researchers have identified four distinct strategies for coping with organizational changes: (1) emotion-focused coping, (2) task-centered coping, (3) cognitive coping, and (4) social support coping (Robinson & Griffiths, 2005). From an affective perspective, several studies have investigated the relationships between individuals' interpretations of and affective experiences with organizational changes and their subsequent reactions to organizational changes. For example, employees' current affect has a positive influence on their anticipated affective reactions to expected organizational changes, especially when their work demands a low level of emotion regulation (Kubicek, Hoelzl, & Korunka, 2013). Research based on the stimulus-response theory of coping reveals that perceptions of excessive organizational changes are associated with negative appraisals, which, in turn, prompt negative coping reactions to changes (Johnson, Bareil, Giraud, & Autissier, 2017). The anticipatory justice of an organizational change has a notable effect on employees' support for that change (Rodell & Colquitt, 2009). Overall, prior studies appear to focus on the strength or intensity of organizational changes with limited attention to temporal factors (e.g., duration, peak, and phases). For example, given that some organizational changes take longer than others, event duration may impact the strength of the effect of an event on associated outcomes, which has been found to be related to the amount of disruption it causes (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). In addition, researchers can broaden the scholarly understanding of events by studying how employees' anticipated responses to expected organizational changes may shape their actual experience of such organizational changes.

Organizational misconduct. Organizational misconduct (e.g., financial scandals and pollution incidents) also appears to have significant implications for employees. Scandal events damage employees' perceptions of senior management and firm culture and cause a significant decline in employees' performance pay, especially for less experienced workers (Gadgil & Sockin, 2020). Financial misconduct events negatively impact employees' perceptions of their firms and managers (Zhou & Makridis, 2019). Employees of firms that engage in fraudulent financial reporting are more likely to quit during or after the fraudulent reporting period (Choi & Gipper, 2019). Additionally, Groysberg, Lin, and Serafeim (2016) build on stigma theory to reveal that financial misconduct events may also negatively affect former employees who left the organization before misconduct events occurred.

Organizational crises. Organizational crises (e.g., product recall, labor upheavals, information technology breaches) are unpredictable events that cause an organization to undergo "a time of ambiguity, uncertainty, and struggle to regain control" (Millar & Heath, 2004:

247). Organizational crises represent “significant jolts to both relational and operational systems” within an organization (Kahn, Barton, & Fellows, 2013: 381). James, Wooten, and Dushek (2011) underscored three essential aspects of an organizational crisis: (1) the rarity of the crisis, (2) the significance of the crisis, and (3) the level of impact on stakeholders. Research on organizational crises has generally been conducted at the organizational level to address how to successfully navigate an organization through a crisis and minimize the crisis’s negative impact (Pearson & Clair, 1998; Rosenthal, Boin, & Comfort, 2001; Williams, Gruber, Sutcliffe, Shepherd, & Zhao, 2017). Only a handful of studies have linked organizational crises to employee behaviors such as job performance (Meyer, Shemla, Li, & Wegge, 2015) and interpersonal helping (Chou, Ramser, Chang, & Han, 2020). By recognizing that organizational crises also affect employees, researchers can cross-fertilize macro and micro insights and advance a more comprehensive portrait of the relationships between organizational crises and employee outcomes.

Future Research Opportunities. Although we are encouraged by research that examines organization-level events and their impact on employees, the research that has been conducted to date has been limited and narrowly focused. Going forward, we highlight the following future research opportunities:

Integrate organization-level events into OB scholarship. Our review highlights the classic division of management scholarship into micro and macro camps (Hitt et al., 2007), with most organizational event studies conducted by macro scholars and focused on firm-level outcomes. Rather than this remaining a familiar criticism of the extant literature, we see this as an opportunity for micro scholars to incorporate organization-level events more fully into their research either by collaborating with macro scholars or embarking on their own organization-level event research. To accomplish this, scholars should embrace a multilevel research approach, which holds substantial promise for connecting more distal organizational events to employee outcomes. Considerable anecdotal evidence demonstrates that organizational events are important for many employee experiences and outcomes, suggesting that it is time for micro scholars to investigate organization-level events. In addition to what has already been investigated, events such as cultural change initiatives, entering new markets, receiving industry awards, opening new locations or operations, responding to competitive pressures, and losing business or key customers, are just some of the organization-level events that warrant study.

Probe both top-down direct and moderation effects. According to Morgeson and colleagues (2015), scholars can investigate two broad ways in which organization-level events influence employee behavior: top-down direct and moderation effects. First, organization-level events can constrain or enable lower-level processes or behaviors. Termed “top-down direct effects,” these events directly impact lower-level phenomena. For example, when an organization decides to change its competitive strategy, there are often direct and significant implications for departments, teams, and individuals who flourished under the previous strategy. It is also interesting to study the ways organization-level events interact with other organizational factors (e.g., CEO leadership, organizational dynamic capabilities) to impact employees. Second, organization-level events can shape

or change the relationships among lower-level behaviors, features, or events. Termed “top-down moderating effects,” these events indirectly affect lower-level phenomena by conditioning or moderating relationships. For example, if an organization embarks on a significant cultural change focused on improving a negative workplace climate, this might weaken the relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions because the event (cultural change) portends a brighter organizational future. Although an increased number of studies have unveiled top-down direct effects of organizational events in the workplace, exploring top-down moderation effects may yield rich research opportunities.

Environment-Level Events

At the environmental level, scholars have primarily studied natural environmental events (e.g., earthquakes, hurricanes, snowstorms, and air pollution), economic crises (e.g., the 2008 U.S. financial crisis and the 2009 Greece economic crisis), public health crises (e.g., the 2003 SARS pandemic, the 2009 H1N1 flu, and the COVID-19 pandemic), and terrorist attacks (e.g., 9/11 and Israel Prime Minister Rabin’s assassination). Event studies at this level largely focus on the top-down direct effects of environment-level events on employees (Tables 2d and S1d).

Natural environment events. A large and active stream of research has examined the impact of events related to the natural environment on employees’ psychological states and behaviors. These events originate in people’s natural surroundings and unfold as natural disasters and weather-related events. Earlier work on natural environmental events focused on environmental disasters such as earthquakes (Freedy, Saladin, Kilpatrick, Resnick, & Saunders, 1994), hurricanes (Benight, Swift, Sanger, Smith, & Zeppelin, 1999; Freedy, Shaw, Jarrell, & Masters, 1992), and snowstorms (Smith, 1977). Prior research has demonstrated that exposure to an environmental disaster has a negative impact on individuals’ well-being by increasing psychological distress (e.g., Benight et al., 1999; Freedy et al., 1992). For example, from the conservation of resources perspective, exposure to Hurricane Hugo increased psychological distress through resource loss (Freedy et al., 1992). Likewise, perceived life threats during the Sierra Madre earthquake, and earthquake-related resource loss, significantly predicted psychological distress (Freedy et al., 1994). Furthermore, scholars have investigated the role of appraisal and coping in individuals’ reactions to environmental disasters. For example, coping self-efficacy can predict distress following an environmental disaster (Benight et al., 1999).

In the last decade, air pollution has drawn increased academic attention. Related studies conceptualize air pollution as stressful events that impact employees (e.g., Fehr, Yam, He, Chiang, & Wei, 2017; Gong, Lu, Schaubroeck, Li, & Qian, 2020; Lu, 2020; Lu, Cunningham, Gino, & Galinsky, 2020). Compared with studies on environmental disasters, this body of research has investigated a wider range of psychological and work outcomes, such as increased anxiety and mental disorders, impaired cognitive functioning and job productivity, and triggered avoidance behavior. Notably, this line of research has started using specific event dimensions (e.g., event appraisal and perceived intensity) to develop more fine-grained models. For example, from an ego-depletion theoretical lens, employees’ appraisals

of air pollution severity deplete employees' self-control resources, which results in increased counterproductive work behavior and decreased organizational citizenship behavior (Fehr et al., 2017). People tend to perceive actual pollution as more intense when the weather is cloudy than when it is sunny (Gong et al., 2020). People's perceived air pollution intensity mediates the effects of actual air pollution on state anxiety and thus on unethical behavior (Gong et al., 2020).

Economic crises. Research conceptualizes economic crises as exogenous shocks that affect employees' psychological states, work behaviors, and well-being. Findings based on two national surveys before and during the 2008 Great Recession indicate that this event was associated in the United States with a net increase in both employment and job insecurity and a net decrease in affective organizational commitment, mental health, and physical health (Frone, 2018). The 2009 Greek economic crisis increased employees' prevention focus but decreased their promotion focus, thereby negatively affecting their organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Markovits, Boer, & Dick, 2014). In addition, research has revealed that economic crises can shape leadership behaviors. For example, in support of the threat-rigidity hypothesis, the 2008 financial crisis cultivated a significant increase in directive leadership, especially in countries with a high level of power distance (Stoker, Garretsen, & Soudis, 2019). Despite these research advances, important questions remain. During economic crises, do employees become more or less risk-taking, entrepreneurial, and innovative? What organizational and team mechanisms increase or decrease employee morale during economic crises?

Public health crises. Publications in medical journals have spotlighted the mental and physical consequences of disease outbreaks (e.g., the 2003 SARS epidemic, the 2014–2016 Ebola epidemic, the 2009 H1N1 flu) for health and safety workers (e.g., Bai et al., 2004; Benedek, Fullerton, & Ursano, 2007; Raven, Wurie, & Witter, 2018). Yet, few studies were published in OB research outlets before the outbreak of COVID-19. An increasingly voluminous body of research has highlighted how the COVID-19 pandemic has influenced almost every facet of work and personal life, including work engagement (Fu, Greco, Lennard, & Dimotakis, 2021), prosocial behavior (Hu, He, & Zhou, 2020), and family engagement (Trogakos, Chawla, & McCarthy, 2020). Researchers have also started exploring the ways organizational and individual practices can mitigate the negative effects of COVID-19. For example, Liu, Chen, and Li (2021) designed two HR practices based on EST and the work meaningfulness literature to bolster work meaningfulness and reduce the perceived risk of COVID-19 among medical staff in a COVID-19 Intensive Care Unit, thereby enhancing their work engagement and encouraging them to take charge at work. A fruitful future research avenue is to explore the roles of cultural and institutional differences in employees' responses to public health crises.

Terrorist attacks. Research has identified the psychological impact of terrorist attacks (e.g., 9/11, the assassination of Prime Minister Rabin of Israel) on employees. A decrease in perceived safety following a terrorist attack event is associated with increased symptoms of intrusion, hyperarousal, depression, and peritraumatic dissociation (Fullerton, Ursano, Reeves, Shigemura, & Grieger, 2006). From an affective perspective, employees who

experience high levels of negative emotional reaction to a terrorist attack event are more likely to be absent from work following the event (Kushnir, Fried, & Malkinson, 2001).

There is also some evidence showing that the impact of a terrorist event is not always linear and may depend on a number of individual and contextual factors. For example, Ryan, West, and Carr (2003) probed the impact of the 9/11 terrorist attacks on changes in attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, stress, supervisor evaluation, and organizational commitment to diversity) pre- and post-9/11. A key individual factor that may gauge the impact of a terrorist attack event is one's exposure to the event. An employee's disaster exposure has been found to be associated with lower perceived safety (Fullerton et al., 2006). Intense critical incident involvement in a terrorist attack event can trigger posttraumatic distress and, ultimately, negative emotional states such as anxiety, stress, and depression (Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007). A terrorist attack event may be more influential with females and pessimistic individuals (Kushnir et al., 2001). Psychological climate factors (e.g., supervisory support climate and employee control climate) may alter the effects of an employee's exposure to a terrorist attack on employee outcomes (Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007). Spatial cues may also explain when employees are more or less likely to be affected by terrorist attacks. For example, event horizontal dispersion (the number of people at a given social hierarchical level exposed to a terrorist attack) and event vertical dispersion (the number of social hierarchical levels whose members are exposed to a terrorist attack) may moderate the relationship between a terrorist attack and people's responses. That is, the more people there are at a given social hierarchical level (higher event horizontal dispersion) involved in a terrorist attack, the stronger the responses that the terrorist attack may elicit; the more social hierarchical levels (higher event vertical dispersion) a terrorist attack affects, the stronger the responses that the terrorist attack may trigger.

Future Research Opportunities. The above review shows that an increasing number of studies have been published in the last decade (especially after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic) that demonstrate how environmental events can affect employee functioning. This represents a tremendous advance because it reflects increasing recognition of how the broader environment can impact employee behaviors. We identify several important future research opportunities that warrant greater attention from scholars.

Engage environment-level events in modeling. Although prior research has shown the importance of studying environment-level events, substantive engagement with environment-level events is missing from hypothesis development. Scholars typically use events as research settings or hypothesize around event outcomes (e.g., anxiety, stress, and perceived threat) rather than substantively engaging in the events themselves. To develop more fine-grained models, future research should more directly and clearly consider events as predictors, moderators, mediators, and outcomes of employee attitudes and behaviors. For example, building on a comprehensive review of disaster studies, Gregg and colleagues (2022) propose an overarching theoretical framework on how disaster events may interface with boundary conditions to impact organizational resources and outcomes across different levels of analysis.

Examine a larger variety of environment-level events. Although many environment-level events have been identified, many more remain unexplored. For example, the COVID-19

pandemic has garnered considerable scholarly attention, but there are other disease events with important organizational implications. Outbreaks of Ebola, SARS, MERS, monkeypox, H1N1, H5N1, Legionnaires' disease, and *E. coli* are just some examples of events that have implications for OB. Moreover, while numerous natural disasters have been studied, global climate changes and their associated human impact on the environment represent additional events that can be explored. For example, wildfires caused by droughts, extreme weather events (e.g., flooding, extreme temperatures), increased water pollution, and clean water scarcity, all represent events that are likely to significantly impact organizations and workers.

Political and societal events (e.g., government leader elections, major legislation, important judicial decisions, referendums, and social movements) are other types of events worthy of OB scholars' attention. For example, Brexit may have profound effects on leaders and employees in the United Kingdom and other countries (Ladkin & Probert, 2021; Schilbach, Selenko, Baethge, & Rigotti, 2022). Kim (2015) utilized a natural field experiment that explored how different U.S. states have passed laws to prohibit pay secrecy, compared them to those that did not, and found that in states that had outlawed pay secrecy, earnings were higher for college-educated women. Social movements such as Black Lives Matter have an increasingly significant impact on organizations and their workers (Bell, Berry, Leopold, & Nkomo, 2021). Leigh and Melwani (2019) call attention to this important type of event and discuss how these "mega-threats" impact employee experiences and behaviors at work. Renewed attention to diversity, equity, and inclusion, and many high-profile organizational commitments to address long-standing inequities surrounding activities such as hiring, pay, and promotions, speak to the value of studying these types of environmental events.

Integration Across Levels: Taking Stock and Next Steps

In the preceding review, we have examined event research by the level of analysis and event categories, highlighting theoretical perspectives and empirical results and identifying potential research opportunities. In this section, we further integrate this past research across levels by discussing several overarching theoretical and methodological issues and providing guidelines for future event-oriented OB research.

Theoretical Guidelines

The above four-level integrative review reveals the different theoretical approaches that scholars have used to develop event-related theories and conduct event-oriented research. Some studies focus on the affective (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), cognitive (Burke, Martens, & Faucher, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), or motivational (Deci & Ryan, 1985) appraisal processes underlying an individual's responses to events. Other research (e.g., Baumeister et al., 1998; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018) focuses on various resource gains and losses as mediators that translate events into proximal and distal consequences. Despite this important research, we observed an overall lack of event-oriented organizational theories; scholars still rely on feature-oriented theories to probe events in a static way. Compared to entities' features, events are highly dynamic and frequently change across time and space. Hence, an

essential theoretical development need involves advancing more event-oriented theoretical frameworks to capture event dynamics. To assist in this effort, we now offer some guidelines for building event-oriented theories.

Adopt a system perspective to develop event-oriented theories. Our review reveals a strong need for in-depth investigation of the nature of events from a system perspective. Most event studies arising at different levels have captured only the occurrence or intensity of events. The literature has yet to thoroughly examine the contextual cues of events. In his seminal paper on context, Johns (2006) noted that turnover studies did not sufficiently consider the temporal and spatial contexts under which turnover events emerge, and “this unnatural, acontextual bounding of time and space foregoes the considerable advantage of studying whole events and processes” (Johns, 2006: 390). Future research is needed to probe events in their proper context (e.g., occupation, location, time, and rationale; Johns, 2006, 2017). Importantly, events differ from entity features because they are “bounded in space and time (i.e., discrete) such that they have an identifiable temporal beginning and end and evolve in a specific setting” (Morgeson et al., 2015: 520). Hence, EST emphasizes the notion that an event can be studied from a system perspective by delving into three core components of the event system: (1) event strength (the degree to which an event is novel, disruptive, and critical); (2) event space (spatial cues of events); and (3) event time (temporal cues of events).

EST presents a general theoretical model that can be used to develop more specific event-oriented theories. Event-oriented theories can be distinguished from conventional theories on entity features by adopting a system perspective to examine the ways that event strength (e.g., novelty, disruption, and criticality), spatial (e.g., origin, direction, dispersion, and proximity), and temporal (e.g., duration, pace, peak, phase, rhythm, timing, and urgency) factors independently or jointly explain variance in outcomes. A system perspective may enable researchers to account for more variance in events and carry stronger explanatory power. For example, Jiang and colleagues (2019) studied entrepreneurs’ emotional display events during pitches and reported that the effect of the peak intensity of the entrepreneur’s joy (event strength) on funding outcomes depended on the temporal phase in which that peak occurred. Vogel and Bolino (2020) also suggested that magnitude and duration are important factors to consider in determining the impact of abusive supervision as a traumatic event on employees. Future theoretical development should attend more to the spatial dynamics of events. Global and local events may have different theoretical and practical implications. The COVID-19 crisis was initially a local event (endemic) and its impact was largely regional. Nevertheless, as COVID-19 became a global event (pandemic), employees around the world had to face numerous disruptions and changes.

Incorporate change-focused event outcomes in modeling. Additional theoretical attention should be directed toward studying change-focused event outcomes. Most prior studies use events to predict the level or intensity of employee and team outcomes (e.g., Liao, Liu, Li, & Song, 2019; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). However, due to their dynamic and discrete nature, events may be better positioned to cause changes than static entity features are. For example, a team leader’s turnover event may foster significant changes in team members’ social interactions (e.g., a departing team leader’s favorite members may receive less ingratiation from

teammates). A growing body of event research has provided evidence that events can predict meaningful changes across different levels of analysis (e.g., Frone, 2018; Hui et al., 2000; Lipponen et al., 2017; Rowe et al., 2005). Entities' responses to events may also accelerate, decelerate, or normalize across different event development phases. Therefore, as discussed earlier, a system perspective that simultaneously considers event strength, time, and space should be leveraged to theorize how events may bring about changes across time and levels. In contrast to feature-oriented organizational theories focusing on the intensity of outcomes, the focal outcomes of events should be shifted from intensity to changes.

Explore positive events. As human beings are more responsive to negative events than to positive ones (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001), limited research has explored positive events. Examining both positive and negative events can facilitate a more comprehensive consideration of the impact of events. We thus encourage scholars to conduct more research on favorable events (e.g., personal job promotion, team process breakthroughs, innovative organizational changes, the Olympics, Super Bowl) at all levels of analysis. The literature on positive organizational scholarship can help guide scholars as they investigate how positive events can impact such things as employees' career preferences, job search behaviors, turnover rates, commitment, and motivation (e.g., Cameron & Caza, 2004; Diener, Thapa, & Tay, 2020).

Theorize proactively or strategically created events. There is a surprising deficit in theorizing about events that are proactively or strategically created by individuals, teams, and organizations. Extant research typically centers on entities' responses to exogenous events, which naturally occur in the entities' external contexts (e.g., Bacharach & Bamberger, 2007; Frone, 2018). However, managers and organizations can—or even must—proactively create certain events to facilitate favorable outcomes. Early event-oriented leadership research suggested that leaders are potential “initiators of events” (Morgeson, 1998: 105), but little research has explored this possibility. Leadership research and training initiatives have traditionally focused on identifying effective leadership attributes and behaviors (Dinh et al., 2014; Zhu, Song, Zhu, & Johnson, 2019). Thus, a valuable research direction would be to probe how leaders and organizations can proactively or strategically create events to cultivate changes across the organizational hierarchy. For example, novel and critical events can be introduced to fuel employee improvisation and, in turn, creativity (Chen, Liu, Tang, & Hogan, 2021). Leaders can initiate recognition programs (e.g., employee of the month) to recognize a team member's superior performance, which may, in turn, enhance teammates' individual and collective performance (Li, Zheng, Harris, Liu, & Kirkman, 2016). Such a proactive event-oriented research and training approach may generate unconventional but valuable organizational interventions and initiatives.

Uncover the interface between events and entities' internal features. Although our review shows that events can account for unique variance in outcomes, we do not believe that scholars should ignore the critical impact of entities' internal features (e.g., personality traits, team compositions, and organizational cultural and structural characteristics) on employee behavior. The event response differences across entities may be attributed to variance in entities' internal features. We recommend additional research that explores the intersection between

these internal features and events. For example, how might entities' features (e.g., personality attributes and environmental characteristics) and experienced events interact to trigger changes in behaviors and features, as well as subsequent events associated with entities at different levels? Chen and colleagues (2021) demonstrated that workplace event novelty and criticality interact with employee learning orientation to foster employee improvisation and, ultimately, creativity. Workplace event novelty is most strongly related to employee improvisation when workplace event criticality and employee learning orientation are both high. An integrative theory-building approach that investigates the ways entities' features and experienced events jointly impact employees may more clearly depict the functioning of events and make more meaningful contributions to the management literature (Liu, Fisher, & Chen, 2018; Morgeson et al., 2015).

Conceptualize event chains and clusters. Our review shows that extant event-oriented research typically focuses on the effects of single events. However, we know that events rarely occur in isolation. Rather, events often appear in clusters (i.e., multiple discrete events functioning synthetically) and chains (causally related events unfolding subsequently). For example, the European Union's big-tech crackdown involved a cluster of events of ordering American tech giants such as Google, Facebook, Microsoft, and Amazon to pay huge fines for data and antitrust issues. Google's acquisition of Android in 2005 elicited a chain of subsequent events (e.g., integrating Google's tools within Android and imposing stronger control on Android smartphone manufacturers and app developers). Often, organizational members are compelled to respond to multiple events that emerge at different levels simultaneously (e.g., the COVID-19 pandemic, a new CEO, and harassment from coworkers). Morgeson and colleagues (2015) stressed the value of identifying and examining event clusters and chains to understand the impact of multiple events and to develop stronger organizational theories on events. A recent longitudinal, qualitative study generated valuable insights into China's COVID-19 response campaign by identifying and analyzing different event clusters (Shaw, Kim, & Hua, 2020). Roulet and Bothello (2022) theorized the ways certain characteristics in an event chain can cause micro-level psychological reactions and macro-level economic, political, and cultural transformations. Feature-oriented theories generally focus on distinct features of entities. Event-oriented theories may be further distinguished from feature-oriented theories by treating event chains and clusters in entities' contexts as the fundamental units of analysis.

Methodological Guidelines

Table 3 summarizes the major methodological characteristics of previous event-oriented OB studies. We found that scholars still generally rely on feature-centric research methods to examine the impacts of events. Consequently, event dynamics may not be effectively embodied in data measurement, collection, and analysis. Below, we highlight several methodological guidelines for conducting empirical event research.

Operationalize aspects of events as continuous variables. Our review shows that when modeling events, many studies have focused on the emergence of an event (e.g., Bono et al., 2013; Zohar et al., 2003) or the frequency with which an event occurs (e.g., Duffy

Table 3
Main Research Methods and Sample Publications

Research Methods		<i>Sample Publications</i>
Aspects of Events	The emergence of an event or the occurrence frequency of an event	Zohar et al. (2003) measured goal-disruptive and goal-enhancing events as a dummy variable. Sakurai and Jex (2012) measured coworker incivility on a 7-item, 5-point scale (1 = <i>never</i> ; 5 = <i>every day</i>).
	Events characteristics (e.g., event strength, duration, and space)	Liu et al. (2021) measured perceived strength of the COVID-19 crisis in terms of disruption, novelty, and criticality.
	Use an event as a research context and focus on employee's feelings or response to an event	Rothbard and Wilk (2011) measured perceived customer affective display in the event. Hu et al. (2020) studied COVID-19-triggered mortality salience. Rodell and Colquitt (2009) examined anticipatory justice toward an organizational change.
Measures of Events	Questionnaire-based measurement	Bono et al. (2013) asked participants to report their experience of positive and negative work events using a 13-item questionnaire drawing on existing literature.
	Transcript and computerized text analysis	Walker et al. (2017) conducted transcript and computerized text analysis based on records of customer-employee interactions.
	AI and big data analytics	Jiang et al. (2019) measured displayed emotion by combining the facial expression analysis with artificial intelligence and "big data" (over 8.2 million frames across all 1,460 videos).
Data Analysis	Analysis of variance (ANOVA) or multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA)	Paulsen et al. (2005) conducted MANOVA to compare the levels of job uncertainty, personal control, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction between survivors and victims of a downsizing event.
	Hierarchical linear modeling	Wang et al. (2011) used hierarchical linear modelling in HLM 6.06 to test their multilevel model.
	Structural equation modelling	Trougakos et al. (2020) tested their moderated sequential mediation model using structural equation modelling in Mplus.
	Discontinuous growth modeling	Lang and Bliese (2009) conducted discontinuous growth modeling using the NLME package included in R to examine changes in employee performance after unexpected events.
	Dual change score models	Matusik et al. (2019) adopted dual change score models for team goal commitment, team backup behavior, team relationship conflict, team psychological empowerment, team identification, and team cohesion.
	Event history analysis	Davis et al. (2015) utilized event history analysis to analyze how early layoff experiences shape individuals' voluntary turnover in subsequent jobs.

et al., 2002; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). For example, Zohar and colleagues (2003) measured events (i.e., goal-disruptive events and goal-enhancing events) as dummy variables. Sakurai and Jex (2012) assessed coworker incivility events using a 5-point scale (1 = *never*; 5 = *every day*). Some studies have also used an event as a research context and focused on employees' feelings or responses to an event (e.g., Chiang, 2010; Hu et al., 2020; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). However, treating events as a dummy variable (i.e., the presence or absence of the event), frequency variable (i.e., how often an event occurs), or research setting may not (a) fully capture meaningful variance perceptions of the event, (b) highlight which event facets impact employees, and (c) capture the extent to which an event's impact may unfold. Empirical studies that probe the specific facets of events as continuous variables may be better positioned to elucidate the ways that events make an impact in organizations.

EST can serve as a general framework for operationalizing discrete events across levels as continuous rather than dichotomous variables in terms of event strength, time, and space factors (Morgeson et al., 2015). In light of EST, future studies can examine overall event strength (Liu et al., 2021), specific event strength characteristics such as event novelty, disruption, and criticality (Chen et al., 2021; Lin, Shao, Li, Guo, & Zhan, 2021; Morgeson, 2005), event duration and phases (Jiang et al., 2019; Morgeson & DeRue, 2006), or the range of event types occurring in a given context (Morgeson & DeRue, 2006). For example, with respect to event strength, event novelty, disruption, and criticality can capture important variance in different individuals' perceptions of the same event, thereby predicting their different responses to the same event (Morgeson et al., 2015). Chen and colleagues (2021) highlighted the synergistic effect of workplace event novelty and criticality on employee improvisation and, ultimately, creativity. Jiang and colleagues (2019) challenged the conventional wisdom of "too much of a good thing" by distinguishing temporal factors (duration and phases) from the intensity factor of peak displayed joy events. They showed that the intensity of peak displayed joy events during entrepreneurs' funding pitches had a positive linear relationship with the amount of money they raised, but the duration of peak displayed joy events (especially those occurring in the first phase of a funding pitch) had an inverted U-shape relationship with funding outcomes. They concluded that what actually makes a difference is too long of a good thing. These examples show that scholars' understanding of events could be enriched by delving into the specific intensity and temporal aspects of events as continuous variables.

Importantly, each event may rise and unfold in its own unique context, and what we learn about a specific event may not generalize to other events. For example, the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic are more far-reaching than more local events (e.g., mergers and acquisitions of local firms, terrorist attacks aimed at a country or region). Scholars should thus carefully consider what we might learn about managing beyond the context of an event. Significant methodological effort is needed to unravel how both temporal (e.g., event rhythm, phase, and rate) and spatial (e.g., horizontal and vertical event origin and coverage) cues in different event contexts can shape event impacts and alter people's responses to events. Scholars can collect both quantitative and qualitative event data and compare multiple events in diverse communication contexts to better understand the complexity and subtlety of events (Adair, Buchan, Chen, & Liu, 2016; Gehman et al., 2018).

Utilize more dynamic and innovative research designs. Cross-sectional and time-lagged designs are still dominant research designs for studying events (e.g., Caldas et al., 2021; Duffy et al., 2002; Lee et al., 1996). Fine-grained, event-centric analyses are needed to discover which strength, temporal, and spatial cues can lead to important event outcomes and how they can do so. For example, a longitudinal research design enables researchers to capture the dynamic effectuation process underlying events more effectively. Hale and colleagues (2016) traced 524 branches of a U.S. bank over 12 months to examine the longitudinal effects of turnover events on collective performance and group adaptability in the disruption and recovery phases. In addition, scholars have used panel data to investigate the effects of events on changes in employee feelings and behaviors. For example, using panel data from 1,143 adults from RAND Corporation's nationally representative American Life Panel, Wanberg, Csillag, Douglass, Zhou, and Pollard (2020) identified an increase in depressive symptoms and a decrease in life satisfaction before and during COVID-19 for individuals in the United States.

Importantly, the experience sampling method (ESM) has frequently been used to capture within-person effects of events over time (e.g., Ilies et al., 2011; Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). For example, using an ESM design, Hu and colleagues (2020) found daily mortality salience fluctuations triggered by the COVID-19 pandemic. ESM enables researchers to assess frequently occurring events that might be difficult to capture using traditional methods, and helps document individuals' responses in a timely way. In contrast to traditional methods that focus only on an average level of the variables of interest, ESM allows scholars to identify discrete incidents. For example, conventional research on work–life conflict typically reflects the general state of the inter-role conflict between work and family over a given time period. However, ESM stimulates finer-grained research on the outburst of each episodic conflict. Thus, ESM constitutes a powerful tool for event research and can contribute to the burgeoning body of research on dynamic processes and transient phenomena at the event level. Future research can also integrate ESM with field experiments to enhance both the internal and external validity of event studies (Brown, Zijlstra, & Lyons, 2010; Chen et al., 2018; Lang & Bliese, 2009; Li et al., 2016).




Other promising methodological directions include taking advantage of the day reconstruction method (Bakker, Demerouti, Oerlemans, & Sonnentag, 2013), event history analysis (Davis et al., 2015; Iverson & Pullman, 2000), AI and big data analytics (Jiang et al., 2019), computerized text analysis (Walker et al., 2017), and longitudinal comparative case studies (Stevens & Dimitriadis, 2004; Van de Ven & Huber, 1990) to identify events and assess the nature and underlying processes of events. By applying such sophisticated analytic methods, scholars can be better prepared to capture pre-event, in-event, and post-event dynamics.

Conclusion

In this review, we sought to identify, synthesize, and elaborate the significant growth of event-oriented OB research. We are heartened by the amount and diversity of research and the fact that such research has occurred across the individual, team, organization, and environment levels. This rapidly growing body of research has added considerably to our collective knowledge and will serve as an important foundation for future event-oriented OB research. Although much has been accomplished, much more remains to be done. To that end, we sought to provide specific theoretical and methodological recommendations at

each level and across levels. This research can help scholars start or continue their important work in this area. Event-oriented OB research is one of the most promising approaches in the field, and we look forward to seeing what the future holds.

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