GRADUAL DRIFTS, ABRUPT SHOCKS: FROM RELATIONSHIP FRACTURES TO RELATIONAL RESILIENCE

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Although high-quality work relationships are essential for organizational effectiveness and employee well-being, they often fracture in the course of organizational life. To better understand how work relationships recover from relationship fractures, we provide an integrative review under the umbrella of relational resilience. We establish a unified definition of relational resilience, and then use two broad attributes—resilience processes and resilience foundations—as an organizing framework for our discussion of relational resilience. Resilience processes describe how fractures are triggered, interpreted, and repaired. We review common triggers of relationship fracture and describe two distinct pathways—gradual drifts and abrupt shocks—to fracture, highlight the important role that positive attributional and prosocial sensemaking processes play in facilitating postfracture repair, and discuss the process by which fractured relationships are restored or strengthened. Resilience foundations describe the preconditions for successfully engaging in prosocial sensemaking and relational repair. Our review identified the relational foundations critical to positive sensemaking and positive relational attributions, and the reparative foundations critical to relational repair. Finally, we organize insights and future directions around six themes: balancing and realigning emotions, synchronizing attributions and cognitions, contingencies of effective repair, fracture pathways and repair, trajectories of repair, and reciprocal relationships.

INTRODUCTION

The quality of both formal and informal workplace relationships is critical to organizational functioning. We benefit from high-quality work relationships, which are sources of growth and inspiration for individuals (Dutton & Heaphy, 2003; Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000) and contribute to positive organizational outcomes. The reality of organizational life is that these relationships can—and do—fracture resulting in frustration, negative affect, and psychological harm (Gersick, Bartunek, & Dutton, 2000; Liden, Anand, & Vidyarthi, 2016). The quality of relationships is compromised when individuals experience mistreatment, psychological contract violations, interpersonal conflict, or when external strains cross over into workplace relationships (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Jehn, Greer,

Levine, & Szulanksi, 2008; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Tepper, 2000). Although these events threaten and may even cause irrevocable breakdowns in workplace relationships, dyads can successfully adapt to fractures (Dirks, Lewicki, & Zaheer, 2009; Ren & Gray, 2009). We term this dyadic adaptation process *relational resilience*, demonstrated when dyads restore a relationship to the status quo or display positive adaptation and growth following a relationship fracture.

Notwithstanding their frequency and the impact that fractured dyadic relationships have on organizational life, we lack an integrated framework for understanding dyadic relationships from the point of fracture to the point of repair (Kahn, Barton, Fisher, Heaphy, Reid, & Rouse, 2018). There are two related reasons for the absence of a unified account of the relational resilience process. First, despite the recognition that the dyad is an important level for analyzing resilience processes (Liden et al., 2016), research on relational resilience is sparse and scattered (Barton & Kahn, 2019). Second,

empirical work on this topic is currently spread through several diverse fields of research including conflict management, trust and trust repair, relationship science and resilience. Researchers within these fields have typically worked in isolation from each other, leaving us with an incomplete account of the relational resilience process. For example, the conflict management literature has focused primarily on the causes and consequences of fractures rather than the repair process, whereas the relationship science literature places greater emphasis on the qualities that buffer relationships from fractures and support their repair. In this review, we integrate these diverse literature works to develop a comprehensive account of the relational resilience process from the point at which relationships start to fracture to the point of repair.

Because no single research stream addresses all components of the relational resilience process, we started our review by conducting a broad search within the management and applied psychology literature works. Our keywords captured the crucial elements of resilience and dyadic relationship fracture and repair. In our first search, we combined the keywords "resilient" and "resilience" with various types of relationships (work, team, dyad, and interpersonal). To reflect our focus on relational resilience, our next search combined "relationship" or "relational" with terms that describe relationship fractures (adversity, turning points, and transgressions) to identify articles that examined relational capabilities, processes, and outcomes related to fractures. Our third search combined "repair" with terms that related to damaged relationships (trust, transgression, psychological contract violation, mistreatment, conflict, and perceived injustice). We then conducted forward and reverse citation searches of the most highly cited articles identified by our initial searches.

Coding the abstracts of these articles, we developed the exclusion criteria for our review. First, we excluded research on resilience in response to very specialized types of adversity (e.g., in response to chronic health issues or war, or in specialized populations such as recovering addicts) because these subtopics provide limited insight into dyadic workplace relationships. Second, we focused only on resilience mechanisms that can give us insight into dyad-level processes of fracture and repair. Third, we retained some research central to our understanding of dyad-level resilience found outside of the core organizational literature. Table 1 summarizes emergent themes, key constructs, and illustrative sources for this review.

Early in our review, we noted the lack of a clear conceptual definition of relational resilience. To add clarity, in the first section of this article, we offer a definition of relational resilience based on two themes—relationship fracture and relational repair—drawn from research. We then develop a conceptual framework of relational resilience organized around two key attributes that emerged from our literature review: resilience processes and resilience foundations. This conceptual framework is shown in Figure 1. Resilience processes describe the sequence of events through which relationships are fractured, interpreted, and subsequently repaired. Resilience foundations refer to the more enduring characteristics of dyadic relationships—dyadic unity and dyadic trust—that create the preconditions for a positive interpretation of fractures and lay the groundwork for repairing and strengthening fractured relationships.

These two attributes—resilience processes and resilience foundations—provide the conceptual framework for integrating our knowledge about relational resilience. Each of these attributes is well researched in its own right, and when the relevant literature works are integrated, they imply a causal chain in the relational resilience process. However, because the research has been scattered through several research domains, there is little crossover between these research streams and the causal chain remains an untested possibility. Our goal, in this review, is to present a coherent framework of the relational resilience process, from the point of relationship fracture to the point of relational repair.

WHAT IS A RESILIENT WORK RELATIONSHIP?

Resilience is demonstrated when a system (be it an individual, a dyad, a group, or an organization) bounces back from events that disrupt or threaten its functioning (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). Although it is a critical topic in organizational studies (Coutu, 2002), to date, researchers have predominantly sought to understand how either individuals or organizations survive in the face of events that threaten their functioning (for reviews, see Kossek & Perrigino, 2016; Williams, Gruber, Sutcliffe, Shepherd, & Zhao, 2017). A recent shift in focus has resulted in theorizing about team resilience, that is, the conditions that differentiate resilient teams from "brittle" teams (Stoverink, Kirkman, Mistry, & Rosen, 2018). Gucciardi et al. (2018), in their integrative review, describe team resilience as an emergent state and draw attention to the dynamic aspects of resilience.

Although the investigation of relational resilience is relatively recent, it is already fragmented. This fragmentation is evidenced by the fact that several related constructs are apparent in the literature

TABLE 1
Emergent Themes, Related Constructs, and Illustrative References

Emergent Themes	Related Constructs	Illustrative Sources
Fracture pathways		
Relationships can fracture in two ways, through the accumulation of small transgressions that accumulate over time to disrupt a relationship *or* through a single large transgression that immediately disrupts a relationship	Mistreatment Psychological contracts Conflict Crossover Creeping strain Abrupt shock	Cunha et al. (2006) Kahn et al. (2013) Priem & Nystrom (2014) Rudolph & Repenning (2002)
Relational sensemaking		
A fracture can be interpreted as a positive or negative disruption to the relationship. Interpretation depends on the attributions made about fracture, the ability to offer a positive/prosocial narrative, and the ability to dispel negative emotions	Relational attributions Emotion management Prosocial sensemaking	Andiappan & Trevino (2011) Beal et al. (2005) Eberly et al. (2011) Wright et al. (2000)
Relational Repair		
Actions that restore relationships following a fracture; actions that build capacity to withstand future fractures	Interpersonal transgressions Trust repair Forgiveness Improvisation	Bradfield & Aquino (1999) MacPhee et al. (2015) McGinn & Keros (2002) Petriglieri (2015)
Relational Foundations		
Relationships characterized by sense of "we-ness" (dyadic unity) and high mutual trust are more likely to elicit positive attributional processes and relational sensemaking	Relational self-construal Dyadic trust	Beuhlman et al. (1992) Kim et al. (2015) Luchies et al. (2013) Murray & Holmes (1999)
Reparative Foundations		
Relational repair is facilitated when partners end sensemaking with a positive emotional climate and a restored commitment to the relationship.	Shared emotional climate High-commitment relationships	Feeney & Lemay (2012) Madhyastha et al. (2011) Neff & Broady (2011) Rizvi & Bobocel (2016)

without a coherent unifying framework. Social resilience, for example, highlights "we-ness" and is defined as "the capacity to foster, engage in, and sustain positive relationships" (Cacioppo, Reis, & Zautra, 2011: 44). Dyadic resilience, a similar but distinct term, describes the interactive process through which dyads positively adapt to within-dyad adversity (Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). Still other researchers have used terms such as relational repair (e.g., Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Dirks et al., 2009), interpersonal repair (Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014), and reconciliation (Andiappan & Trevino, 2011) to describe ways that dyads heal from damaging relational events. Although these various terms all highlight the interactive and complex nature of relational resilience, because they derive from different literature works, they remain relatively isolated from each other.

At both the individual and organizational levels of analysis, researchers have debated whether resilience is (a) an ability, activated in response to adversity, that enables a system to bounce back and achieve positive outcomes (Luthar, 2003) or (b) a process through which the system recovers from threats to its viability or development (Caza & Milton, 2012; Williams et al., 2017). Empirical studies emphasizing the former approach have identified the factors that promote positive adjustment in the face of adversity, that is, capabilities for durability (Williams et al., 2017). This research shows that individuals' behavioral persistence and recovery from workplace stressors is influenced by both individual differences and occupational demands (e.g., Kossek & Perrigino, 2016; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). It also shows that behavioral, cognitive, affective, and relational resources support persistence and enhanced organizational reliability in the face of adversity (Lengnick-Hall & Beck, 2005). Although these factors lay the foundation for withstanding adverse events, it is the enactment of these capabilities—the process of resilience—that leads to some form of recovery (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003; Williams et al., 2017).

FIGURE 1
An Organizing Framework for Understanding Relational Resilience
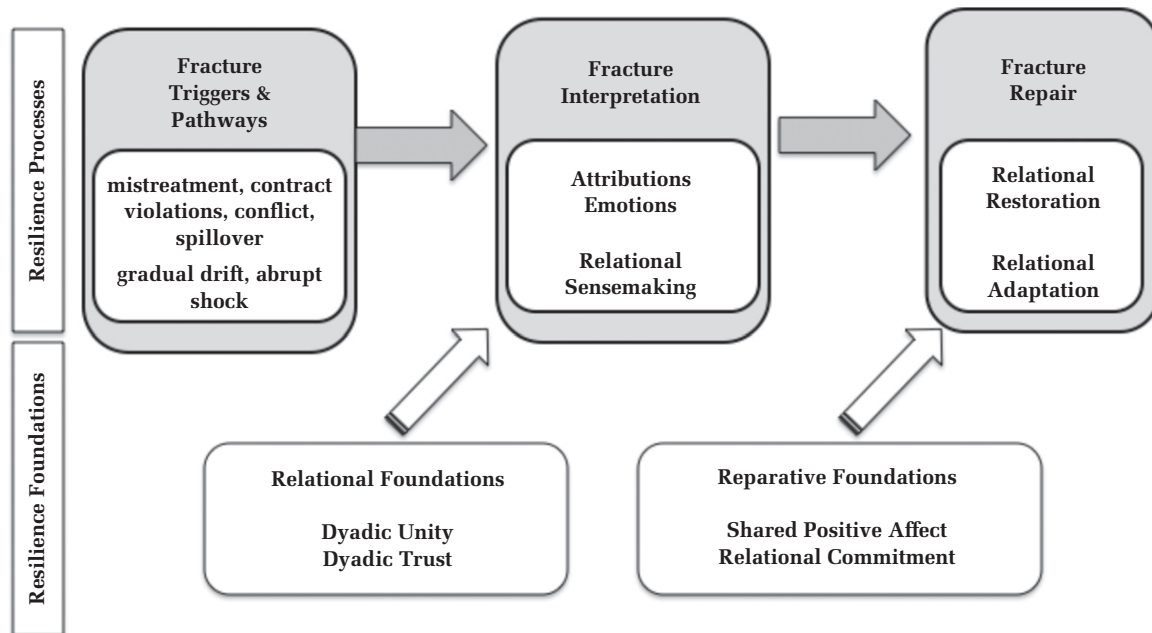
Thus, a holistic understanding of resilience involves identifying both the foundational capabilities for recovery and the dynamic process of enacting these capabilities in the context of a fracture.

We draw on a process-based perspective to further our understanding of relational resilience. This perspective establishes the central themes for building a conceptual framework of relational resilience (Luthar, Cicchetti, & Becker, 2000). The first theme, exposure to adversity, provides the basis for our integration of research on relational fracture. The second theme, recovery from this experience, provides the basis for our integration of research on fracture repair. Building on this core understanding of resilience, we offer the following overarching definition of relational resilience: relational resilience is the process by which dyads restore a relationship to the status quo or display positive adaptation and growth following a relationship fracture. Based on our broad coding of the literature, we determined two defining characteristics of relational resilience: relationship fracture and of relational repair. We further categorized the discussion of relationship fractures into two themes, violated expectations and relational injury; we also classified the discussion of relational repair into two themes, indicators of restoration and indicators of positive adaptation. These defining characteristics are summarized in Table 2 and discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Relationship Fracture

Organizational researchers use a range of terms to discuss relationship fractures. Our broad coding of the literature suggests that relationship fractures have two core characteristics: violated expectations and relational injury. Combining these characteristics, we define relationship fracture as a relational injury that results from the violation of expectations that characterize a dyadic relationship.

The first characteristic, *violated expectations*, stems from a social exchange perspective: relationships are maintained through a series of exchanges and break down when one or other party fails to meet their obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Rousseau, 2004). The ambiguous nature of social exchange, both in terms of what is exchanged and when an exchange is reciprocated, makes relationships especially vulnerable to such breakdowns. Some definitions of fracture, such as the identification of turning points or anchoring events, recognize that a disruption can change a relationship for better or worse (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Baxter & Bullis, 1986). More often, definitions of fracture emphasize the negative consequences of a failed exchange. At its simplest, a fracture is defined as an occasion on which one person perceives that the other has not met their obligations (Robinson &

TABLE 2
Subcomponents of Relationship Fracture and Relational Repair

Definitions of Fracture	
Violated Expectations	
Ballinger & Rockmann (2010)	"..an anchoring event [is defined as] .. (2) [a social exchange] whose resolution differs, either positively or negatively, from his or her expectation . . .." (p. 376)
Baxter & Bullis (1986)	"Any event or occurrence that is associated with change in a relationship." (p. 470)
Khalifian & Barry (2016)	"Relationship transgressions—violations of implicit or explicit relationship norms—are highly prevalent and difficult to discuss." (p. 592)
Ren & Gray (2009)	"Relationship violation occurs when one party's behavior prevents another party from meeting an important need." (p. 110)
Robinson & Rousseau (1994)	"A violation occurs when one party in a relationship perceives the other to have failed to fulfil promised obligations." (p. 247)
Van Tongeren et al. (2015)	"Interpersonal offenses are disruptions to relationships that may undermine the meaning-providing function of relationships." (p. 47)
Relational Injury	
Bottom et al. (2002)	**Relationship damage** is defined as the interruption of cooperation.
	"Actions that violate cooperative expectations can have serious consequences. Minor departures may foster concern. Major departures may be perceived as exploitation, generate strong emotional reactions, and can sever relationships so that future benefits are lost." (p. 497)
Hoyt et al. (2005)	"Although conflicts in close relationships range from simple divergence in preferences to inconsiderate or irritating acts by one partner to outright acts of betrayal (Rusbult & Van Lange, 2003), those conflicts that entail feelings of injury and resentment, and attributions of blame on the part of one or both parties are of primary interest in understanding individual and family functioning (Karremans, Van Lange, Ouwerkerk, & Kluwer, 2003). We refer to the precipitating causes of those feelings and attendant cognitions as *interpersonal transgressions.*" (p. 376)
Johnson et al. (2001)	"Relational injury is what occurs after a violation in which the partner does not provide expected comfort and caring in times of distress."
	"Betrayals, such as attachment injuries, call into question basic beliefs about relationships, the other, and the self. As partners commit to an intimate relationship, they have an internal model of what the relationship will look like and how they expect to be treated. . .under normal circumstance the violation of expectations would not necessarily harm the attachment bond; however, when the person is most vulnerable, and comfort is essential, such violations can rupture the relational bond in significant ways." (p. 150)
	"The concept of attachment injury does not focus so much on the specific content of a painful event but on the attachment significance of such events." (p. 146)
Lee & Mitchell (1994)	". . . some sort of event, which we call a shock to the system, causes the person to pause and think about the meaning or implication of the event . . .." (p. 60)
Schweitzer et al. (2006)	"In some settings an untrustworthy episode may lead to relationship rupture, and subsequent trustworthy behavior will be more difficult to observe." (p. 16)
	"While common wisdom presumes that trust violations can cause severe relationship damage (e.g., Slovic, 1993), little work has examined how trust actually changes over time as a function of different types of violations and attempts to restore it." (p. 1)

Definitions of Repair	
Indicators of restoration	
Dirks et al. (2009)	**Relationship repair** "occurs when a transgression causes the positive state(s) that constitute(s) the relationship to disappear and/or negative states to arise, as perceived by one or both parties, and activities by one or both parties substantively return the relationship to a positive state." (p. 69)
Bradfield & Aquino (1999)	**"Forgiveness** is the release of negative affect" (p. 610) and the choice to "forego opportunities for retribution, punishment, or even fair distribution of goods." (p. 611)
Okimoto & Wenzel (2014)	"We conceptualize 'relationship repair' (or 'relationship restoration') as restoring feelings of benevolence and empathy to the relationship between parties, encompassing both reconciliation (i.e., relationship repair between individuals) as well as reintegration (i.e., an individual's regained support from and commitment to the organizational community)." p. 444
Tripp et al. (2007)	"Methods of repair that all parties can pursue, that result in the restoration of peace and justice." (p. 11)

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TABLE 2
(Continued)

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Definitions of Repair	
Bottom et al. (2002)	In the empirical study, presence of positive affect and cooperation are indicators of relationship repair.
	"Should one party's actions seriously threaten the continuation of a rewarding interaction . . . . one or both of the parties may seek to re-establish the connection, so they can continue to receive the benefits it offers. Rebuilding cooperation may prove difficult, however: retribution, resentment, and guilt can present immediate obstacles." (p. 498)
Indicators of relational adaptation	
Thompson & Ravlin (2016)	"A dyad-level outcome that emerges due to a dynamic interactive process wherein a work dyad fulfills its capacity to positively adapt to within-dyad adversity." (p. 2)
Sanford et al. (2017)	**Couple resilience** "is defined as a process in which a couple engages in relationship behaviors that help each member adapt and maintain high wellbeing during stressful life situations." (p. 660)
Cacioppo et al. (2011)	"Is the capacity to foster, engage in, and sustain positive relationships and to endure and recover from life stressors and social isolation. Its unique signature is the transformation of adversity into personal, relational, and collective growth through strengthening existing social engagements and developing new relationships with creative collection actions." (p. 44).
Thompson & Korsgaard (2018)	"We define relationship resilience as occasions in which, following adversity, the focal individual observes his or her relationship with the relational other as being stronger than it was prior to adversity." (p. 156)

Rousseau, 1994) or has blocked goal attainment (Ren & Gray, 2009). Others explicitly refer to relational expectations, defining a fracture as the violation of relationship norms (Khalifian & Barry, 2016). A consequence of these failures is that relationships are undermined by one party's actions (Van Tongeren, Green, Hook, Davis, Davis, & Ramos, 2015). These different terms all convey the idea that implicit or explicit violations of one's relational expectations are significant for both partners and their relationship.

The second characteristic, *relational injury*, addresses the impact of violated expectations. Unmet expectations negatively affect the psychological states of relationship partners and the quality of their relationship (Dutton & Ragins, 2007). For example, Bottom, Gibson, Daniels and Murnighan (2002) define relational damage as the interruption of cooperation. Other authors refer to the aftermath of violated relational expectations as characterized by negative relational feelings such as resentment, attributions of blame, and the loss of trust (Hoyt, McCullough, Fincham, Maio, & Davila, 2005). Each of these represents a form of attachment injury, defined as one individual's violation of a partner's expectation that they will be offered comfort and caring in times of danger. Such injuries are often manifested as one or both partners' decreased commitment to continue the relationship (Johnson, Makinen, & Millikin, 2001).

Relational Repair

A fracture positions a dyadic relationship at the start of one of three trajectories: relational decline, a return to the status quo, or the initiation of an upward relational trajectory (Maitlis, 2005; Richardson, 2002). As relational resilience involves repair, which in the broadest sense is described as any activity that reestablishes a positive relationship (Dirks et al., 2009), it is represented by only the last two trajectories. We, therefore, define relational repair as any action that restores a fractured relationship to the status quo or supports positive adaptation and growth following the fracture. We note that effective repair is most likely when dyads have created the conditions for a collaborative and mutual interpretation of the fracture (Liden et al., 2016; Petriglieri, 2015; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016) and is likely to be blocked if dyads do not hold congruent perceptions about a fracture (Bottom et al., 2002).

Based on our broad coding of the research on relational repair, we identify two core characteristics: indicators of restoration and indicators of positive adaptation. The first characteristic, *indicators of restoration*, addresses the criteria for determining whether a relationship has been returned to steady state. For this to occur, relational partners need to reduce negative affect and restore a range of positive emotions such as benevolence and empathy (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014). There is also a behavioral component to

restoration, in that partners need to forgo revenge in favor of establishing relational peace and cooperation and a sense of justice (Bottom et al., 2002; Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2007). Finally, a restored relationship should be characterized by regained commitment to the relationship, including restored trust, and a willingness to take risks in the wake of a fracture (Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014; Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow, 2006).

The second characteristic, *indicators of positive adaptation*, captures the possibility that relationships can adapt and be strengthened following adversity. Thompson and Korsgaard (2018) identify the individuals' perception that their relationships are stronger following adversity as central to relational resilience. Other definitions stress the importance of joint actions for positive adaption: the actions of both dyad members (Thompson & Ravlin, 2016) and more specifically, the relationship-oriented behaviors that enable adaption to adversity (Sanford et al., 2017).

FROM RELATIONSHIP FRACTURE TO RELATIONAL RESILIENCE

Organizational relationships can fracture in multiple ways. Whatever the source of the relationship fracture, it needs to be repaired for a workplace relationship to again function effectively, to be experienced as positive, and for the dyad to again be productive. The process of repair begins with an interpretation of the fracture. Individuals and dyads need to manage attributions of blame, develop a way to constructively discuss the fracture, and manage the negative emotions that a fracture generates. Dyads that engage in positive attributional and sensemaking processes are better able to dissipate negative emotions and create the preconditions for restoring or strengthening a fractured relationship. In this section, we review research that contributes to our understanding of relational resilience processes: fracture triggers and pathways, interpretation of fractures, and fracture repair.

Relationship Fractures: Triggers and Pathways

Although fractures have many triggers, four categories of triggers in workplace relationships are well established in prior research: mistreatment, breached psychological contracts, conflict, and crossover. We briefly discuss each trigger and then discuss two different paths by which these triggers create fractures.

Fracture triggers. Mistreatment encompasses several concepts that are differentiated by the level of intensity, intentionality, and target–perpetrator relationships (see Hershcovis [2011] for further discussion). Incivility, which violates norms of mutual respect (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), and social undermining, which causes personal harm to the target and hinders interpersonal reputation (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), are examples of low-intensity triggers. By contrast, abusive supervision and bullying are examples of high-intensity triggers (e.g., Tepper, 2000). Mistreatment in organizations is especially pernicious because it tends to persist and even escalate over time (Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Martinova, 2012), displaying a self-reinforcing pattern once it is perceived (Klaussner, 2014). There is ample evidence that mistreatment can trigger relationship fractures because it increases individuals' sense of injustice and also decreases trust in coworkers (Martinko et al., 2013; Wang, Mao, Wu, & Liu, 2012).

Psychological contracts reflect individuals' beliefs about the nature of the exchange that exists between themselves and their coworkers, leaders, or the organization (Rousseau, 2004). When violations occur, they fracture relationships eroding both organizational commitment and interpersonal trust (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Rousseau, 2004). Notably, the negative consequences of psychological contract breaches are stronger than the positive consequences of psychological contract fulfillment (Conway, Guest, & Trenberth, 2011), suggesting that a psychological contract breach can initiate a cycle of relational decline. This downward trajectory may result in the deterioration of organizational relationships such as those between managers and their subordinates. For example, Griep and Vantilborgh (2018a, 2018b) show that the accumulation of psychological contract breaches over time increases feelings of contract violation, starting a downward spiral in which employees create further contract violations by engaging in counterproductive work behaviors.

Conflicts start in the moment that individuals recognize that others have violated or failed to meet their expectations. They reduce willingness to continue working together, and in the case of relationship conflicts, negative emotions further decrease the willingness to work together (Jehn et al., 2008). Consistent with the relationship fracture created by conflict, a comprehensive meta-analysis shows that conflicts result in poorer performance and decreased satisfaction (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). Conflicts

may also be precursors to relationship fractures because by highlighting the different mental models held by relationship partners, they increase the sense of unmet expectations and erode perceived interdependence (Santos & Passos, 2013). A clearer violation of expectations can occur in negotiations, when one party displays unwillingness to compromise or undermines the relationship by engaging in personal derogation (Druckman & Olekalns, 2013; Putnam & Fuller, 2014). Although negotiators expect their partners to protect their own interests, some behaviors can be extreme enough to cast doubt on opponents' intentions (e.g., Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010; Olekalns & Smith, 2005) and trigger fractures.

Crossover from events that are external to a relationship can nonetheless create fractures within the relationship (Finkel, Simpson, & Eastwick, 2017). The crossover may be from one organizational unit to another or may be from personal lives into organizational relationships. Westman (2001: 718) defines crossover as the "dyadic, inter-individual transmission of stress or strain". Recent research shows that family hassles can cross over and reduce individuals' beliefs that they contributed to the well-being of coworkers (Du, Derks, & Bakker, 2018) and decrease organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Carlson, Thompson, & Kacmar, 2018b). Focusing workplace relationships, research shows that personal stress, initiated by one's partner's use of mobile devices for work at home, can cross over and disrupt work relationships (Carlson, Thompson, Crawford, Boswell, & Whitten, 2018a). Although none of these events is intrinsic to the work relationship, the crossover of strain from these events to the workplace can lead to relational fracture: individual responses to external stressors can threaten relationships because they lead to social withdrawal, agitation, or aggression (Repetti, Wang, & Saxbe, 2009). Close relationship research further suggests that crossover disrupts relationships by reducing the amount of time partners spend in relationship-building activities (Karney & Neff, 2013). This lack of attention to relational processes can be thought of as an attachment injury (Johnson et al., 2001).

Fracture pathways. Our review identifies two pathways to relationship fracture in organizations—gradual drift and abrupt shocks (Cunha, Clegg, & Kamoche, 2006; Kahn et al., 2018; Williams et al., 2017). All four of the trigger categories reviewed earlier can develop into fractures either through a gradual drift or an abrupt shock.

Gradual drift occurs when a series of small actions that violate relational expectations accumulate over time. According to Kahn et al. (2018), relationships are subjected to mounting strain through ongoing (but small) violations of relational expectations. Similarly, Williams et al. (2017) identify an evolutionary aspect to crises, one characterized by a slow and progressive drift toward a point of fracture. In the conflict management literature, Druckman and Rosoux (2016) describe a similar gradual process, one in which negotiators' strategies or perceptions of a conflict slowly drift apart until a turning point is reached.

The progressive pattern of mounting relational load means that the issues the dyad continually faces tend to be unsurprising, perhaps even expected (Cunha et al., 2006), putting such issues at risk of going unnoticed and unaddressed (Weick, 2004). For example, coworker relationships can erode slowly over time because their reactions to specific organizational events trigger toxic decision processes that are characterized by negative emotions and interactions between organizational members (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). Priem and Nystrom (2014) show that lack of common ground results in the misinterpretation of others' actions and, over time, leads to the gradual erosion of trust and group relationships. As relational issues of this type accumulate over time, they push the relationship toward fracture.

Abrupt shocks are triggered by a single event either within or outside of the relationship that threatens the viability of an ongoing relationship, sometimes causing a relationship to break completely (Liden et al., 2016). They are typically low-probability, high-consequence events that signal harm (Williams et al., 2017). As a result, they are highly salient, standing out from the natural flow of a relationship. Finkel et al. (2017) describe them as having psychological resonance for both relational partners and, by triggering conflict and negative emotions, they loom larger within a relationship. Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) describe such moments as anchoring events, events that trigger a reevaluation of a relationship and elicit strong emotions. The defining feature of abrupt shocks is that because they are sudden and unexpected, they change the meaning and functionality of the entire relationship between coworkers (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001) and threaten the viability of an ongoing relationship.

Interpreting Relationship Fractures

Fractures disrupt individuals' understanding of a relationship and motivate them to try to make sense of the situation (Priesemuth, Schminke, Ambrose, &

Folger, 2014; Roberson, 2006). The attributions that individuals make about a fracture and the emotions that a fracture elicits determine how individuals and dyads make sense of and react to the fracture. Drawing on this attribution-emotion-behavior sequence to investigate how individuals react to fractures Crossley (2009) showed that attributions about perceived offender motives shape victim emotions and, consequently, their choice of a prosocial or antisocial response to a workplace offense. In a dyadic context, Liden et al. (2017) highlight the critical role that mutual attribution of genuine benevolence plays in establishing high-quality relationships. These findings suggest that dyad members' interpretations of relationship fractures are central to the quality of postfracture relationships and consequently also to fracture repair.

In the immediate aftermath of a fracture, individuals make attributions about the event, that is, they assess the severity and emotional impact of the fracture, the conditions that led to the fracture, and the significance of the fracture for their relationship (Aquino, Douglas, & Martinko, 2004; Bies & Tripp, 1996; Boon & Holmes, 1999). Furthermore, because fractures can trigger a reevaluation of the relationship, individuals and dyads also need to give narrative meaning to the event through sensemaking, defined as the construction of a new account through which they can understand surprising events (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2008). Attributional and sensemaking processes provide complementary frameworks for understanding how individuals and dyads make sense of, and ultimately respond to, unexpected events and situations, including relationship fractures in a way that helps them to move forward (Vough & Caza, 2017).

Before relational repair, a dyad needs to overcome differing conceptions of a fractures' severity and what constitutes a fair response (Bottom et al., 2002; Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014). Unless dyads reconcile disparate points of view, attempts at shared sensemaking are likely to increase rather than reduce conflict (Landau & Drori, 2008). To date, the literature on interpreting fractures has identified the link between individual attributions and sensemaking and repair and separately the link between dyadic process of sensemaking and repair. However, we continue to lack strong empirical evidence explaining how individual and dyadic sensemaking converge on the path to fracture repair.

Relational attributions. Relationship fractures are more likely to persist when individuals form dispositional explanations of others' poor behavior,

placing the blame for a fracture on their partners' behavior rather than their own. This tendency to make dispositional attributions leads to the continuation—and possible worsening—of a relationship fracture, in part due to the expectation that the same behavior (e.g., abusive supervision) will continue in the future (Oh & Farh, 2017). In interpersonal relationships, negative attributions about partner's intentions start a cycle of negative expectations about the partner's behavior that leads to increased negative communication and a lack of empathy (Sanford, 2006). Burton, Taylor, and Barber (2014) show that employees who blame their supervisor for abusive behavior are less likely to perceive interactional justice than those who blame themselves and consequently are more likely to engage in direct and indirect aggressive behavior toward their supervisor. Moreover, negative dispositional attributions may contribute to the continuation of fractures because they reduce empathy and willingness to forgive (Hook et al., 2015).

Positive attributions and positive attributional styles, however, can support accounts of the fracture that move the parties toward repair. Miller and Rempel (2004; also, Rempel, Ross, & Holmes, 2001), for example, showed that when individuals attribute positive intentions to their partners (make partner-enhancing attributions), trust increases over time and when a relationship is characterized by high-trust individuals are more likely to make partner-enhancing attributions following a fracture. A study of nurses working in the Veteran's Administration showed that fractured relationships were repaired when individuals adopted a positive attributional style, one that attributed fractures to external and temporary causes (Welbourne, Eggerth, Hartley, Andrew, & Sanchez, 2007). Eberly, Holley, Johnson, and Mitchell (2011) proposed a new construct—relational attribution—to describe explanations that locate the cause of a fracture within the relationship. In a subsequent test of this construct, they showed that relational attributions, but not internal or external attributions, are associated with relationship improvement behaviors (Eberly, Holley, Johnson, & Mitchell, 2017). In summary, positive and relational attributions provide a strong foundation from which to engage in relational sensemaking and to begin the process of relational repair.

Emotions and sensemaking. Although sensemaking has both an emotional and a cognitive component (Maitlis, Vogus, & Lawrence, 2013), the role that emotion plays in sensemaking is relatively underinvestigated (Schabram & Maitlis, 2017; Vogus, Rothman, Sutcliffe, & Weick, 2014). When emotions

are investigated, the focus is more typically on the role of negative emotions such as fear and anxiety, often at the individual rather than the collective level (Cornelissen, Mantere, & Vaara, 2014; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Because negative emotions narrow individuals' focus, prompt bottom-up information processing and restrict problem-solving (Fiedler, 2001; Forgas, 1998), it is likely that they also constrain sensemaking. This constraint is amplified as the intensity of negative emotions increases: intense emotions (e.g., panic) experienced in extreme settings can overwhelm sensemaking processes (e.g., Weick, 1993). Intense emotions interrupt thought processes, consume cognitive capacity, redirect attention to the emotion itself (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005) and drive attention away from the relationship. In a more mundane organizational context, psychological contracts may remain impaired or dissolve after breaches when the emotional impact is high, especially when there is limited postbreach organizational support (Solinger, Hofmans, Bal, & Jansen, 2016).

Specific negative emotions may also constrain the interpersonal sensemaking processes. For example, shame causes individuals to withdraw into a more solitary sensemaking process (Maitlis et al., 2013). Other research shows that negative emotions can take hold through a "ripple effect" in which they are more likely than positive emotions to be adopted by others, spread with increasing intensity, and build into a shared (negative) emotional state (Cornelissen et al, 2014). Yet, when emotions are skillfully managed, they can enhance collective sensemaking. Heaphy (2017) shows that mediators encourage perspective-taking when they manage emotions by crafting empathetic accounts that capture and reconcile the emotional state of all parties. Less often, mediators amplify negative emotions—develop inflaming accounts—and derail collective sensemaking. Similarly, Strike and Rerup (2016) illustrate how trusted advisors work to pause and redirect conflicts and dysfunctional sensemaking and, in doing so, create a basis for more constructive sensemaking and relational repair.

A smaller set of studies considers emotions that might support individual sensemaking because they support affiliative processes, that is, processes that are associated with an action tendency to care for others. Liu and Maitlis (2014) provide broad support for this idea, showing that a positive emotional tone overcomes negative events by drawing team members together and facilitating collaborative strategizing. Turning to discrete emotions, guilt is likely to create the desire to address harms done and to produce an account that leads to attempts to repair a relationship fracture (Tangney, 1999). Chen and Ayoko (2012) find among graduate business students that enthusiasm and guilt are both positively associated with constructive task conflict and attempts to redress wrongdoing in relationships. Finally, in a study of nurses and their patients, McCreaddie (2016) finds that spontaneous humor and specifically "harsh humor" helps to create conditions for both richer sensemaking and relational repair in difficult work conditions. Vogus et al. (2014) add an interesting possibility by theorizing that ambivalent emotions such as hope and doubt increase individuals' willingness to consider alternative perspectives.

Relational sensemaking. Like positive and relational attributions, relational sensemaking focuses on those forms of sensemaking that influence the ability to interpret the fracture in a manner that produces accounts amenable to relational repair. Our review identified several overlapping constructs that fit within the broader idea of relational sensemaking. Although each offers a slightly different view of this form of sensemaking, they all highlight the role of a prosocial and empathic orientation in aiding positive dyadic or collective interpretations of fracture. Wright, Manning, Farmer, and Gilbreath (2000), in describing the processes of resourceful sensemaking in groups, highlight the ability to perspective-take as a pre-requisite for an interpretation of fractures in a cooperative and mutual process that yields more creative and nuanced accounts of events that, in turn, repair and strengthen relationships. Dutton, Worline, Frost, and Lilius (2006) describe a related construct, compassion organizing, that highlights the importance of empathic concern for an individual's pain in providing a foundation for quicker and more holistic repair of relationships. Grant, Dutton, and Rosso (2008) identify prosocial sensemaking, a process through which personal and organizational actions (e.g., giving employee support) in response to fracture or other difficult circumstances restores personal and organizational identity as caring, creates feelings of gratitude, and renews commitment to an organization.

At the individual level, narrative processing of fractures can support a sensemaking process that is more compassionate, prosocial, and resourceful. For example, when individuals write about the personal benefits rather than the traumatic features of a transgression, they engage in more inclusive cognitive processing and give forgiving accounts (Barclay

& Saldanha; 2016; McCullough, Root, & Cohen, 2006). Conversely, when individuals develop risk narratives—accounts that emphasize the possibility of future fractures—they make a harsher evaluation of the relationship and show greater caution in accepting an offender's excuses and justifications (Boon & Holmes, 1999). Because fractures may result in identity threats (e.g., Lind, 2001), individuals can benefit from guided sensemaking that incorporates benefit-finding and self-affirmation to facilitate narrative processing and the creation of positive meaning (Sherman, 2013). Like McCullough et al. (2006), SimanTov-Nachleili, Schnabel, and Mori-Hoffman (2017) experimentally demonstrated that helping individuals to engage in identity-affirmation writing exercises after a conflict or transgression increased individuals' conciliatory tendencies on both the part of the victim and the transgressor.

Repairing Fractured Relationships

Relationships can, following a fracture, not only be restored to the status quo but can grow even stronger through positive adaptation. In this section, we elaborate on the two key components of relational repair—restoration and positive adaptation—and review the actions that enable dyads to either return their relationships to the status quo or to establish an upward trajectory after a relationship fracture (Maitlis, 2005; Richardson, 2002), that is, to display positive adaptation. Our review suggests that repair actions are considered successful when dyads reestablish positive mutuality, rebuild dyadic cohesion and increase relational commitment, and restore flexibility (Ferris, Liden, Munyon, Sommers, Basik, & Buckley, 2009; Kahn, Barton, & Fellows, 2013; Stephens, Heaphy, Carmeli, Spreitzer, & Dutton, 2012).

Relational restoration. According to the social balance model of relationships, fractures create relational imbalances in dyadic relationships (Brodt & Neville, 2013). The goal of repair actions is to reestablish positive evaluations of the relationship and to restore relational commitment (Andiappan & Trevino, 2011; Ferris et al., 2009; McCarthy, 2017; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016), as well as to restore social balance within the relationship (Andiappan & Trevino, 2010; Brodt & Neville, 2013; McCarthy, 2017). To accomplish these goals, both parties need to act to restore social balance and positively repair relationships (Berg & Upchurch, 2007). A clear consensus across the literature that we reviewed was that relational restoration requires acts of goodwill,

a commitment to the future of the relationship, and a willingness to preference constructive responses such as signaling an expectation of positive change over hurtful responses (Andiappan & Trevino, 2011; Brandau & Ragsdale, 2008; Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991). The actions that partners take may be synchronous, for example, when both parties engage in positive cognitive restructuring following a psychological contract breach (Bankins, 2015) or they may be asynchronous, for example, when an offender first apologizes and then the victim forgives (e.g., Fehr & Gelfand, 2010; Hannon, Rusbult, Finkel, & Kamashiro, 2010).

The goal of repair actions is to redress the relational injury created by perceived interpersonal transgressions (Bies, Barclay, Tripp, & Aquino, 2016). Most organizations have formal systems for addressing some—but not all—possible fracture triggers. For example, employees may lodge grievances when they experience discrimination, harassment, or other forms of mistreatment. It is unclear whether grievances redress the justice gap in a way that restores the relationship. McDonald, Charlesworth, and Cerise (2011) reported that grievances were most likely to result in negative consequences such as disciplinary action or dismissal for a harasser, and less likely to elicit apologies or result in compensation to the victim. These actions, although they address the transgression, are unlikely to restore the relationship because they do not necessarily require that the transgressor admits culpability, a precondition for restoring relationships (Ren & Gray, 2009). Even with the admission of culpability, sanctions and compensation redress the injustice gap in a very limited way by tangibly offsetting harm. These actions may provide a guarantee of the transgressors' future behavior (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017) and, although they may reestablish basic trust, they are unlikely to fully restore the relationship (Bies et al., 2016; Dirks, Kim, Ferrin, & Cooper, 2011).

For a relationship to return to the status quo, the actions that one partner takes to restore social balance need to be accepted by the other partner. Repair efforts are more readily accepted and a return to the status quo is more likely if the actions of one partner increase the other person's positive affect (Gottman, Driver, & Tabares, 2015). Positive affect is increased by actions that create emotional closeness, that accept responsibility for conflict, or that disrupt an argumentative cycle by changing topic, especially when taken in the first three minutes of a conflict (Gottman et al., 2015). West, Patera, and Carsten (2009) also show that shared positivity is most

effective at building relationships in the early stages of relationship development. Transgressors may also intervene in the immediate aftermath of a fracture by offering an explanation that shifts attributions about the offense from a dispositional to a situational cause to mitigate perceived injustice and begin the repair process (Ren & Gray, 2009; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009).

Concern for others (empathy) and apologies more directly aim to restore relationships (Bies et al., 2016; Fehr & Gelfand, 2010). Apologies that signal other concern convey a prosocial orientation and those that recognize harm and express remorse signal a desire to preserve the relationship (Aquino, Grover, Goldman, & Folger, 2003; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; McCullough, Worthington, & Rachal, 1997; Ren & Gray, 2009). They invite forgiveness and foster adaptive coping (Andiappan & Trevino, 2011; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Wenzel & Okimoto, 2014), paving the way for a return to the status quo.

Forgiveness provides a unifying theme for understanding how a range of actions can enable relational repair. Minimally, it aids a return to the status quo by inhibiting interpersonally destructive impulses such as revenge (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999; McCullough et al., 1997), and by encouraging victims to act in favor of long-term interests such as mending their relationship with the transgressor (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Finkel & Campbell, 2001). It also removes negative thoughts and feelings toward the transgressor (Aquino et al., 2003) in the hope of restoring the relationship (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). Indeed, relational forgiveness may act as a critical mechanism allowing work relationships to be restored after transgressions (Thompson & Ravlin, 2016).

Relational adaptation. For relationships to be less vulnerable to future fractures, dyads need not just to restore their relationships to the status quo but also to develop behavioral routines that will allow them to respond flexibly and creatively to those fractures (Ferris et al., 2009; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). In fact, Coutu (2002) identifies the ability to improvise as a key characteristic of resilient individuals and links this ability to inventiveness in the face of problems. Surprisingly, little research has examined the idea of flexible responding and improvisation in dyads. Related ideas are evident, however, in the negotiation literature. Pruitt and Rubin (1994) argue that "firm flexibility" holds the key to problem-solving and mutually beneficial outcomes. This concept embodies the idea of improvisation; in that, it proposes individuals should—while remaining committed to their goals—be flexible about how

those goals are attained. Without linking it to outcomes, McGinn and Keros (2002) show that negotiating pairs rapidly converge to a shared script and improvise within that script to move the negotiation past obstacles and toward agreement. For negotiators, improvisation offers the benefits of adapting to new information and redirecting negotiations from conflict and fracture toward more constructive, problem-solving trajectories (Balanchandra, Brodone, Menkel-Meadow, Ringstrom, & Sarath, 2005).

Improvisation facilitates problem-solving, an essential precursor to the initiation and maintenance of an upward relational trajectory. For example, in families, the resilience of the family unit is determined by the capacity of all of its members to engage in problem-solving (MacPhee, Lunkenheimer, & Riggs, 2015). This finding is consistent with team research that highlights the role of flexible interaction patterns and a general ability to move from existing routines to more active and flexible thinking as critical to effective crisis responses (Lei, Waller, Hagen, & Kaplan, 2016; Lundberg & Rankin, 2014). Collective (and dyadic) improvisation, in turn, is supported by the development of shared mental models (Cannone & Aucoutourier, 2016; Magni & Masruping, 2013; Vera, Nermanich, Velez-Castillon, & Werner, 2016), reinforcing Petriglieri's (2015) finding that upward trajectories are cocreated. This research demonstrates the role that improvisation plays in developing the novel responses to unexpected events that help dyads to heal fractures and establish upward relational trajectories: active and constructive responses such as problem-solving, for example, predict greater postfracture relationship satisfaction (e.g., Finkel et al., 2017; Lundberg & Rankin, 2014; Magni & Masruping, 2013; Vera et al., 2016).

FOUNDATIONS OF RELATIONAL RESILIENCE

Fractures create a moment of "ripeness" within dyadic relationships: a point at which a relationship can transition to a new state (Coleman, 1997; Six & Skinner, 2010; Tripp et al., 2007). For relationships to make this transition, individuals and dyads need to establish a mutual and positive interpretation of the fracture (Bottom et al. 2002; Finkel et al., 2017; Okimoto & Wenzel, 2014; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). Our review identified two preconditions—relational foundations—for positive attributional and sensemaking processes: dyadic unity and dyadic trust. Individuals and dyads then need to take action to restore the relationship to its prefracture state or to develop new behavioral routines that

decrease vulnerability to future fractures. We identified two preconditions—reparative foundations—that support relational repair: positive affective climate and relational commitment (Finkel et al., 2017; Rusbult et al., 1991).

Relational Foundations

Fractures are embedded in a dyad's history, shaping how relational partners interact in the moment. Their history defines the quality of the relationship before the fracture and is critical to a dyad's willingness to invest and engage in repair efforts (e.g., Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). Although a prior high-quality relationship should support relationship repair, it can also exacerbate the impact of a fracture by amplifying feelings of betrayal (Restubog, Bordia, Tang, & Krebs, 2010). For example, psychological contract breaches can be especially impactful when individuals have a high-quality relationship with their leader or the organization (Robinson, 1996). Similar dynamics are evident when there are service recovery failures in a previously high-quality customer–employee relationship: when a clear attribution of fault in a previously high-quality relationship deepens the fracture and makes repair less likely (Holloway, Wang, & Beatty, 2009).

The effects of prior history are positive and conducive to relational repair and resilience when characterized by positive relational cognition, a "behavioral bank account" in which past positive interactions outweigh past negative interactions and enable individuals within a relationship to highlight virtues and minimize faults (Murray & Holmes, 1999). Within relationships, successful adaptation to stressful events buffers relationships against future stress (Neff & Broady, 2011), and dyads that have overcome fractures in the past report stronger and more stable relationships than those that have not (Beuhlman, Gottman, & Katz, 1992). Our review shows that dyads are more likely to favor positive interpretations of a fracture and develop a redemption narrative (McAdams, Reynolds, Lewis, Patten, & Bowman, 2001) when their behavioral bank account is based on a past history of dyadic unity and dyadic trust.

Dyadic unity. When individuals define themselves in terms of their relationships with others, they emphasize maintaining those relationships and engage in behaviors that strengthen social connections (Cross, Morris, & Gore, 2002). We use the term dyadic unity to encompass research on dyad-level attributes characterized by shared knowledge, shared values, and an emphasis on relational goals. Related constructs such as relational coordination and "we-ness" (viewing the dyad as a cohesive unit) suggest that shared goals and shared knowledge are central to the sense of dyadic unity (Afifi, Merrell, & Davis, 2016; Gildersleeve, Singer, Skerrett, & Wein, 2017; Gittell, 2002; Rouse, 2018). The common ground that characterizes dyads—their shared experiences and values—further contributes to a sense of dyadic unity (Priem & Nystrom, 2014).

Dyadic unity influences the sensemaking process in the immediate aftermath of a fracture. In developing their theory of resilience and relational load, Afifi et al. (2016) propose—and subsequently demonstrate—that dyadic unity fosters more benevolent and external attributions following a fracture. Supporting this finding, other research shows that dyadic unity fosters a more positive framing of fractures (Beuhlman et al., 1992), and results in more positive and optimistic attributions about fractures (Gildersleeve et al., 2017). In summary, greater dyadic unity fosters positive attributions, more open communication, and problem-solving after a relationship fracture. When it is affirmed in the moments after a fracture, dyadic unity also increases willingness to accept repair efforts (Gottman et al., 2015).

Dyadic trust. Because workplace relationships are interdependent, high-quality relationships depend on each party trusting the other (Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2015). Several recently developed dyad-level constructs, including mutual trust, capture the bi-directional nature of trust in interdependent relationships. Mutual trust describes relationships in which individuals have a common understanding of the level of trust that each has in the other (Korsgaard et al., 2015). Although both individual and dyadic trust play an important role in buffering relationships against the harmful interpersonal effects of adversity (Cacioppo et al., 2011), maximum benefits are obtained when dyads are characterized by high mutual trust. For example, mutual trust has been identified as critical to high-quality leader–member exchange relationships (e.g., Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). Among coworkers, reciprocal high trust increases willingness to share resources (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2009).

Immediately following a fracture, both high unilateral and high mutual trust influence the sensemaking process. When individuals within a relationship are more focused on their relationship, they hold more positive expectations of the other person and are more willing to make positive attributions (Kim, Weisberg, Simpson, Orina, Farrell, & Johnson, 2015).

Individuals who have high trust in their partners make more generous interpretations of fractures, recalling them as less severe and damaging than individuals who have low trust in their partners (Luchies et al., 2013; Robinson, 1996). This positive skew in attributions is strongest when individuals have just recalled a disappointing situation (Holmes & Rempel, 1989; Murray & Holmes, 1999), demonstrating the positive buffering effects of high trust following a fracture. In summary, the evidence shows that dyads are most likely to make positive attributions—and increase their chance of withstanding fractures—when they are characterized by mutual high trust.

Reparative Foundations

Reparative foundations identify the characteristics that motivate and support dyads in their fracture repair efforts. Our review identifies two such characteristics: the ability of dyads to establish shared positive affect and their relational commitment. Dyads with these characteristics are better able to overcome fractures and either restore the status quo by returning the relationship to its prefracture state or by laying the groundwork for positive adaptation.

Shared positive affect. Positive emotions serve several important functions that enhance individuals' ability to overcome adversity: they foster affiliation, support social bonding and social relationships (Quaglia, Goodman, & Warren Brown, 2015; Spoor & Kelly, 2004; van der Schalk et al., 2011), and enable the "downregulation" of negative emotions (Fredrickson, 2001). In two studies, Niven, Holman, and Totterdell (2012) find that attempts to improve a target's affect result in changes to their affect and the maintenance of high-quality relationships. Positive emotions also are critical for the expansion of dyads' behavioral repertoires in ways that address fractures and enable them to build capacity for responding to future fractures (Ferris et al., 2009; Neff & Broady, 2011; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). In long-term relationships, an emotional bank account of positive, shared experiences increases the likelihood that dyads will survive fractures (Feeney & Lemay, 2012).

A positive emotional climate, by supporting relationship-protecting behaviors, creates a platform from which dyads can repair their relationships. Positive emotions predict a more flexible and creative approach to unforeseen events, such as relationship fractures, and individuals' ability to repair their own emotions plays a critical role in their

willingness to forgive after a fracture (Burke, Stagl, Salas, Pierce, & Kendall, 2006; Rizkalla, Wertheim, & Hodgson, 2008). These individual-level effects are strengthened by dyad- and group-level affect: teams are more effective when they are characterized by homogenous positive affect (Kaplan, LaPort, & Waller, 2013), have higher cohesion when they start with a high level of team optimism (West et al., 2009), and report greater social support when they have perceived emotional synchrony (Paez, Rime, Basabe, Wlodarczyk, & Zumeta, 2015).

Positive emotions are critical for allowing dyads to expand their behavioral repertoire in ways that address fractures and enable them to build capacity for responding to future fractures (Ferris et al., 2009; Neff & Broady, 2011; Thompson & Ravlin, 2016). When team members have high positive affect, they are better able to respond to unexpected events, such as fractures (Elliott & Macpherson, 2010), and display greater resilience (Sommer, Howell, & Hadley, 2016). Shared group affect, the feelings that characterize a group (Barsade, 2002; Menges & Kilduff, 2015), also yield benefits. A recent meta-analysis showed that positive group affect increases social integration and improves task performance (Knight & Eisenkraft, 2015) and affective homogeneity within teams yields stronger interpersonal bonds (Kaplan et al., 2013). Teams with high collective emotional intelligence—a team's collective ability to regulate emotional processes—are less likely to move from task conflict to more irreconcilable relationship conflict (Curşeu, Boroş, & Oerlemans, 2012; van den Berg, Curseu, & Meeus, 2014). Similarly, dyads that have greater emotional capital are protected against a decrease in relational satisfaction and have a stronger foundation for overcoming relationship fractures (Feeney & Lemay, 2012; Madhyastha, Hamaker, & Gottman, 2011).

Relational commitment. High-commitment relationships are characterized by investment in and a long-term orientation toward the relationship and concern for partners' interests (Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998). These characteristics suggest that the relational perseverance associated with high-commitment relationships establishes a strong motivation to overcome fractures. And, dyads' willingness to continue striving toward longer term relational goals—relational perseverance—underpins their ability to overcome fractures (e.g., Finkel et al., 2017). In close relationships, perseverance supports relationship improvement behaviors following a fracture (Eberly et al., 2017) and, in negotiations, resistance to yielding encourages negotiators to persist through

setbacks and to engage in problem-solving (e.g., Ben-Yoav & Pruitt, 1984).

A central component of perseverance is the long-term focus on goals. This focus promotes a broader perspective and is likely to prime higher level goals such as fostering positive relationships (e.g., Rosen, Koopman, Gabriel, & Johnson, 2016). Importantly, the long-term orientation associated with high-commitment relationships leads to increased forgiveness behavior following a perceived betrayal (see Rusbult, Agnew, & Arriaga, 2012 for a review). Consistent with the greater emphasis on positive relationships, a long-term orientation encourages partners to overlook interpersonal offenses and increases their willingness to forgive those offenses (McCullough et al., 1997). This broader perspective also increases the likelihood that victims will accept apologies as expressions of regret and will not look for additional mitigating information about the interpersonal offense (van Houwelingen, van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2017).

Perseverance also encourages individuals to interpret the fracture as an opportunity to develop and implement new behavioral plans, that is, to display behavioral flexibility (Jamison, Coleman, Ganog, & Feistman, 2014; Neff & Broady, 2011), which in turn predicts greater postfracture relationship satisfaction (Finkel et al., 2017). The greater cognitive flexibility associated with a future focus encourages adaptive coping, a positive reappraisal of conflicts that includes greater insight and forgiveness and contributes to relationship well-being (Hunyh, Yang, & Grossman, 2016; Rizvi & Bobocel, 2016). This broader perspective also prevents downward trajectories: Rosen et al. (2016) show that employees who experience workplace incivility are less likely to reciprocate with incivility when they hold abstract rather than concrete construals of the event. Overall, the broader perspective associated with a future focus (higher level construal) strengthens partners' motivation and ability to overcome relationship fractures (Finkel, Rusbult, Kumashiro, & Hannon, 2002).

RELATIONAL RESILIENCE: INSIGHTS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Our critical review of multiple literature works highlighted the disconnected nature of research and theory on the topic of relational resilience. Each of the literature works that we reviewed provided insight into only one part of the overall process that underpins relational resilience. By integrating these literature works, we were able to provide a unified definition of relational resilience and its key sub-components (relationship fracture and relational repair). We then developed a conceptual framework for better understanding the preconditions for relational resilience and the processes by which dyads recover from relationship fractures. Although the literature works that we reviewed imply a causal chain in the relational resilience process because there is little crossover between these research streams, our review showed that this causal chain remains an untested possibility. By identifying potential connections between discrete components of the resilience process, our review provided a foundation for integrated theorizing and future empirical work about how relationships fracture and are repaired.

Balancing and Realigning Emotions

Absent the integration offered by our review, prior work offers only a partial, and sometimes seemingly conflicting, understanding of the central role of emotion in building resilience. By synthesizing prior work, we provide new insights about how the interpretation and expressions of emotions determines the development of a relational resilience trajectory. For example, theorizing about relational resilience from a sensemaking perspective suggests that dyadic partners' ability to express both positive and negative emotions while simultaneously emphasizing the positive over the negative elements of their emotions is critical to positive sensemaking and, eventually, to fracture repair (Maitlis et al., 2013; Petriglieri, 2015; Stephens et al., 2012; Yang & Mossholder, 2004). In contrast, the forgiveness and conflict literature works highlight the need to mitigate negative emotions before positive emotions can surface, although also demonstrating that for maximum benefit, positive emotions need to be expressed immediately after a fracture (Gottman et al., 2015; West et al., 2009). Considering these perspectives side-by-side highlights a tension in assumptions about the extent to which negative emotions should be expressed and whether positive or negative emotions should be expressed first. Yet, taking a step back, we can see that these literature works focus on the role of emotions at different stages of the resilience process. Thus, although prior research consistently established the need to express both positive and negative emotions, our integration of these literature works offers the insight that effective emotion management may differ depending on

whether dyadic partners are interpreting or repairing fractures. We do not, as yet, have a coherent account of how the timing and balance of emotional expressions shapes a relational resilience trajectory.

Although we highlighted shared positive affect as a precursor to fracture repair, relatively little research has explored how two emotion-based processes—emotion realignment and emotional contagion—influence fracture repair. Despite evidence that dyadic partners' ability to jointly restore positive affect is critical to postfracture recovery because it increases the emotional stability of both relational partners (Butler & Randall, 2013; MacPhee et al., 2015), little is known about the process by which dyadic partners, who may have experienced different emotional responses to a fracture, realign their emotions to reestablish a positive affective climate. Limited research suggests that—at least in some contexts—one party may be more influential than the other in shaping a dyad's affective tone and that establishing and maintaining shared positive emotions may be role dependent (Olekalns, Brett, & Donohue, 2010). Research also points to the possibility that dyadic partners may realign their emotions to establish a negative affective climate with the consequence that relationships are fractured beyond the point of repair (e.g., Friedman, Brett, Anderson, Olekalns, Goates, & Lisco, 2004). In addition to highlighting our limited understanding of how emotional realignment occurs (and converges toward a positive affective tone), our review identifies two avenues for future research. The first, conceptual, avenue is to obtain greater clarity about when and how the relational foundations and attributional processes that we described result in realignment that recovers a positive affective tone. The second, methodological, avenue is the need to use actor–partner interdependence models to gain greater understanding of when and whether symmetric or asymmetric repair actions are more effective and the extent to which effective repair is role dependent (e.g., Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012).

Synchronizing Attributions and Cognitions

By bringing together insights from experimental and field research on dyadic cognition after relationship fractures, our review illuminates *how* attributional processes aid repair and relational resilience through shared recognition and interpretation of a fracture. On this point, we highlight the likelihood that discrepant or largely negative interpretations of a fracture impede subsequent repair processes

(e.g., Zheng, Van Dijke, Leunissen, Giurge, & De Cremer, 2016): relational resilience is less likely when perceptions of a fracture are asymmetrical either because only one individual perceives the fracture or because dyadic partners differ in the perceived longer term impact of the fracture on their relationship. It is, therefore, essential that dyadic partners converge to a positive interpretation of the fracture on the way to crafting a relational narrative that supports fracture repair. The integration of experimental and field research provides insight into this process, suggesting an interpretive cycle in which positive attributions at the point of fracture make positive emotions more salient and that the emergence of these positive emotions in turn promotes the creation of a longer term, relational narrative. Absent our synthesis of otherwise disconnected literature works, the exact role that this interpretive cycle and attributions play in the repair process was unclear.

The attribution and sensemaking literature works imply, but less often investigate, how partners might reestablish a shared interpretation of the fracture. Despite the implication, found in discussions of collective sensemaking, that groups and dyads do work together to construct a narrative of fractures, sensemaking research relevant to relational resilience primarily focuses on narrative processing by individuals. A notable exception is Wright et al.'s (2000) construct of resourceful sensemaking, which explicitly addresses the importance of mutuality in relational sensemaking. The need to better understand how dyadic partners align their perceptions of relationship fractures provides three avenues for future research. First, we need to test whether the relational sensemaking processes that we identified needs to be dyadic, and convergent, to support postfracture repair. Second, we need to identify the mechanisms through which relationally oriented individual cognition (i.e., sensemaking about the other's actions) moves toward dyadic cognition (i.e., our shared understanding of what happened). Third, our understanding of fracture repair would benefit from an assessment of whether all forms of relational sensemaking—compassionate, prosocial, resourceful—are equally effective in supporting postfracture repair.

Contingencies of Effective Repair

By providing greater clarity about the differential and interactive impact of individual factors on relationship repair, our review provides a more realistic and nuanced understanding of the relational resilience process. Fehr and Gelfand (2010), for

example, propose that the efficacy of repair strategies is influenced by individuals' self-construals,: whereas accounts may be better able to repair relationships when individuals have an independent self-construal, apologies may be better able to repair relationships when individuals have an interdependent self-construal. Other research establishes the role-dependent nature of apologies and forgiveness: transgressors and victims have different expectations about when apologies should be offered (Leunissen, De Cremer, Reinders Folmer, & Van Dijke, 2013), and in power asymmetric relationships, apologies from high-power transgressors have little or no impact on low-power victims' willingness to forgive (Zheng et al., 2016). Taken together, these findings suggest that the relationship between fracture and repair is more nuanced than is often portrayed in the extensive forgiveness literature. Specifically, the integration of these findings suggests a contingent model of relational repair in which the effectiveness of specific repair mechanisms is determined by both individual and dyadic attributes.

We also bring to light the role that relational maturity plays in the fracture repair process. In general, relationships are strengthened when the recall of past positive events outweighs the recall of past negative events (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Beuhlmann et al., 1992; Murray & Holmes, 1993). This emphasis of "good" over "bad" events provides the context for interpreting a specific fracture. Mature relationships offer dyadic partners a broader perspective for interpreting a specific fracture than that offered by newly formed, less mature relationships. Consequently, dyadic partners in mature relationships are able to reappraise a specific fracture as a negative element embedded within a long-term relationship and counterbalanced by positive elements in the relationship (Pratt & Dirks, 2007), that is, to positively skew the balance in their behavioral bank accounts. This broader perspective is not available to dyadic partners in less mature relationships and, absent a shared history that provides this broad perspective, dyads may struggle to reinterpret fractures in a positive light. Consequently, how fractures are interpreted and repaired may be contingent on relational maturity (Boon & Holmes, 1991; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Despite the implication that the ways in which fractures are interpreted and repaired is a function of relational maturity, this possibility largely remains implied. Specifically, we need to better understand the process by which dyads are able to make salient the positive aspects in their shared history and to downplay the negative aspects of their shared history.

Fracture Pathways and Relational Repair

By incorporating the form of the fracture into our conceptual framework of relational resilience, our review goes beyond prior scattered descriptions of relational fractures as gradual or abrupt. Our review showed broad agreement across literature works that gradual and abrupt fractures differ in their immediacy, salience, and even synchrony of perception. Kahn et al. (2018), for example, propose that abrupt shocks tend to elicit synchronized experiences and responses among organizational members, whereas gradual drift can lead to inter-organizational group divergences. Despite the broad agreement that gradual and abrupt fractures differ on several important dimensions, we identified a marked lack of research investigating how these differences affect repair processes. Given that gradual and abrupt fractures are experienced differently, it is plausible that the effectiveness of repair tactics may depend on the pathway by which a fracture develops. However, there is a disconnection in the literature between the differentiation of gradual and abrupt fractures, and the subsequent discussion of relationship repair processes. In summary, our review revealed a surprising lack of cumulative and systematic research investigating how different fracture pathways influence the interpretation of fractures and the effectiveness of fracture repair. On this basis, we identified the need to consider how differences in immediacy and salience influence when and how fractures are effectively repaired.

Although the relationship between fracture type and fracture repair has not yet received direct empirical attention, our integration of relevant literature uncovered discrepant views on the relationship between fracture type and fracture repair. Whereas the close relationship literature suggests that the same factors influence relational resilience irrespective of whether a fracture is internal (e.g., unmet expectations and conflicts) or external (e.g., job loss and life-threatening illness) to the relationship, the trust literature suggests that fractures may be more readily repaired when attributed to external events (Kramer & Lewicki, 2010; Tomlinson & Mayer, 2009), and that past history is more heavily weighted in the willingness to repair fractures that call the underlying relationship into question (McCullough et al., 1997; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004). These divergent findings provide a clear indication that the nature of fracture triggers will likely influence repair processes and warrant future empirical examination. We conclude that there is a need to

refine our understanding of the attributions made about fractures, focusing not just on whether they are positive or negative but also on factors such as the locus and intentionality of the fracture. It may then be insightful to test the relationships among this expanded attributional typology, dyad-level dynamics, including power dynamics, and the effectiveness of specific repair actions.

Trajectories of Repair

Our review also helps to shed light on the often overlooked role of time in the process of relational resilience. In particular, the framework resulting from our review is flexible in that it allows for the possibility, pointed out in recent research, that the process of relational repair need not be linear (Solinger et al., 2016). In doing so, our integration of the literature highlights the importance of better understanding the temporal patterns that underpin successful repair attempts, for example, by comparing the conditions that contribute to a linear rather than a more complex nonlinear trajectory of resilience and growth. Potential time delays in the emergence of positive adaptation (Bonanno, 2004) mean that the mechanisms that most effectively repair fractures may not be immediately apparent: successful short-term repair efforts may not be lasting and effective repair mechanisms may not emerge in the immediate aftermath of a fracture. Studies of resilience that focus on short time periods may overlook effective longer term repair strategies (e.g., Kaplan et al., 2013; Mafabi, Munene, & Ahiauzu, 2013). Our review identified a strong emphasis on immediate, short-term repair efforts and a neglect of the dynamics that might influence relationship repair and the emergence of resilient relationships over time. Longitudinal research that reflects the long-term nature of most dyadic and team relationships is needed to better understand the role of time in the development of relational resilience.

Conversely, we also need to better understand how downward relational spirals might be triggered by either gradual or abrupt fractures. We can gain some insight into the creation and maintenance of downward spirals from the analysis of cycles of incivility. In these cycles, targets of incivility are likely to experience heightened negative emotions (Aquino et al., 2006) and to engage in a range of dysfunctional behaviors (Bies & Tripp, 2005) that decrease dyadic performance. These responses to the initial transgression can be directed at the perceived transgressor or others in the organization (Mawritz et al., 2012) and

are likely to elicit retaliatory actions from the target that further damage relationships (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Gallus, Bunk, Matthews, Barnes-Farrell, & Magley, 2014). Although incivility spirals suggest that a fracture can have ongoing negative repercussions, our review identified the need for a broader theoretical framework and further empirical evidence to provide insight into how downward relational spirals are created and sustained and the impact that fracture type (gradual vs. abrupt) has on whether and how this spiral can be reversed.

Reciprocal Relationships

In clarifying the importance and dynamic interrelationship of cognitive processes (e.g., sensemaking) and related relational cognitive states (e.g., trust), our framework also provides the novel insight of the potential importance of reciprocal dynamics in the relational resilience process. Currently, these are an untested possibility. There is, for example, the suggestion of a reciprocal relationship between dyadic unity and dyadic trust. Tomlinson et al. (2009) propose that high mutual trust facilitates communication because it establishes a shared mental model, and Kim et al. (2015) show that perspective-taking is impaired when one partner has low trust in the other. Similarly, the literature implies, but does not test, the more complex relationship among trust, attributions, and dyadic unity. Limited research shows that in two very different contexts (an army expedition and a negotiation), concern about trustworthiness early in the relationship increases the likelihood of negative attributions about others' actions and, over time, contributes to the erosion of trust (Olekalns & Smith, 2005; Priem & Nystrom, 2014). Whereas low initial trust starts a cycle of suspicion and decreased trust, high initial trust leads to positive attributions and increased cohesion (Korsgaard et al., 2015). A more systematic exploration of the reciprocal relationships between dyadic trust, attributions, and dyadic unity is warranted.

Both dyadic unity and dyadic trust (relational foundations) have a direct impact on dyads' willingness to repair fractures by supporting perspective-taking, flexible problem-solving, and improvisation. High dyadic unity increases dyad members' willingness to communicate during a fracture, enabling dyads to share information, to engage in perspective-taking, to coordinate an adaptive response to the fracture, and also enhancing the ability to learn from failure (Afifi et al., 2016; Carmeli, Brueller, & Dutton, 2009; Carmeli & Gittell, 2009; Gildersleeve

et al., 2017; Meneghel, Martinez, & Salanova, 2016). It also fosters more positive emotions, providing a platform for dyadic problem-solving (Gildersleeve et al., 2017). Rouse (2018) identifies the importance of "we-ness"—dyadic unity—to a dyad's ability to craft joint responses to moments in which problem-solving stalls (also, Vera et al., 2016). Kim, Wang, and Chen (2018) report that high dyadic trust enhances interpersonal facilitation, that is, considerate and collaborative behaviors. Similarly, high mutual trust between leaders and their subordinates increases the emphasis that dyads place on common interests and cooperation (Doz, Olk, & Ring, 2002). As yet, we lack a systematic investigation of the direct relationship between relational and reparative foundations.

Our review also revealed that fracture and repair are typically treated as episodic: as isolated events that are assessed independently of a dyad's past history. One consequence of this episodic approach is that research has been biased toward exploring fractures triggered by abrupt shocks rather than fractures arising from gradual drift. However, as Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) note, because many of our relationships are long term, they are better characterized by an ongoing cycle of adjustment and repair. Viewing fracture-repair episodes as embedded within a relationship's history suggests that how dyads make sense of an abrupt shock will depend upon relational foundations and how they resolve that shock will redefine the relational foundation going forward (e.g., Miller & Rempel, 2004; Rempel et al., 2001). The impact of gradual strains is less well understood, and there is a need for the analysis of how small violations accumulate to the point that they are noticed and result in fracture; there is also a need to better understand whether the relational injury and subsequent repair efforts differ for fractures triggered by gradual drifts and abrupt shocks. A related question is whether there is a point at which the accumulation of fractures exceeds a dyad's ability to implement effective repairs. In other words, as Rudolph and Repenning (2002) found for organizations, can the accumulation of even small violations preclude effective repair and adaptation?

CONCLUSION

Based on our integration of several previously disparate literature works, we set out a conceptual framework for understanding relational resilience. We hope that this framework, which identifies several implied but as yet untested relationships, motivates researchers to "connect the dots" between the core attributes of the relational resilience process. The temporal aspect of relational resilience proved to be a common thread through various literature works and emerged as a central insight from our review. Integrating findings from several literature works highlighted the need to better understand the role of time, including when positive and negative emotions should be expressed, how relational maturity might affect the interpretation of fractures, and the time span over which fractures emerge and are repaired. We encourage scholars to carefully consider their conceptual and empirical treatment of time in researching relational resilience. Our focus on the need for joint sensemaking provided insight into dyad-level dynamics of relational repair, drawing attention to the possibility that repair efforts may be asymmetric, and that their effectiveness may be influenced by role and context. Consequently, our understanding of relational resilience will be advanced by the use of data analytic techniques that can account for these nuances in the repair process. Finally, we highlighted the complementary perspectives that several related literature works bring to the study of relational resilience. We hope that the conceptual framework we developed based on these complementarities will inspire and support new lines of inquiry.

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