

## **Disposition activation during organizational change: A meta-analysis**

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### **Abstract**

How do dispositions affect an individual's attitudes and behaviors during organizational change? In this systematic and meta-analytic investigation, using data from 154 articles (168 independent samples), we classify a broad set of dispositions into a previously validated two-factor dispositional model. This model distinguishes between two dispositional factors that shed light on individuals' adaptation to change: positive self-concept and risk tolerance. Drawing from trait activation theory, we examine the magnitude of effects between each dispositional factor and various groups of outcomes: explicit change responses (e.g., resistance), well-being (e.g., stress), work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction), and work behaviors (e.g., job performance). We also evaluate the moderating effects of the change context (its stage, dimensions, and types), national context (cultural dimensions), and study design. To this end, we conducted multi-level meta-analyses using samples of employees who experienced organizational change. Our findings support the notion that during organizational change, positive self-concept and risk tolerance are valid predictors across outcome categories and demonstrate that positive self-concept is more strongly associated with several employees' change responses and work attitudes than risk tolerance. These associations vary depending on the type of outcome, the stage of change, the national cultural dimension, and the study design, and to a lesser degree, the dimension and type of change. Finally, we offer theoretical and empirical research directions for organizational change and personality scholars.

**Keywords:** Organizational change (micro); Meta-analysis; Person-environment fit

### **Disposition Activation During Organizational Change: A Meta-Analysis**

Given the ubiquity, significant costs, and high failure rates associated with organizational change, a large body of research has explored how organizations design, implement, and cope with change (e.g., Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). Change recipients (i.e., individuals experiencing change) are essential to the success of organizational change and their responses can make or break a change initiative (Bartunek et al., 2006). Because favorable employee responses to change can increase the likelihood of positive organizational outcomes, scholars have long been motivated to study the predictors of these responses. One such predictor is individuals' dispositions. Disposition refers to the generally stable propensity of individuals to exhibit a similar pattern of responses across different situations (Griffin, 2001). Dispositions are well-established and reliable predictors of employees' and managers' work outcomes (see the following meta-analyses: Chiaburu et al., 2011; Dudley et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2007; Kaplan et al., 2009; Tett et al., 1991; Wilmot et al., 2019; Zimmerman, 2008), and have been examined by scholars in numerous studies as predictors of responses to change (for a narrative review, see Vakola et al., 2013).

The nature of the relationships between various dispositions and an individual's responses during an organizational change may vary depending on the characteristics of the context in which change occurs. Different contexts are relevant to specific dispositions (e.g., Judge & Zapata, 2015; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000). Although the role of dispositions in organizational change has garnered substantial attention from researchers, knowledge of the relationships between dispositions and responses during change remains insufficiently integrated, which prevents scholars from gaining a comprehensive view of the state of the literature. The field would benefit from a holistic view of the work on dispositions during

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change. By integrating this work, we can also better understand the extent to which some dispositions are activated during organizational change contexts. Additionally, the characteristics of an organizational change, the cultural setting, and the research design vary greatly across studies in which these relationships have been examined. A comprehensive view of these relationships (i.e., dispositions and responses during change) across studies would allow for a comparison across different change contexts, national cultures, and study characteristics.

The central goal of this study is to provide a systematic, integrative, and meta-analytic review of previous empirical findings to improve our understanding of the role of dispositions in work responses during organizational change. As an integrative framework, we use a well-established higher-order dispositional model of coping with change, which suggests that two dispositional factors are crucial for self-regulation and adaptation during organizational change: positive self-concept and risk tolerance (Judge et al., 1999). The former disposition captures how individuals perceive themselves, whereas the latter pertains to individuals' proclivities to engage with their environments. We classify into this framework a broader set of change-related dispositions than have been previously considered, and meta-analytically examine the effects of the two dispositional factors on outcomes during change. Further, we rely on trait activation theory (TAT; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000) to develop predictions about how characteristics of the organizational change and national cultural context moderate the effects of change-related dispositions on outcomes during organizational changes. Additionally, we examine the moderating effects of two study design characteristics: (1) measurement source (i.e., single-source versus multiple-source) and (2) temporal separation of measures (i.e., data collection at a single point in time versus data collection at multiple points in time).

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This study makes two main contributions to the research on individual differences and organizational change. First, we expand our understanding of the role of individuals' dispositions during organizational change by offering an integrative model that encompasses most of the dispositions found to be relevant to organizational change (i.e., change-related dispositions). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first meta-analytic review to directly examine the overall relationship between employees' dispositions and change responses and work outcomes *during* organizational change. Thus, we complement and build on the narrative reviews in this area (Oreg et al., 2011; Rafferty et al., 2013; Vakola et al., 2013).

Second, we contribute to the literature on organizational change by conducting a systematic examination of the interaction between dispositions and situations in producing outcomes during change. We explore the moderating role of the (1) organizational change context (its stage, dimensions, and types), (2) country-level cultural values (power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, and indulgence), and (3) methodological characteristics (the measurement source—single-source versus multiple-sources—and the temporal separation of measures—single versus multiple points in time), on the relationship between change-related dispositions and responses during change. Here, we build on the work of researchers that have identified change-related contextual features which can influence how individuals respond to and make sense of change (e.g., stage of change, change magnitude; e.g., Isabella, 1990). The frequency and intensity of change in today's organizational life make understanding the role of dispositions not only theoretically important but also practically relevant.

**Individuals' Dispositions and Responses to Change**

During organizational change, an employee's environment is thrown into flux as new norms are imposed. Employees experience, appraise, and react directly to the change. These change responses are the ways in which individuals perceive and react to the organizational changes they face, and these have implications for both personal and work outcomes (for a review, see Oreg et al., 2011). In this study, we center on the effects of dispositions on three groupings of outcomes: (1) explicit change responses, (2) well-being, and (3) work outcomes (see Table 1 for a complete list of the individual-level outcomes we evaluate). The first grouping refers to responses that are explicitly about the change (*explicit change responses*), which includes (1) *valenced changes responses* (i.e., positive or negative cognitive, affective, and behavioral reactions directly to the change) and (2) *other changes responses*, including coping strategies and other perceptions about the change. The second grouping of outcomes is centered around employees' well-being. *Well-being* reflects both the presence of indicators of psychological adjustment, such as positive affect and happiness, as well as the absence of indicators of psychological maladjustment, such as negative affect, burnout, or stress (Houben et al., 2015; Portocarrero et al., 2020). The third grouping of outcomes (*work outcomes*) includes employee attitudes toward their organization, their perceptions, and their behaviors at work.

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Insert Table 1 about here  
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Individuals' dispositions inform their perceptions, decisions, and actions, including those formed during organizational change. Dispositions include personality traits, psychological states, motivational orientations, and personal values. Most research on the influence of

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dispositions on employee and organizational outcomes has been conducted in organizations presumably not undergoing change. Nevertheless, some of this research has been conducted in contexts of organizational change (e.g., Judge et al., 1999; Vakola et al., 2013). Given the constancy and ubiquity of organizational change in today's world, it would be useful both theoretically and practically to integrate and expand our understanding of the role of dispositions on individuals' responses *during* organizational change.

When considering the role of dispositions during organizational change, a key question arises about which dispositions are relevant in change contexts. Research of the numerous change-related dispositional predictors of outcomes points to two higher-order dispositions: positive self-concept and risk tolerance (Judge et al., 1999; Vakola et al., 2013). These meta-dispositions were first identified by Judge and colleagues (1999) in their study of the influence of dispositions on managerial responses to change. They examined the relationships between various dispositions and outcomes, including coping with change, extrinsic career outcomes, job attitudes, and job performance. Judge and colleagues first included a set of seven change-related dispositions. Using factor analysis, they found that the seven dispositions could be classified into the two overarching factors.

The first dispositional factor, positive self-concept, represents an individual's core evaluations of the self, and subsumes dispositions such as locus of control and self-efficacy. The second dispositional factor, risk tolerance, characterizes an individual's latent ability to deal with uncertainty, novel situations, and risk, and subsumes dispositions such as openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity. Although Judge and colleagues (1999) found both factors to be highly correlated with one another (.50), each of these provides specific explanatory power for the outcomes they examined. Positive self-concept and risk tolerance were equally predictive of

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managers' coping with change and job performance, but positive self-concept was a better predictor of managers' organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Partially consistent with Judge and colleagues' (1999) findings, a later narrative review of individual differences in the context of change identified that "a majority of the dispositions that have been included in studies of reactions to organizational change have to do with how individuals perceive themselves and their ability to cope with their environment" (Vakola et al., 2013, p. 109). The first group of dispositions that Vakola and colleagues' (2013) refer to closely corresponds with positive self-concept, and the second group is related to risk tolerance.

We first present a model of the two dispositional factors, accompanied by our expectations related to the associations between these two change-related dispositions and outcomes during organizational change. The model we present includes a broader array of dispositions than the ones identified by Judge and colleagues (1999), all of which have been examined in academic work on organizational change (see Table 2 for a list of definitions of change-related dispositions). Finally, we draw from a trait activation perspective (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000) to theorize about the moderating effect of contextual factors that may strengthen or weaken the disposition-outcome relationships (see Figure 1).

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Insert Figure 1 and Table 2 about here  
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### **Positive Self-Concept and Outcomes**

As noted above, positive self-concept is a higher-order factor that reflects how employees perceive themselves. It includes one's perception of self-worth, self-control, and the ability to maintain a positive image of the self in a given environment (Judge et al., 1999). When



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employees go through organizational change, they experience uncertainty that might threaten their self-perceptions. A positive self-concept provides an individual with the psychological resources needed to maintain positive self-perceptions, resiliency, and internal stability while experiencing the external turmoil associated with a change.

In its original conceptualization, positive self-concept emerged as a common latent factor indicated by four dispositions: locus of control, trait positive affect, self-esteem, and self-efficacy (Judge et al., 1999). Several studies have examined locus of control as an antecedent to employees' response to changes (Fried et al., 1996; Holt et al., 2007; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Näswall et al., 2005). Individuals with a strong internal locus of control are likely to perceive themselves as responsible for what happens to them, while those with a strong external locus of control see outside forces as the causes of outcomes (Rotter, 1966). Trait positive affect reflects individuals' tendency to experience positive emotions (Judge et al., 1999); it helps individuals maintain a positive image of the self and positive relationships with coworkers and others. Similarly, self-esteem, which reflects individuals' general evaluation of the self, also predicts the ability to cope with change and several other vital outcomes during change (Ashford, 1988). The fourth disposition is self-efficacy, or the "belief in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura, 1991, p. 3). It relates to how employees perceive themselves during organizational change because it provides the foundation for believing that they can manage new demands (e.g., Hornung & Rousseau, 2007).

Beyond the four dispositions that originally comprised positive self-concept, other dispositions are conceptually consistent and are strongly correlated with the four original dispositions that are part of positive self-concept (see Table 2 for the full list of dispositions). For example, emotional stability allows individuals to "remain calm and levelheaded when

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confronted with difficult, stressful, or changing situations” (Pulakos et al., 2002, p. 303).

Empirical evidence has found strong correlations between emotional stability and the four dispositions in positive self-concept (e.g., Alessandri et al., 2018; Morris et al., 2015). In addition, emotional stability is part of the core self-evaluations (CSE) factor (a dispositional factor similar to positive self-concept, which also includes locus of control, self-esteem, and self-efficacy as its dimensions; Judge et al., 1998).

Similarly, psychological capital (Luthans et al., 2007) is also associated with the positive self-concept factor, along with the four dispositions it encompasses (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience; each defined in Table 2). Psychological capital is defined as an individual’s positive psychological state of development (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 542). There is much content overlap between positive self-concept and psychological capital, another broad psychological resource related to change outcomes. In fact, both core self-evaluations and psychological capital contain self-efficacy. The other three components of psychological capital (optimism, hope, and resilience) are strongly related to the dispositions underlying positive self-concept (Luthans et al., 2007). Thus, individuals high in psychological capital can maintain a positive psychological state even during adverse events.

Managers and employees high in positive self-concept have a high degree of self-worth, are less likely to experience volatility during organizational change, are more likely to believe they are in control of their outcomes and are more likely to believe in their ability to accomplish goals than those low in positive self-concept (Judge et al., 2004). A high positive self-concept decreases adverse reactions to the hindrance stressors that arise during change by strengthening self-regulatory processes (Hirsh et al., 2009). It allows for positive adaptation to one’s altered surroundings by using psychological resources, capital, or assets (Pangallo et al., 2015).

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Managers' and employees' positive self-concept allows them to deal more effectively with potential threats to the self.

Positive self-concept and the dispositions that comprise it have been associated with several critical outcomes during organizational change. For example, positive self-concept indicators have been found to predict explicit change responses, such as commitment to change (Shin et al., 2012), readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007), or resistance to change (Ming-Chu & Meng-Hsiu, 2015). Positive self-concept has also been found to be strongly related to well-being indicators (e.g., Näswall et al., 2005), job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction: Fried et al., 1996), and work behaviors (e.g., job performance: Judge et al., 1999; turnover: Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002).

Given the preceding arguments and existing empirical findings, we expect positive self-concept to be positively associated with positively valenced change responses (e.g., commitment to change), well-being (e.g., positive affect), and essential work outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment, job performance). Similarly, positive self-concept should be inversely related to negatively valenced change responses (e.g., resistance to change), and work outcomes (e.g., turnover). In this study, we first seek to meta-analytically assess the validity of positive self-concept across outcomes during change. See Figure 1 for the direction of our expectations for each outcome.

*Hypothesis 1:* Positive self-concept is associated with employees' explicit change responses, well-being, and other work outcomes during organizational change.

### **Risk Tolerance and Outcomes**

Risk tolerance is an individual's ability to engage with novel situations, changing environments, uncertainty, and risk (Judge et al., 1999). Employees and managers with a strong tolerance of risk prefer novelty over routine, and they see ambiguous situations as opportunities

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for growth (Huang et al., 2014; Judge et al., 1999). When employees go through organizational change, they experience levels of uncertainty that might threaten their routines and shift their opportunities. Risk tolerance provides the individual with the psychological resources needed to seek out and engage with novelty in their environment.

The risk tolerance concept emerged as a latent factor indicated by three dispositions: openness to experience, risk aversion, and tolerance for ambiguity (Judge et al., 1999). Openness to experience is associated with perceptiveness, creativity, imagination, tolerance, and inquisitiveness (Goldberg, 1992). Risk aversion is an individual's tendency to avoid perceived threats. Individuals with strong risk aversion avoid taking chances and tend to be unhappy in situations that appear (or are) hazardous (Maehr & Videbeck, 1968), such as during organizational change. Finally, tolerance for ambiguity represents an individual's tendency "to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable [as opposed to threatening]" (Budner, 1962, p. 29).

Beyond these three dispositions, the personality literature includes other dispositions that reflect individuals' orientation toward novel situations, changing environments, uncertainty, and risk (see Table 2 for the full list of dispositions). For example, dispositional resistance to change (Oreg, 2003) has conceptual overlap with risk tolerance. It refers to an individual's tendency to prefer current organizational routines, to experience significant stress in response to a change, to be less able or willing to adjust when placed in new situations, and to have a short-term focus (i.e., be less able or willing to recognize any long-term benefits of a change; Oreg, 2003). Accordingly, it is strongly correlated with the other dispositions that we have categorized into risk tolerance (e.g., risk aversion, tolerance for ambiguity; Oreg, 2003). Several other dispositions can be similarly classified into the risk tolerance dimension: adaptability (Wang et al., 2011), conservation and openness to change values (Sverdlik & Oreg, 2009), dispositional

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skepticism (Stanley et al., 2005), dogmatism (Lau & Woodman, 1995), extraversion (Vakola et al., 2004), functional flexibility (Paulhus & Martin, 1988), need for growth (Alderfer, 1969), prevention and promotion focus (Koopmann et al., 2019), and rigidity (Naus et al., 2007), are all conceptually and empirically linked with the concept of risk tolerance.

Risk tolerance may drive individual engagement with an organizational change. Employees and managers high in risk tolerance may exhibit greater degrees of inspiration, imagination, and participation than those low in risk tolerance (Judge et al., 1999). Organizational changes may be perceived as desirable, with a potential for growth and advancement (Huang et al., 2014). Managers and employees high in risk tolerance can be flexible in the face of threatening changes and unexpected change-related stressors (Judge et al., 1999). Overall, individuals high in risk tolerance may be more willing and able to engage with the characteristic uncertainty of organizational change than individuals low in risk tolerance. During organizational change, risk tolerance allows individuals to be flexible and spot opportunities for further improvement, leading to increased adaptation to conditions of high uncertainty or adoption of altered routines.

Risk tolerance and its related dispositions have also been associated with several outcomes during organizational change. They are strongly associated with explicit change responses, such as commitment to change (Hornung & Rousseau, 2007), readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007), or resistance to change (Oreg & Berson, 2011). Risk tolerance also predicts well-being indicators (e.g., Ashford, 1988), job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction: Fried et al., 1996), and work behaviors (e.g., job performance: Judge et al., 1999; turnover: Caldwell et al., 2009). Thus, the indicators of risk tolerance are also strong predictors of responses to change and work outcomes during organizational change.

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As is the case with positive self-concept, we expect risk tolerance to be positively associated with positively valenced change responses, well-being, and work outcomes. It should also be inversely related to negatively valenced change responses and some work outcomes. Thus, we meta-analytically examine the validity of risk tolerance across outcomes during change. See Figure 1 for the direction of our expectations for each outcome.

*Hypothesis 2:* Risk tolerance is associated with employees' explicit change responses, well-being, and other work outcomes during organizational change.

Although we expect both dispositional factors to have an effect on outcomes during change, the relative magnitude of the effects and the relevance of each factor to the specific types of outcomes are unclear. We therefore ask:

*Research Question 1:* What are the differential effects of the two change-related dispositional factors on the various outcomes during organizational change?

### **Change Context and the Disposition–Outcome Relationships**

It is well established that the effects of dispositions on outcomes can vary significantly across contexts. To examine the role of the change context in explaining variability in the disposition–outcome relationships during organizational changes, we build on a trait activation perspective (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000). From a trait activation theory (TAT) perspective, certain situations are relevant to and activate specific dispositions (e.g., Judge & Zapata, 2015). Trait activation has been attributed to “situation–trait relevance” (Tett et al., 2021, p. 225). There are at least two reasons for trait activation: first, individuals are accustomed to making decisions shaped by their dispositional tendencies (i.e., the force of habit), and second, individuals derive intrinsic satisfaction from an environment that demands their specific dispositions (Tett et al., 2021). When individuals face trait-relevant cues in the context of

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organizational change, their change-related dispositions are activated, and this activation directly affects their attitudes and behaviors.

A change context is relevant to a disposition to the degree it offers an individual the opportunity to express that disposition. For example, employees high in risk tolerance will display openness to change only ahead of or during organizational change. Therefore, that disposition is not likely to be activated to the same extent in relatively stable contexts. Thus, when individuals encounter organizational change, dispositions that are related to the notion of change (e.g., positive self-concept, risk tolerance) become activated. A positive self-concept can help individuals weather an “organizational change storm,” and a high level of risk tolerance may make individuals more open to experiencing the storm to begin with.

Specifically, key factors within the context of organizational change that would likely activate change-related dispositions are the phase or stage of change (e.g., anticipatory versus implementation), the structural dimensions of the change (e.g., the scope of the change), the type of change (e.g., technological change, a merger, a re-location), as well as the broader environment within which the change is taking place (e.g., national culture). Consistent with a trait activation perspective, we can expect the magnitude of the change to be directly related to the association between change-related dispositions and outcomes. That is, strong or intense change contexts will activate change-related dispositions to a greater extent than weak or less intense changes. We draw from the concept of change magnitude to examine whether the stages, structural dimensions, or types of changes influence the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes during organizational change.

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### *Stages of Organizational Change*

Individuals react differently to the events they experience throughout the unfolding of an organizational change (for stages of change, see Isabella, 1990). During the early stages of change, individuals sift through disconnected pieces of information to start making sense of a change (Paulsen et al., 2005). These pieces of information include the formal announcement and rumors about the change, and they will reconcile these against their own past experiences. Following the anticipatory stages, the actual implementation of the change initiative or program takes place. At this point, individuals are exposed to the new reality of work, such as new demands and working conditions (i.e., disposition-relevant cues). Once individuals realize that old behaviors and ways of doing things are no longer effective, they behave in new ways.

Prior to the implementation of a change, individuals are already anticipating the new reality. However, it is not until the change begins that individuals go from anticipating a hypothetical scenario to actually experiencing it, making the change more salient to the individual. Thus, undergoing a change should generally be a more intense process for individuals compared to anticipating it because there will be a greater number of trait-relevant cues. Given that the magnitude of the change should be higher during implementation, we expect change-related dispositions to be activated to a greater extent once the change is implemented compared to prior to its implementation.

*Hypothesis 3:* The stage of the organizational change moderates the disposition-outcome associations, such that disposition-outcome relationships are weaker before the implementation than during the implementation.



*Structural Dimensions of Organizational Change*

Organizational change constitutes the modification of existing collective values, activities, structures, technologies, systems, strategies, inputs, or outputs (e.g., Pettigrew et al., 2001; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Different characteristics of the change are related to the magnitude of change. We can distinguish between various dimensions (i.e., degree, mode, scope, and scale) and types (e.g., restructuring, technological innovation, sometimes referred to as the *change content*, Oreg et al., 2011) of change. See Table 3 for a list of the dimensions and types of organizational changes examined in this study.

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Insert Table 3 about here  
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There are several dimensions of organizational change that are theoretically related to the concept of change magnitude: degree (radical vs. incremental), mode (continuous vs. episodic), scope (multi-dimensional vs. narrow), and scale (organization-wide vs. peripheral). First, **degree**, reflects the distinction between changes that engage practices that are a drastic departure from existing systems, values, structures, strategies, and practices (i.e., radical changes), and those that represent an incremental departure (Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Levy, 1986; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Second, **mode**, distinguishes between continuous and episodic changes. Continuous changes pertain to ongoing and evolving (often more organic) organizational changes, whereas episodic changes pertain to discrete, discontinuous, intentional, and infrequent changes (Pettigrew et al., 2001; Weick & Quinn, 1999). Third, **scope**, refers to the number of change initiatives being implemented. Multi-dimensional changes are the ones in which several change initiatives are implemented concurrently, while narrow changes refer to isolated change

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initiatives (Kanitz et al., in press; Nadler & Tushman, 1989). Finally, *scale*, refers to whether changes engage or affect the entire organizational system (i.e., organization-wide) or a subsystem within the organization, such as a department or division (i.e., peripheral) (Nadler & Tushman, 1989).

Following the trait-activation perspective, a more intense change (i.e., a greater degree of change) should enhance the trait relevance of the situation for change-related dispositions. We expect radical, continuous, multi-dimensional, and organization-wide changes to be more intense and, by that logic, present more cues that are relevant to change-related dispositions than incremental, episodic, narrow, and peripheral changes, respectively. As such, an increase in change magnitude should positively influence the activation of change-relevant dispositions. We therefore hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 4:* The dimensions of organizational changes moderate the disposition-response relationship, such that more intense (radical, continuous, multi-dimensional, organization-wide) organizational changes present stronger disposition-response associations than less intense (i.e., incremental, episodic, narrow, peripheral) ones.

### ***Types of Organizational Change***

The types of changes that occur in organizations vary widely (see Table 3). Managers and employees might face changes such as downsizings, mergers, major restructurings, new technology implementations, or new work routines. Different types of organizational changes can have drastically distinct effects on organizations and their employees, and this fuels the potential that different types of changes will moderate the relationships between dispositions and outcomes (Oreg et al., 2011). However, we acknowledge that a given change type may be large or small in magnitude, limiting our ability to predict whether that change type will attenuate or

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enhance the disposition–outcome relationship. For example, implementing new technology may represent a radical change, transforming the way work is performed and enabling a firm to undertake entirely new activities. Alternatively, it might be considered to be an incremental change, comprising minor software updates requiring user testing and training. Although researchers have examined the effects of dispositions during specific types of changes, such as mergers and acquisitions (Fugate & Soenen, 2018) or downsizings (Paulsen et al., 2005), they have not yet systematically evaluated whether certain types of changes help explain the disposition–outcomes relationships. Thus, we ask:

*Research Question 2:* How does change type moderate the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes examined herein?

### **National Culture and the Disposition–Outcome Relationships**

National culture may play a role in how individuals construe and respond to an organizational change. Culture can be defined as a “dynamic system of rules, explicit and implicit, established by groups to ensure their survival, involving attitudes, values, beliefs, norms, and behaviors, shared by a group” (Matsumoto, 2000; p. 24). National culture encompasses shared societal-level cognitions about acceptable and typical behaviors and interactions (Hofstede, 2011) and its characteristics can exert different pressures on organizations and their actors (Ralston et al., 2008).

Cultural norms and values can guide individual perceptions and behaviors during specific situations (e.g., Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Similarly, national culture may also influence the relationships between dispositions and outcomes (e.g., Choi et al., 2015; Portocarrero et al., 2020). As noted above, according to TAT, situational features can function as constraints (reducing the impact) or amplifiers (increasing the impact) of the activation of relevant

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dispositions on individuals' responses (Tett & Burnett, 2003). Accordingly, we argue that cultural characteristics can constrain or amplify the activation and expression of individuals' change-related dispositions during organizational change. For example, Choi and colleagues (2015) found that the relationship between agreeableness and components of organizational commitment was stronger in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic ones. We use Hofstede's (1980) national culture framework to theorize about how specific dimensions of a national culture may influence the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes during organizational changes. This model of national culture encompasses six dimensions (Hofstede et al., 2010): power distance, individualism (versus collectivism), masculinity (versus femininity), uncertainty avoidance, long-term (versus short-term) orientation, and indulgence (versus restraint).

Power distance refers to the degree of inequality between people that is considered normal within a given culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). In countries with higher levels of power distance, individuals are more likely to accept and respect unequal distributions of power within an organization, as well as autocratic and paternalistic approaches to authority and leadership (House et al., 2004). Employees in high power-distance cultures are more prone to emphasize obedience, deference, and support, and less likely to challenge authority and their decisions, including during organizational change. In contrast, in countries low on power-distance the emphasis tends to be on equality, democracy, and equal distributions of power. The imposition of change from above, as is typically the case in organizations, is therefore more likely to activate change-related dispositions in low power distance cultures. Thus, we expect high power distance to attenuate the activation and expression of change-related dispositions during changes.

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Collectivism refers to the degree to which individuals are expected to be part of a group (Hofstede et al., 2010). Countries with high levels of individualism have loose ties among their members; individuals tend to look after their own interests and are expected to have their own voice (Hofstede Insights, 2021). In such contexts, individuals are more likely to hold deep beliefs around autonomy, independence, and freedom (Choi et al., 2015). Organizational changes challenge individuals' autonomy independence, and freedom, thus activating change-related dispositions. Conversely, in collectivistic cultures, individuals will strive to maintain harmony. For this reason, we expect national levels of individualism (versus collectivism) to amplify the activation and expression of change-related dispositions during change.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to societal intolerance for uncertain, ambiguous, and unstructured situations (Hofstede et al., 2010). This dimension is about how individuals deal with an unpredictable future. Individuals living in cultures higher on uncertainty avoidance are threatened to a greater extent when ambiguous situations arise (Hofstede Insights, 2021). Thus, in high uncertainty avoidance countries, organizational changes will likely be experienced more intensely, providing change-related cues that will more strongly activate change-related dispositions. That is, we expect uncertainty avoidance to amplify the activation and expression of change-related dispositions during changes.

Long-term (short-term) orientation refers to the priority of values related to time (Hofstede et al., 2010). Long-term orientation emphasizes a focus on the future, whereas short-term orientation emphasizes a focus on the present or past (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Values associated with a long-term orientation include thrift and persistence (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010), which are useful for meeting long-term goals and earning future rewards. Additionally, in countries high in long-term orientation, individuals value and adapt more easily to changing

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circumstances (Hofstede, 2011; Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). Conversely, in cultures that are high on short-term orientation (or equivalently low on long-term orientation), individuals value traditions, social hierarchy, and personal stability (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010) and are cynical about societal change (Hofstede Insights, 2021). It has been suggested that there may be a temporal aspect of how change recipients respond to change (Oreg et al., 2018). Consequently, we expect individuals in countries that are more cynical about change in society in general (i.e., higher on short-term orientation) to experience an organizational change more intensely than in countries that value adaptivity (i.e., higher on long-term orientation). Thus, we expect national levels of long-term (versus short-term) orientation to attenuate (amplify) the activation and expression of change-related dispositions during changes.

Indulgence (versus restraint) refers to societal values around gratification of desires related to enjoying life and having fun (Hofstede et al., 2010). Restraint stands for a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms. In countries high in indulgence, individuals tend to hold strong perceptions of control in their life and see freedom of speech as essential (Hofstede Insights, 2021). Conversely, in restrained contexts, individuals tend to believe that what happens to them is not their own doing (i.e., helplessness) (Miao et al., 2018). In countries where individuals perceive to be in control, organizational changes, which tend to be imposed rather than voluntary, should provide more situationally-relevant cues for the activation of change-related dispositions. That is, we expect national levels of indulgence orientation to amplify the activation and expression of change-related dispositions during changes. We therefore hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 5:* The dimensions of national culture moderate the change-related disposition-outcome relationships such that the relationships will be stronger (a) the

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lower the culture is on power distance (b) the higher a culture is on individualism, (c) the higher a culture is on uncertainty avoidance, (d) the lower a culture is on long-term orientation, and (e) the higher a culture is on indulgence.

Masculinity/femininity refers to the distribution of roles between genders, and the degree to which assertiveness and competitiveness is expected (Hofstede et al., 2010). Cultures high in masculinity value “achievement, tasks, money, performance, and purposefulness, whereas more feminine cultures emphasize people, the quality of life, helping others, preserving the environment, and not drawing attention to oneself” (Nakata & Sivakumar, 1996, p. 64).

Masculine cultures are more concerned with power and status than feminine cultures (Hofstede et al., 2010; Miao et al., 2018). The construct’s definition does not suggest a particular effect on the relationship between change-related dispositions and outcomes. We therefore explore the following question:

*Research Question 3:* What moderating effect does cultural masculinity have on the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes?

### **Methodological Factors and the Disposition–Outcome Relationships**

Methodological factors may also lead to variation in the associations found between dispositions and outcomes (Crampton & Wagner, 1994; Podsakoff et al., 2012). Because of the large variation in the design of studies of the relationship between change-related dispositions and outcomes, we wanted to examine the robustness of the effects in our current study by examining the moderating effects of (1) measurement source (i.e., single versus multiple measurement sources), and (2) temporal separation of measures (i.e., measures collected at a single versus multiple points in time). We expect that studies where the research design included

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measures from a single source and a single measurement will yield stronger effects than those from different sources and multiple measurements.

*Hypothesis 6:* The rating source moderates disposition-outcome relationships, such that the relationships will be stronger in studies in which a single measurement source was used relative to those found in studies using multiple sources.

*Hypothesis 7:* The temporal separation of measurements in a study will moderate the disposition-outcome relationships, such that the relationships will be stronger in studies using a single versus multiple measurement points.

### **Method**

In this section, we describe the following: 1) the literature search strategy, 2) inclusion and exclusion criteria for the samples, 3) the coding procedure, and 4) statistical procedures.

#### **Literature Search Strategy**

We conducted a literature search using the EBSCOHost platform (databases: APA PsycINFO, APA PsycARTICLES, Business Source Complete, Academic Search Complete, and Open Dissertations) and the ProQuest platform (database: ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global). We selected these databases because they contain published and unpublished work from a wide range of related disciplines in the social sciences that investigate organizational change issues, including industrial/organizational psychology, health psychology, information systems and technology, and management.

To create the list of search terms, we reviewed several seminal review articles (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Oreg et al., 2011) to identify the primary key terms used to refer to responses to change. We identified variations of the terms using the database thesaurus. We sought to include a broad array of dispositions that had also been studied in the literature search,



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along with explicit change responses, such as cynicism and commitment, and general work outcomes, such as job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. We conducted repeated literature searches, expanding the list of search terms as new terms were identified until our searches did not yield any new dispositions. The search terms used can be found in Table 4.

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Insert Table 4 about here  
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Next, calls for unpublished works were distributed to the divisions of the Academy of Management listservs whose members research individuals' dispositions and organizational change (Organization Development and Change, Organization Theory, Organizational Behavior, and Human Resources). Finally, we searched the reference lists of 11 review papers (i.e., footnote chasing) on individuals and organizational change (Arieli et al., 2020; Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Choi, 2011; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Jundt et al., 2015; Marinova et al., 2015; Oreg et al., 2018; Oreg et al., 2011; Rafferty et al., 2013; Tett et al., 2021; Vakola et al., 2013).

### **Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

The eligibility criteria are displayed in Table 5. Only articles that met all criteria for at least one sample in the article were included. The searches yielded 16,600 potentially relevant articles. The listserv query yielded one article, but it was already included in the database search. After screening the article abstracts and removing (1) irrelevant documents (e.g., news articles), (2) duplicates, and (3) articles that did not meet other criteria (e.g., the article was not relevant to the current study, it was conceptual rather than empirical, it was a practitioner or a teaching paper), the number of potential articles was reduced to 585. We screened the full text of these articles. When a published article was based on a dissertation by the same author, we retained the

published article because it was the most recent. Of the 585 articles, 431 were excluded for not meeting one or more of the eligibility criteria. This left 154 articles. Several articles contained more than one relevant sample. For that reason, the final database contained 168 independent samples. Figure 2 displays a flow diagram of this search process.

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Insert Table 5 and Figure 2 about here  
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### **Coding Procedure**

The authors of this manuscript (also coders A, B, and C) extracted information from each included sample and then coded the relevant information for the moderating variables. The following information was extracted (or coded) from each of the 168 independent samples: (1) article identifying information, (2) research design, (3) characteristics of the sample, (4) predictors, (5) outcomes, and (6) moderators.<sup>1</sup> A coding manual was developed to guide the extraction of information and maintain coding consistency. Coders A and B extracted the effect sizes and sample sizes from approximately half of the samples each, while Coder C independently extracted this information from all samples. These effects were reconciled to ensure that there were not any errors. Of the 1244 effect sizes (correlations) in the database, there were discrepancies between coders (i.e., coding errors) for only 6 of them (.005%).

### ***Classification of Dispositions***

We classified each disposition into one of the two dispositional factors if it was one of the dispositions that Judge and colleagues (1999) included or if it was conceptually and empirically

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<sup>1</sup> A summary of the characteristics of each sample, the organizational change description, dispositions measured, and outcomes measured, is included in Appendix A. A list of coded items appears in the Coding Manual in Appendix B. The appendices can be found in the Online Supplements.

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related to them. All dispositions and their definitions are displayed in Table 2. Some dispositions could not be classified into either dispositional factor. These unclassified change-related dispositions are also presented in Table 2 but were not included in the meta-analyses.

### *Stage of Change*

To examine the stage of the change, for each effect extracted, Coders A and B independently coded whether the measures were collected before implementing the change (but after it was announced) or after implementation commenced/was completed. There was agreement between the two coders 98% of the time. For the three instances out of 168 that there was disagreement, we left that variable uncoded (i.e., these were coded as “missing”). We were not able to assign a code for stage of change for 19% of the samples because this information was not provided in the primary articles.

### *Dimensions of Change*

To assign a code for each dimension of organizational change (e.g., degree: radical versus incremental), coders A and B independently coded the dummy variables representing the change dimensions based on the descriptions of the change extracted for each sample. For the 168 samples included in the synthesis, there was high agreement between the two coders on the change dimension variables. Specifically, for each change dimension, the two coders rarely differed in their appraisal of the nature of the change experienced by a given sample (e.g., for the “degree” change dimension, whether a given change should be classified as radical or incremental). The levels of agreement were as follows: degree (96%), mode (94%), scope (94%), and scale (97%). As an additional operationalization for scope, the coders also coded the number of discrete organizational changes taking place as a continuous variable. The agreement was 94% for this variable. All the agreement statistics include instances where a coder deemed there to be

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insufficient information available to assign a code (i.e., the sample was coded as “missing” for a moderator variable). Because information about the context of a change was infrequently reported in a detailed way in the source text, the change dimension variables only received a code for 67% (degree), 57% (mode), 56% (scope), and 65% (scale) of the samples. The remaining instances were coded as “missing.” Where there was disagreement between the coders, a consensus was reached after a discussion.

### *Types of Change*

We also coded the types of organizational changes as dummy variables. See Table 3 for general descriptions of the change types. These were coded based on the type of change reported for each independent sample: (1) (de)merger/acquisition; (2) restructuring; (3) downsizing; (4) crisis; (5) new process/activity; (6) leadership-related change; (7) physical relocation; (8) new technology innovation. When a sample did not contain enough information to decide which type of change it should be categorized as, it was coded as “missing.” Coder A coded all studies and Coder B reviewed a subset (20) of the sample. There was 100% agreement for the subset.

### *National Context Indicators*

We coded for the level of power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation, indulgence, and masculinity of the countries in which samples were collected using the Country Comparison Tool from Hofstede Insights (2021).

### *Methodological Moderators*

We coded whether an outcome variable was from the same source as the disposition measure or if it was measured from a different source (e.g., objective/other-report measures, such as turnover or supervisor ratings). For the outcomes from single-source studies, we also coded

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whether these were collected concurrently, representing single-time data, or measured non-concurrently (separated by time from the disposition measures).

### Statistical Procedures

There exists statistical dependence between effect sizes when a single study includes multiple indicators of a predictor (e.g., self-efficacy and self-esteem representing positive self-concept), the same variables assessed at multiple points in time (repeated measures), or several related outcomes (e.g., the three dimensions of organizational commitment). To account for these statistically dependent effect sizes, we employed a three-level meta-analysis (Gooty et al., 2021; Van den Noortgate et al., 2013); sampling error (level 1) is nested within effect sizes (level 2) nested within independent samples (level 3). Thus, in each multi-level meta-analytic model, multiple correlations (representing multiple measures for each disposition, multiple measures for each outcome, or both) were nested within each independent sample. All analyses were conducted in *R* (*metafor* package using the *rma.mv* function; Konstantopoulos, 2011; Viechtbauer, 2010). All relationships with at least two studies were meta-analyzed (Valentine et al., 2010). However, meta-analyses of fewer than 10 studies should be interpreted with particular caution (Schulze, 2007).

For each analysis, we report the number of samples included in the meta-analysis ( $k$ ), the number of effect sizes nested within each sample ( $ES$ ), the total sample size ( $N$ ), the mean correlation (Mean  $r$ ), its standard error ( $SE_r$ ), its 95% confidence interval (CI), and its 95% prediction interval (PI). The 95% PI, or the plausible range of the population of effect sizes of individual studies, is displayed only for analyses with at least five studies (Spineli & Pandis, 2020). The interpretation of heterogeneity is facilitated by the PIs. Additional heterogeneity statistics are displayed for each of the three estimated variance components of the model:  $\tau^2$ ,

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which is the estimate for sampling error (level 1), within-study variance (level 2), or true between-study variance (level 3). Also displayed is the  $I^2$  statistic, which is the proportion of the observed variance that is attributed to: sampling error (level 1), within-study variation (level 2), or variation between studies (level 3). It is important to note that if the observed variance ( $\tau^2$ ) is negligible, the  $I^2$  is not meaningful.

### *Effect Size Conventions*

Research on the magnitude of effects in applied psychology found the distribution of effect sizes at tertial partitions to be smaller than those proposed by Cohen (1988) (Bosco et al., 2015). Bosco and colleagues (2015) found the median effect size to be  $r = .16$  in the organizational behavior literature. In interpreting our findings, we adopted the cutoffs for classifications of effect sizes as small, medium, and large, based on their findings: small effect size (33<sup>rd</sup> percentile of studies) was less than  $r = .09$ , medium effect size (33<sup>rd</sup> to 67<sup>th</sup> percentile) was greater than or equal to  $r = .09$  and less than or equal to  $r = .25$ , and large effect sizes (67<sup>th</sup> percentile and above) were greater than  $r = .25$ .

### *Moderation Analyses*

We conducted meta-analytic regressions to examine the moderation effects (Combs et al., 2019; Gonzalez-Mulé & Aguinis, 2018). For each meta-regression, in addition to the statistics mentioned above, we also report Cochran's (1954)  $Q$  ( $Q_E$  for residual heterogeneity), which represents the degree to which the variability in the observed effects (not accounted for by the moderators) is larger than would be expected based on sampling variability alone (Viechtbauer, 2010). However, we note that  $Q$  can be over or underpowered, depending on the effect size and the sample size (Gavaghan et al., 2000; Higgins et al., 2003). We follow existing guidance on the minimum number of samples for moderator analyses (Gavaghan et al., 2000; Schulze, 2007); in

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addition to having established clear study inclusion/exclusion criteria, we examine the effects of moderators only when there were at least 10 samples available. If the variable was dichotomous, we further examined moderating effects when there were at least five samples in each subgroup; we also report the corresponding subgroup mean correlation estimates.

Based on an existing framework (Oreg et al., 2011) where outcomes of organizational change were grouped into more immediate (i.e., explicit reactions to change) and distal categories (i.e., work consequences such as job satisfaction and job performance, in addition to personal consequences such as well-being), we examined four groupings of outcomes. Our groupings included valenced change responses, well-being, job attitudes, and job performance. We separated job performance from job attitudes due to its prominence as an individual-level outcome of organizational change. By grouping outcomes in this way, we were also able to increase the power of our analyses. To create the “valenced change response” outcome, we pooled the effects from the “positive change response” grouping with those from the “negative change response” grouping after reverse-scoring the effects within the “negative change response.” Similarly, the well-being indicators (positive affect, negative affect, burnout/ stress, and well-being) were grouped after reverse-scoring “negative affect” and “burnout/stress.” We pooled effects representing the job attitudes: work engagement, organizational commitment, organizational identification, job satisfaction, job insecurity (reverse-scored), and turnover intentions (reverse-scored).

First, to compare the meta-analytic effect sizes of the two dispositional factors across the four outcome categories (Research Question 1), we used multi-level meta-regression analyses. We pooled effect sizes for the relationships between both dispositional factors (combined) and each category of outcomes, and ran four meta-regressions (one for each outcome) with a dummy

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variable representing the two factors. To examine the different theoretical moderators (i.e., stage of change (Hypothesis 3), change dimensions (Hypothesis 4), change types (Research Question 2), national culture (Hypothesis 5 and Research Question 3), and methodological moderators (Hypotheses 6 and 7), we followed the same analytical strategy used to answer Research Question 1. Specifically, in the meta-analytic regressions we included two covariates: (1) a dummy variable representing the two dispositional factors and (2) the moderating variable being examined. We included the dummy variable in these analyses to account for any potential differences between the two dispositional factors in the disposition-outcome relationships. We pooled the effects for the two dispositional factors because the number of studies available to test each dispositional factor separately would not be sufficient for several of the moderator analyses. We repeated this multi-level meta-regression test for each moderator examined.

### **Publication Bias**

The appropriateness of traditional publication bias assessments (e.g., Duval and Tweedie's (2000) trim-and-fill method; Orwin's (1983) Fail-Safe  $N$  variant) for more complex models is still under debate, and these methods have not been evaluated for multi-level models (Assink & Wibbelink, 2016). Consequently, we applied a regression-based approach to assess publication bias (Moreno et al., 2009). We test for publication bias using Peters' regression test (Peters et al., 2006), where the inverse of the sample size is included as a moderator in a meta-regression model. Statistical significance serves as evidence for the existence of bias (i.e., all studies should be equally dispersed on either side of the mean correlation in the absence of bias). We examine publication bias only when there were at least 10 studies in a meta-analysis (Schulze, 2007).



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The results of Peters' (2006) regression test are presented in Tables 7 and 8. Evidence for publication bias emerged for four of the 15 relationships for which this test could be conducted: positive self-concept with job insecurity ( $p = .01$ ), positive self-concept with organizational commitment ( $p = .01$ ), positive self-concept with turnover intention ( $p = .02$ ), and positive self-concept with job performance ( $p = .03$ ). For the remaining relationships for which this test could be conducted we conclude that the impact of publication bias is likely to be small to trivial.

### Results

#### Sample Demographics and Organizational Change Context

Study participants were employees from a wide range of professions, including office managers, office employees, executive and part-time MBA students, police officers, and professional association members. The samples were geographically diverse, from 29 countries in North America, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia. The context of organizational change varied substantially, as well. The organizations were undergoing at least one of several types of organizational changes (see Table 3 for descriptions). We report the correlations between the different characteristics of a change context in Table 6. The change dimension (degree, mode, scope, and scale) intercorrelations ranged from moderate ( $r = -.23$ ) to extremely strong ( $r = .77$ ). As expected, the correlation between scope and number (the variable used as an additional operationalization for scope) was strong ( $r = .62$ ).

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Insert Table 6 about here  
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**Main Effects (H1 & H2)**

We drew from a subset of the 168 samples (154 articles) included in the systematic review to perform our analyses, as some of the dispositions could not be classified into either dispositional factor (see Table 2). This subset including at least one indicator of the two dispositional factors contained 153 independent samples (from 141 articles).

The results from the multi-level meta-analyses on the relationships between change-related dispositions (positive self-concept and risk tolerance) and outcomes are displayed in Tables 7 and 8. There were between 2 and 58 samples and between 2 and 199 effect sizes for each relationship: the pooled sample sizes (*N*) ranged from 207 to 17,010. Meta-analyses in Tables 7 and 8 are grouped by explicit change responses, well-being indicators, and work outcomes.

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Insert Table 7 and Table 8 about here  
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We first explore the magnitude and direction of relationships between dispositional factors and each group of outcomes (main effects). In hypotheses 1 and 2, we predicted that positive self-concept and risk tolerance would be associated (in the expected directions, which can be found in Figure 1) with explicit change responses, well-being, and other work outcomes during organizational change. With one exception, we found positive correlations for the outcomes where we expected a positive association (e.g., positive change response and job performance) and negative correlations for the outcomes where we expected a negative association (e.g., negative change response and actual turnover). The exception was the negative

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relationship we found between risk tolerance and organizational identification ( $r = -.05$ ), but the confidence interval included zero (95%  $CI = [-.22, .12]$ ).

As shown in Tables 7 and 8, there was wide variation in the magnitude of mean correlations for positive self-concept and risk tolerance and the outcomes examined. According to the effect size conventions (Bosco et al., 2015), these associations ranged from moderate to large, except for the relationships between positive self-concept and actual turnover ( $r = -.08$ ), risk tolerance and organizational commitment ( $r = .07$ ), risk tolerance and organizational identification ( $r = -.05$ ), risk tolerance and turnover intention ( $r = -.07$ ), and risk tolerance and absenteeism/withdrawal ( $r = -.07$ ), which can be classified as small. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported.

The PIs, where we could calculate them ( $k \geq 5$ ), showed variation around their respective means. In the 30 cases (out of 42 meta-analyses performed) where we could calculate a PI, the variation in effects was moderate to substantial. The substantial dispersion of individual studies around the mean effect shows that moderators are important to consider. There was moderate to substantial variability between studies (level-3  $\tau^2$  and  $I^2$ ) and in some cases within studies (level-2  $\tau^2$  and  $I^2$ ), which means that there was heterogeneity that could not be explained by sampling error alone, as evidenced by the relatively wide PIs.

### **Comparing the Relative Strength of the Dispositional Factors (RQ1)**

We compared the meta-analytic correlations for positive self-concept and risk tolerance and the various grouped outcomes (see Table 9). The mean correlation for positive self-concept was significantly stronger than for risk tolerance with job attitudes ( $B = .15$ , 95%  $CI = [.09, .21]$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $r = .27$  and  $r = .09$ , respectively) and valenced change responses ( $B = .06$ , 95%  $CI [.01, .10]$ ,  $p = .01$ ;  $r = .29$  and  $r = .22$ , respectively), but not for well-being ( $B = -.02$ , 95%  $CI [-.15,$

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.11],  $p = .74$ ;  $r = .21$  and  $r = .18$ , respectively) or job performance ( $B = .03$ , 95%  $CI [-.06, .12]$ ,  $p = .50$ ;  $r = .23$  and  $r = .16$ , respectively). Overall, positive self-concept appears to be a somewhat better predictor than risk tolerance, at least for some of the outcomes.

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Insert Table 9 about here  
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### **Moderation Effects: Change Context (H3, H4, & RQ2)**

We examined the moderation effects of the stage of change, the change dimensions, and the change types on the relationships between dispositions and outcomes (see Table 10 and Table 11).

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Insert Table 10 and Table 11 about here  
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### ***Stage of Organizational Change (H3)***

In hypothesis 3, we predicted that the disposition-outcome relationships would be weaker before the implementation compared to during the implementation. Our hypothesis was supported when predicting valenced change responses ( $B = -.10$ , 95%  $CI = [-.20, -.003]$ ,  $p = .04$ ;  $r_{anticipatory} = .17$ ,  $r_{during} = .28$ ). However, the effects were not significant when predicting job attitudes ( $p = .55$ ;  $r_{anticipatory} = .22$  and  $r_{during} = .21$ ). This moderation effect could not be tested for well-being and job performance due to an insufficient number of samples for these groups. Thus, hypothesis 3 received partial support.

### ***Dimensions of Organizational Change (H4)***

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For Hypothesis 4, we expected that the disposition-outcome relationships would be stronger for more intense changes (i.e., radical, continuous, multi-dimensional, organization-wide) compared with less intense changes (i.e., incremental, episodic, narrow, and peripheral). The effect was at least marginally significant only for the *scope* variable, only when using the continuous operationalization, in which we used the “number of changes,” and only when predicting valenced responses ( $B = .03$ , 95%  $CI = [-.001, .06]$ ,  $p = .06$ ) and job performance ( $B = .09$ , 95%  $CI = [.003, .18]$ ,  $p = .04$ ). Effects for none of the other moderators were statistically significant. However, the pattern of results was somewhat aligned with our predictions for the relationships with valenced change response and job performance when comparing the effects of: radical ( $r = .27$  and  $r = .25$ ) versus incremental ( $r = .24$  and  $r = .13$ ) changes, continuous ( $r = .31$  and  $r = .26$ ) versus episodic ( $r = .23$  and  $r = .19$ ) changes, and organization-wide ( $r = .27$  and  $r = .26$ ) versus peripheral ( $r = .21$  and  $r = .13$ ) changes. In sum, for the change dimension variables, we found only partial support for the moderating effect of the *scope* of organizational change.

### ***Types of Organizational Change (RQ2)***

As shown in Table 11, with three exceptions, there was no evidence for differences in effect sizes across the seven discrete change types.<sup>2</sup> The exceptions were that the magnitude of the disposition–well-being relationship was stronger for restructurings ( $B = .22$ , 95%  $CI = [.04, .39]$ ,  $p = .02$ ;  $r = .24$ ) compared with changes that did not involve a restructuring ( $r = .08$ ) and for leader-related changes ( $B = .17$ , 95%  $CI = [.01, .33]$ ,  $p = .04$ ;  $r = .31$ ) compared with changes that

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<sup>2</sup> We also ran these analyses (i.e., types of change as a moderator) controlling for the effects of the dimensions of change (i.e., degree, mode, scope, and scale) and our results were generally unaffected by the inclusion of the control variables. In addition, we also operationalized downsizing aligned with the way that Kiefer and colleagues (2015) have conceptualized it—as either cutback- or innovation-related organizational changes. None of the results from these analyses were significant.

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were not leader-related ( $r = .15$ ); disposition–valenced change response relationships were (marginally) weaker for physical relocations ( $B = -.11$ , 95%  $CI = [-.23, .01]$ ,  $p = .08$  .10;  $r = .15$ ) compared with changes that were not relocations ( $r = .27$ ).

### **Moderation Effects: National Culture (H5 and RQ3)**

As shown in Table 12, except for masculinity where we did not have a prediction (RQ3), the other cultural dimensions moderated several of the relationships between the change-related dispositional factors and outcomes, yet not always in the predicted direction. We expected weaker effects the greater a country’s power distance (Hypothesis 5a). Opposite to our expectations, the effects were stronger when predicting job performance ( $B = 1.28$ , 95%  $CI = [-.001, 2.57]$ ,  $p = .05$ ). Power distance did not moderate the other three disposition-outcome relationships. Contrary to expectations (Hypothesis 5b), individualism was *negatively* related to the disposition-job performance relationship ( $B = -.46$ , 95%  $CI = [-.80, -.12]$ ,  $p = .008$ ). We expected uncertainty avoidance to amplify the relationship between dispositions and outcomes (Hypothesis 5c). This hypothesis was supported when predicting well-being ( $B = .69$ , 95%  $CI = [-.08, 1.45]$ ,  $p = .08$ ) and job performance ( $B = 1.11$ , 95%  $CI = [.40, 1.81]$ ,  $p = .003$ ).

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Insert Table 12 about here  
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In Hypothesis 5d, we predicted that effects would be weaker the greater the country’s long-term orientation. We found support for our hypothesis when predicting valenced change responses ( $B = -.11$ , 95%  $CI = [-.24, .02]$ ,  $p = .096$ ). Opposite to our expectations, however, the association between dispositions and job attitudes ( $B = .15$ , 95%  $CI = [-.01, .31]$ ,  $p = .07$ ) and job performance ( $B = .43$ , 95%  $CI = [.14, .71]$ ,  $p = .004$ ) were stronger the greater the country’s long-

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term orientation. Long-term orientation did not moderate the effects on well-being. Finally, we predicted that the effects would be stronger the greater the country's indulgence (Hypothesis 5e). Similar to the case of long-term orientation, we only found support for our hypothesis when predicting valenced change responses ( $B = .21$ , 95%  $CI = [-.01, .42]$ ,  $p = .06$ ). Contrary to our expectations, we found weaker relationships the greater the country's indulgence when predicting well-being ( $B = -.57$ , 95%  $CI = [-1.21, .08]$ ,  $p = .08$ ), job attitudes ( $B = -.31$ , 95%  $CI = [-.63, .02]$ ,  $p = .06$ ), and job performance ( $B = -.95$ , 95%  $CI = [1.65, -.25]$ ,  $p = .008$ ).

### Methodological Study Factors (H6 & H7)

The results for the methodological moderators are displayed in Table 13. Although we could not test the effect of the measurement source on three of the outcomes, we found that the disposition-job performance mean correlation estimates were inflated, as predicted (Hypothesis 6), in studies using a single source ( $B = .22$ , 95%  $CI = [.13, .32]$ ,  $p < .001$ ;  $r = .30$ ) compared to those using multiple sources ( $r = .06$ ). We also found partial support for Hypothesis 7; among studies using a single source, studies with a single measurement point tended to have stronger effects compared to studies with at least two measurement points. Specifically, we found a marginal effect when predicting well-being ( $B = .11$ , 95%  $CI = [-.02, .24]$ ,  $p = .08$ ;  $r_{single\ measurement} = .22$ ,  $r_{multiple\ measurements} = .16$ ) and job performance ( $B = .13$ , 95%  $CI = [.06, .21]$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $r = .24_{single\ measurement}$ ,  $r_{multiple\ measurements} = .14$ ).

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Insert Table 13 about here  
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### **Discussion**

Our investigation integrates the highly fragmented literature on the role of dispositions during organizational change, providing a holistic understanding of the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes of relevance to employees (well-being) and organizations (explicit change responses, work attitudes, and behaviors). Positive self-concept and risk tolerance are two broad dispositions that reflect an individual's evaluations of the self and their ability to deal with novelty, uncertainty, and risk in their environment, respectively. During organizational change, both dispositions are activated and predict explicit reactions to the change, well-being, and how individuals relate to their employer and behave at work. Our study provides a robust test of the effects of each positive self-concept and risk tolerance on change and work outcomes. Importantly, we uncover several contextual factors related to organizational change and the national context that help explain differences in the magnitude of effects found across studies. Below, we first discuss the implications of these results for research on organizational change, then present the limitations of this synthesis and point to future research directions. We also note the practical implications of our study.

Overall, the magnitude of the effects across both positive self-concept and risk tolerance were mostly moderate to large; they have high predictive value. Risk tolerance was most strongly related to the valenced change responses. Positive self-concept was, too, but was also strongly associated with well-being and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work engagement. Comparing the two dispositions, our findings suggest that positive self-concept tends to yield stronger associations with several groups of outcomes than does risk tolerance. As a grounding and stabilizing psychological resource, positive self-concept may be more important than risk tolerance for shaping attitudes towards change and work. It may be that how individuals



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perceive themselves is more central to an individual trying to cope with change than the characteristics associated with risk tolerance. That is, an individual's belief in their ability to navigate a change may be a more potent guiding force than the intrinsic rewards associated with novelty-seeking and engagement with the new environment.

Regarding the change characteristics, first, the stage of the change explained a large portion of the variance in the distribution of effects for valenced change responses, but not for job attitudes. Our findings suggest that during the implementation stage, the change context offers more (and potentially stronger) cues that activate change-related dispositions than in the anticipatory stage. This finding provides initial support for a trait activation perspective under the context of organizational change. However, organizational changes vary widely in the duration of the implementation stage. Thus, we encourage researchers to further explore how the temporality (e.g., duration, distance) of the implementation of the change influences the expression of change-related dispositions.

Second, we found some support for the notion that the magnitude of the change amplifies the relationships between change-related dispositions and outcomes. Specifically, we find that relationships between change-related dispositions and individuals' proximal responses to the change and performance tend to be stronger as the number of changes being implemented increases. Although we do not find statistically significant moderating effects for other change dimensions (degree, mode, and scale), most of our findings are aligned with our expectations and are useful for scholars of organizational change and individual differences to consider as they develop their future work. Although our study included a relatively large number of studies, the number of effects for each moderation test was nonetheless limited. As such, the change dimensions may still be relevant for consideration as moderators in future work.

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Third, the types of changes (e.g., downsizing, restructuring) did not significantly moderate the relationship between dispositions and outcomes, with very few exceptions. This may be because the type of change alone does not necessarily involve particular activating cues for change-related dispositions. Rather, it may be that aspects related to how a change is managed, or more universal aspects of the change (e.g., dimensions or phases of change), present more change-relevant cues to individuals. Relatedly, we have tested our assertions using a *magnitude* lens aligned with TAT (e.g., do certain conditions present more trait-activating cues, strengthening the associations between dispositions and outcomes?) where we grouped both positively- and negatively- (reverse-scored) valenced dispositions and outcomes to conduct the moderation analyses, but it is possible that the *valence* of the change type, dispositions, and outcomes (e.g., do conditions that are perceived as threats, such as downsizings, present more trait-activating cues for negatively-valenced (compared to positively-valenced) dispositions and outcomes?) need to be considered more closely. We encourage researchers to continue exploring the role of different characteristics of the context of organizational change in explaining the influence of dispositions on outcomes during changes.

This study also contributes to the organizational change literature by showing that different dimensions of national culture moderate the associations between change-related dispositions and outcomes. Although we made general predictions about the direction of the moderation effect of each cultural dimension, we discovered that these relationships are more complex because the cultural dimensions moderate each group of outcomes differently. Indulgence is the only cultural dimension that helps explain variability across the four sets of outcomes we examined. Specifically, we find that at higher level of indulgence the association of

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dispositions with valenced change responses is stronger but associations with well-being, work attitudes, and job performance are weaker.

Long term orientation presented an inverse pattern of moderating effects compared with those of indulgence, whereby in high long term orientation cultures, the association of change-related dispositions with valenced change responses was weaker, as predicted, but the associations with job attitudes and performance was stronger. Our inconsistent findings across outcomes suggests that a different mechanism may be at play for more proximal outcomes (valenced change responses) versus distal ones (well-being, job attitudes, and job performance). We also find, counter to our predictions, that in high uncertainty cultures, the relationship of dispositions with indicators of well-being were weaker, but in line with our predictions the relationship with job performance was stronger. Finally, and both in contrast to our expectations, relationships between the dispositions and job performance were stronger in high power distance cultures and weaker in individualistic cultures. Masculinity did not present moderating effects. We encourage more research on the moderating role that culture and other country-level characteristics (e.g., economic and development indicators) may have on the disposition-outcomes relationships during change. For example, beyond testing for systematic differences in the moderating effects of relationships with proximal versus distal responses to change, future research could examine whether specific cultural values are at odds with certain types of and responses to organizational changes. This might help us to reconcile and interpret some of our inconsistent findings.

Finally, we tested the role of studies' methodological characteristics in explaining the association between disposition and outcomes. Aligned with prior work on common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2012), studies using only a single source of measurement for both the

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predictor and outcome yield stronger effect sizes relative to those in studies using multiple sources. Moreover, studies in which data for predictor and outcome were measured concurrently tended to yield stronger effects than time-lagged designs. Although we did not find this effect to be statistically significant on explicit change responses, we do find the same pattern of effects pointing to common method variance across the outcome groups examined.

In sum, our work contributes to different areas of research within the organizational change literature. First, we advance work on the role of dispositions during organizational change by providing a robust test of the relevance of the integrative dispositional model developed by Judge and colleagues (1999) by incorporating a broad range of studies. Notably, our study is the first meta-analytic review to examine the effect of individuals' dispositions on change and work outcomes during organizational changes, building on the narrative reviews in this area (Oreg et al., 2011; Rafferty et al., 2013; Vakola et al., 2013). Second, we also contribute to the literature on organizational change by systematically examining the interaction between dispositions and situations in predicting outcomes during the change. From a TAT perspective (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000), organizational change contexts should activate change-related dispositions. We examined whether the stage, dimensions, and types of organizational change help explain the magnitude of the effects obtained between change-related dispositions and outcomes. We found some evidence in support of a TAT perspective for the role of employees' dispositions during organizational changes.

### **Limitations and Future Research**

Although this review was broad and inclusive, with a sufficient number of studies to perform a meta-analysis, a major limitation of our synthesis is associated with the stage of development of this area of study. There were very few effect sizes available for some

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relationships that could be meta-analyzed (e.g., risk tolerance and well-being). This translates into low statistical power and the inability to make strong inferences for such relationships. Along these lines, we conducted the moderator analyses after pooling the effects for the two dispositional factors due to insufficient power to test these factors separately. However, we find some differences in the magnitude of the effects of the disposition-outcome relationships suggesting that there may be some merit to examining the moderators of the relationships separately for each dispositional factor. This limitation begets various avenues for future work, to further explore the nuances of these relationships empirically. Our moderator analyses also left significant residual heterogeneity that might be important to consider. This residual heterogeneity suggests that other factors may influence the disposition–outcome relationships, or that there are inconsistencies in the direction of the effects within some of our outcome groups; these highlight gaps that future work could aim to fill. Once additional primary studies become available, we also recommend that researchers try to replicate our moderation analyses separately for each of the two dispositional factors. This might help clarify some of the inconsistencies we found in the moderating effects.

Importantly, we find that many of the primary studies in our synthesis do not clearly or comprehensively report details of the context of change. Thus, the lack of reported information presents a limitation to our study. Nonetheless, our study systematically assessed the role of the change context on the disposition-outcome relationships within the research available today. We encourage authors of future primary studies to provide more elaborate descriptive information about the research setting. This includes not only describing the specific types of changes and changes in daily activities that might affect employee responses, but also the broader regulatory and competitive environment within which the organization operates. Some journals already

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request a section dedicated to the research setting. Therefore, we hope this study encourages future work to describe the context of change in primary studies in more detail. The classification of contexts can be critical for understanding relationships across studies and allows us to better grasp the generalizability of those findings.

The way we categorized the change reactions also merits discussion. Given the conceptual similarities among several change-related constructs emerging from this review, we caution against construct proliferation related to the explicit change response outcomes. For instance, we aggregated various constructs where there were conceptual similarities within a “Positive Change Response” variable, reflecting a positively valenced cognition, attitude, appraisal, or behavior about the change, its potential benefit, need, effectiveness, and/or gain for the individual or the organization. We call upon scholars to counteract construct proliferation by rigorously examining a newly developed construct’s nomotological network, including its predictive validity. The degree to which each of the positively valenced change response variables explain unique variance in outcomes above and beyond other constructs within the same category is unclear.

Finally, our systematic literature review uncovered some dispositions that we could not classify as part of either positive self-concept or risk tolerance. These dispositions include two of the Big Five factors (agreeableness, conscientiousness), skills and competencies (emotional intelligence, impression management, political skill, dispositional employability), a few basic human needs (need for achievement, existence, competitiveness, affiliation/relatedness), and other dispositions that have been found relevant for navigating change (Machiavellianism, mindfulness, rebelliousness, performance goal orientation). Many of these constructs have not received sufficient attention to allow for a meta-analysis of their effects. Additional research on

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these dispositions should therefore be conducted to bolster and extend what we already know about them. Thus, we urge scholars to continue evaluating the relationships between these additional change-related dispositions and change and work outcomes.

### **Practical Implications**

Given the prevalence of organizational change and the substantial predictive validity of change-related dispositions on job performance, the results of this meta-analysis could inform management decisions regarding how to best support, develop, and train employees during change. Organizations faced with changes may focus their attention, effort, and resources on preparing employees for specific phases or types, keeping in mind employee predispositions. For instance, organizations planning to implement changes or organizations functioning in unstable environments may launch interventions targeted at improving the psychological resources and skills (positive self-concept and risk tolerance) that are likely to increase favorable outcomes (i.e., positive change response, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, work engagement, and performance) and decrease unfavorable ones (i.e., resistance to change, negative affect, burnout, stress, withdrawal, job insecurity, turnover intentions, and actual turnover). For example, self-efficacy interventions have been found to be effective at enhancing employee attitudes toward their jobs (McNatt & Judge, 2008). They may be similarly helpful in improving employee responses to organizational change.

Additionally, change agents and managers should consider not only the main effects of the change-relevant dispositions on outcomes, but also the dependency of these effects on the alignment of dispositions with some contexts. Our results suggest that the change context can enhance or attenuate the effects of dispositional measures. For example, given our finding that the disposition-explicit change response was stronger in the implementation phase than in the

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anticipatory phase, assuming that managers have a general idea of their employees' dispositions through personality screening and professional development training sessions, managers may wish to survey all employees and be particularly attune with those employees who are predisposed to negative responses to change, especially during the implementation stages. Detecting high levels of negative attitudes will allow for the design of tailored communication and targeted interventions to decrease the negative responses. Similarly, based on our findings about the scope of change, managers may wish to survey employees when the number of changes being implemented increases.

### **Conclusion**

The objective of this synthesis was to gain a better understanding of the relationships between two change-relevant dispositional factors—positive self-concept and risk tolerance—and various outcomes during organizational change. Another equally important objective was to understand how the characteristics of the change itself and its context attenuate or enhance the relationships between the dispositional factors and the outcomes. We contribute to research in this field by (1) providing a systematic and robust examination of the relative magnitude of the relationships of the dispositional factors and a broad set of outcomes and (2) exploring the extent to which these higher-order dispositions are activated in particular situations (i.e., under various stages, dimensions, and types of organizational change). We also examine the moderating effect of country-level cultural values and factors related to study design. Based on our findings, we suggest various promising avenues for future research.



### Data Availability Statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

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Table 1. *Taxonomy of Outcomes: Definitions*

<b>CATEGORY</b>	
<u>Subcategory</u>	
<i>Type</i>	
Outcome	Definition
<b>EXPLICIT CHANGE RESPONSES</b>	Cognitive, emotional, or behavioral reactions directly to an organizational change.
<u>Valenced change response</u>	Non-neutral, direct reactions to an organizational change.
<i>Positive change response</i>	A favorable response about the change, its potential benefit, need, effectiveness, and/or gain for the individual or the organization.
Change openness	“Support for change, positive affect about the potential consequences of a change, and it is considered a necessary, initial condition for the successful planned change” (Miller et al., 1994, p. 60).
Change readiness	“Evaluation of the individual and organizational capacity for making a successful change, the need for a change, and the benefits the organization and its members can gain from a change (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Holt et al., 2007)” (cf. Choi, 2011, p. 482).
Change support	A behavioral display of support or championing of a change initiative (as opposed to active resistance; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).
Commitment to change	Employees’ response “that binds an individual to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, p. 475).
<i>Negative change response</i>	An unfavorable response to a change, its potential benefit, need, effectiveness, and/or gain for the individual or the organization.
Change cynicism	“A pessimistic viewpoint about change efforts being successful because those responsible for making changes are blamed for being unmotivated, incompetent, or both” (Wanous et al., 2000, p. 133).
Resistance to change	A multidimensional construct consisting of a set of negative responses to change across three aspects: affective, cognitive, and behavioral (Piderit, 2000).
<u>Other change responses</u>	Individuals’ non-valenced responses to organizational changes.
<i>Change-related coping</i>	A “person’s cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (reduce, minimize, or tolerate) the internal and external demands of the person-environment transaction that is appraised as taxing or exceeding the person’s resources” (Folkman et al., 1986, p. 572).
Problem-focused	Individual’s tendency to deal directly “with the stressor” (Judge et al., 1999, p.108).
Emotion-focused	Individual’s tendency to deal primarily with “the emotional changes brought on by the stressor” (Judge et al., 1999, p. 108).
Avoidance-focused	Includes strategies to “avoid a particular stressful situation by seeking out other people (seeking social support) or by engaging in another task rather than the task at hand (e.g., watching television rather than studying for an exam)” (Endler & Parker, 1990, p. 846).

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 1. *Taxonomy of Outcomes: Definitions (continued)*

Perceptions of change fairness	Includes perceptions of how just the actions of organizations and managers are regarding the change, “such as providing advance notice on the forthcoming change, allowing employees to input on how the change should be implemented, and being open to and considerate on employees’ concern pertaining to the change” (Liu et al., 2012, p. 444).
Perceptions of change impact	Individuals’ “perceptions of the effect of the change on job performance, organizational climate, and nonwork life” (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002, pp. 478-479).
Perceptions of change uncertainty	“The psychological state of doubt about what an event signifies or portends” (DiFonzo & Bordia, 1998, p. 136).
<b>WELL-BEING</b>	The presence of indicators of psychological adjustment such as positive affect or happiness, and the absence of indicators of psychological maladjustment such as negative affect, burnout, or stress (Houben et al., 2015; Portocarrero et al., 2020).
Burnout / Stress	<i>Burnout</i> : A condition representing a “state of exhaustion in which one is cynical about the value of one’s occupation and doubtful of one’s capacity to perform” (Maslach et al., 1996, p. 20). <i>Stress</i> : Employees’ experience of work situations in which demands are perceived to exceed the resources that the employee possesses to deal with them (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus and Folkman 1984).
Negative affect	Represents “a general dimension of subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states, including anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, fear, and nervousness, with low [negative affect] being a state of calmness and serenity” (Watson et al., 1988, p. 1063).
Positive affect	Reflects “the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. High [positive affect] is a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement, whereas low [positive affect] is characterized by sadness and lethargy” (Watson et al., 1988, p. 1063).
Well-being composite	The psychological, physical, and social wellness of individuals (Portocarrero et al., 2020).
<b>WORK OUTCOMES</b>	Perceptions of one’s organization or behaviors exhibited within the context of one’s organization.
<u>Job attitudes</u>	“Job attitudes are evaluations of one’s job that express one’s feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one’s job” (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 344).
Job insecurity	Employees’ perceived “threat to the continuity of the job” (Boswell et al., 2014, p. 889).
Job satisfaction	The internal responses (i.e., feelings) experienced in reaction to “a personalistic evaluation of conditions existing on the job” (Schneider & Snyder, 1975, p. 319).
Organizational commitment	A mindset that reflects “a desire, a need, and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 62).
Organizational identification	“The relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization, as well as the willingness to exert effort and remain in the organization” (Ferris & Aranya, 1983, p. 87).
Turnover intention	“An employee’s intention to voluntarily change jobs or companies” (Schyns et al. 2007, p. 660).

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Work engagement

“The harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances” (Kahn, 1990, p. 694).

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## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 1. *Taxonomy of Outcomes: Definitions (continued)*

<u>Other work outcomes</u>	Job-related behaviors by employees and job demands.
Withdrawal	Employees' "physical removal from a particular workplace, either for part of a day, an entire day, or permanently" (Johns, 2002, p. 233).
Absenteeism	Failing to report to work (Luthans & Martinko, 1976).
<u>Role stressors</u>	Expectations of a given organizational position that elicit strain in the person who has the position; "strains include anxiety, exhaustion, depression, and burnout" (Lepine et al., 2005, p. 764).
Role ambiguity	A "lack of the necessary information available to a given organizational position" regarding the expectations associated with the position (Rizzo et al., 1970, p. 151).
Role conflict	"The simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectations in such a way, that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult" (Naus et al., 2007, p. 693).
Role overload	"Situations in which employees feel that there are too many responsibilities or activities expected of them given the time available, their abilities, and other constraints" (Eatough et al., 2011, p. 620).
Turnover	Departing from a position at an organization or the loss of staff from an organization (Hancock et al., 2013).
Job performance	"Actions or behaviors that are relevant to the organization's goal and that can be scaled (measured) in terms of each individual's proficiency (that is, level of contribution)" (Campbell et al., 1993, p. 40).

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 2. *Categorization and Definitions of Dispositions*

<b>FACTOR</b>	
<i>Disposition</i>	<i>Definition</i>
<b>POSITIVE SELF-CONCEPT</b>	Broad conception of the self which includes one's perception of self-worth, of self-control, and of perceptions of one's ability to be successful in a given environment (Judge et al. 1999). It represents the internal stability and resiliency of individuals to self-regulate in response to their environment.
<i>Core self-evaluations</i>	Individuals' tendency to consider themselves worthy and able to cope with life's exigencies bringing about a "positive frame" to the situations encountered (Judge et al., 1998).
<i>Emotional stability</i>	Individual's "ability to remain calm and levelheaded when confronted with difficult, stressful, or changing situations" (Pulakos et al., 2002, p. 303).
<i>Dispositional Cynicism</i>	"A disbelief in the stated or implied motives of people in general for their decisions or actions" (Stanley et al., 2005, p. 436).
<i>External locus of control</i>	Attributing one's experienced outcomes to outside forces (Rotter, 1966) (reverse-scored).
<i>Internal locus of control</i>	Perceiving oneself as responsible for any experienced outcomes (Rotter, 1966).
<i>Hope</i>	Individual's propensity to experience positive motivational states that are "based on an interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder et al., 1991, p. 287)
<i>Optimism</i>	Tendency to rationalize desirable outcomes in terms of permanent, internal, pervasive causes and undesirable outcomes in terms of temporary, external, context-specific causes (Seligman, 1998).
<i>Psychological capital</i>	Individuals' positive psychological state of development that is characterized by high levels of self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007, p. 542).
<i>Psychological empowerment</i>	"A personal sense of control in the workplace as manifested in four beliefs about the person-work relationship: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002, p. 714).
<i>Resilience</i>	The ability to maintain stable psychological and physical functioning during or after an adverse event (Block & Kremen, 1996).
<i>Self-esteem*</i>	An individual's evaluation of the self, expressing an attitude of approval or disapproval, reflecting "the extent to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 5).
<i>Self-efficacy*</i>	An individual's confidence in his or her ability to perform the behaviors necessary to prompt a desired outcome (Bandura, 1991).
<i>Trait negative affect</i>	Dispositional tendency to experience negative moods and feelings (e.g., nervousness, distress, hostility; Van Knippenberg et al., 2010) (reverse-scored).
<i>Trait positive affect*</i>	Individual's tendency to experience positive emotions, which is "associated with a positive worldview" and includes "characteristics such as well-being, confidence, energy, gregariousness, and affiliation" (Judge et al., 1999, p. 109).

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 2. *Categorization and Definitions of Dispositions (continued)*

<b>RISK TOLERANCE</b>	Individual's tendency to engage with novel situations, changing environments, uncertainty, and risk.
<i>Adaptability</i>	Individual's "tendency to make active attempts to adjust him or herself to fit new tasks and new environments" (Wang et al., 2011, p. 165).
<i>Conservation</i>	Personal values that "prescribe the status quo, the avoidance of threat, the preservation of security and social order, and submissive self-restriction. They encompass the narrower values of security, conformity, and tradition" (Sverdlik & Oreg, 2009, p. 1440) (reverse-scored).
<i>Dispositional skepticism</i>	"Disposition to doubt or incredulity in general" (Stanley et al., 2005, p. 436) (reverse-scored).
<i>Dispositional resistance to change</i>	Individual's propensity "to resist or avoid making changes, to devalue change generally, and to find change aversive across diverse contexts and types of change" (Oreg, 2003, p. 680) (reverse-scored).
<i>Dogmatism</i>	"The extent to which a person's belief system is open or closed...a highly dogmatic person is rigid and close-minded and probably has rigid beliefs about objects and event sequences" (Lau & Woodman, 1995, p. 540) (reverse-scored).
<i>Extraversion</i>	The quantity and intensity of interpersonal interaction and activity level (Vakola et al., 2004, p. 91).
<i>Functional flexibility</i>	The propensity to fulfill different roles or complete different tasks in order to accommodate changes in work expectations (Atkinson, 1984) and "...the ability to adjust one's behavior to the interpersonal demands of a wide range of situations" (Paulhus & Martin, 1988, p. 91).
<i>Need for growth</i>	"Indicates employees' internal expectations and desires for what they will obtain from their work. Specifically, employees with higher growth need strength tend to value personal development and learning and thus enjoy more stimulating and challenging" (Shalley et al., 2009, p. 491).
<i>Need for structure</i>	"Refers to the tendency to perceive one's social environment in terms of simplified schemata, to avoid ambiguity and unpredictability, and to act in routine ways" (Meiser & Machunsky, 2008, p. 27) (reverse-scored).
<i>Openness to experience*</i>	Traits associated with this construct include intelligence, broad-mindedness, originality (in terms of ideas), curiosity, artistic sensitivity, imagination, culture (Barrick & Mount, 1991).
<i>Openness to change</i>	Personal values that "represent an emphasis on the proactive search for stimulation, novelty, and change as well as an emphasis on free and autonomous thinking and behavior" (Sverdlik & Oreg, 2009, p. 1439).
<i>Prevention focus</i>	Prioritization of loss minimization, avoidance-oriented goal pursuit, and duties/responsibilities. (Koopmann et al., 2019, pp. 630-631) (reverse-scored).
<i>Proactive personality</i>	The inclination to attempt to manipulate or control one's environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993).
<i>Promotion focus</i>	Prioritization of gain maximization, growth-orientation, ideal-/ aspiration-pursuit, and higher levels of achievement (Koopmann et al., 2019, pp. 630-631).
<i>Rigidity</i>	Defined as "strong tendencies toward behavioral consistency, to follow routines, to be inflexible and set in one's ways, and a general tendency to be skeptical of change in any form (Naus et al., 2007, p. 669).
<i>Risk aversion*</i>	Individual's propensity to "avoid risky scenarios" (Judge et al., 1999, p. 110) (reverse-scored).
<i>Tolerance for ambiguity*</i>	Individual's "tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable" (Budner, 1962, p. 29).

Note. \* Original dispositions from Judge et al. (1999).

DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 2. *Categorization and Definitions of Dispositions (continued)*

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<b>OTHER CHANGE-RELATED DISPOSITIONS</b>	
<i>Achievement-striving</i>	Personal value to seek success by demonstrating proficiency according to social norms (Schwartz, 1992).
<i>Agreeableness</i>	Personality traits associated with this construct include being forgiving, cooperative, tolerant, and good-natured (Barrick & Mount, 1991).
<i>Conscientiousness</i>	Personality traits associated with this construct include being organized, thorough, responsible, and self-disciplined (Barrick & Mount, 1991).
<i>Dispositional employability</i>	Disposition that predisposes “employees to (pro)actively adapt to their work and career environments. Employability facilitates the identification and realization of job and career opportunities both within and between organizations. Conceived this way, employability is a disposition that captures individual characteristics that foster adaptive behaviours and positive employment outcomes” (Fugate, 2006).
<i>Emotional intelligence</i>	One’s ability “to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer 1990, p. 189).
<i>Impression management</i>	General tendency “to create, maintain, protect, or otherwise alter an image held by a target audience” (Bolino et al., 2008, p. 1080).
<i>Machiavellianism</i>	A tendency to view the world in a “cynical, negative, and selfish [way]. [Those high on this trait] focus on short-term profit maximization and are inclined to defect from social relationships” (Belschak et al., 2020, p. 831).
<i>Mindfulness</i>	Individuals’ tendency to give “receptive attention to and awareness of external and internal present-moment states, events and experiences” (Leroy et al., 2013, p. 238).
<i>Need for affiliation/relatedness</i>	“Drive to form and maintain at least a minimum quantity of lasting, positive, and significant interpersonal relationships” (Baumeister & Leary, 1995, p. 497).
<i>Need for competitiveness</i>	Individuals’ tendency to demonstrate competency (Caldwell et al., 2009, p. 1416).
<i>Need for existence</i>	The drive to acquire the materials required for basic survival (Alderfer, 1969).
<i>Performance goal orientation</i>	“Disposition toward developing or validating one’s ability in achievement settings” (VandeWalle, 1997, p. 995).
<i>Political skill</i>	“The ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s own personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ferris et al., 2007, p. 291).
<i>Rebelliousness / Reactance</i>	A “motivational arousal that emerges when people experience a threat to or loss of their free behaviors. It serves as a motivator to restore one’s freedom” (Steindl et al., 2015, p. 205).

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## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 3. *Taxonomy of Change Types*

CHANGE CONTEXT	Definition
<b>Change Dimensions</b>	
<i>Degree: radical vs. incremental</i>	The distinction between organizational changes that engage practices that are a drastic departure from existing systems, values, structures, strategies, and practices, often requiring the adopting unit or organization to implement process and output changes (i.e., <i>radical</i> change, also <i>transformational</i> ) versus organizational changes that engender practices that minimally disrupt the organization's status quo, cultural values, organizational structure, and strategic goals (i.e., <i>incremental</i> change) (e.g., Dunphy & Stace, 1993; Levy, 1986; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006).
<i>Mode: continuous vs. episodic</i>	The distinction between organizational changes that are ongoing and evolving (i.e., <i>continuous</i> change) versus organizational changes that pertain to discrete, discontinuous, and infrequent changes ( <i>episodic</i> change) (e.g., Pettigrew et al., 2001; Weick & Quinn, 1999).
<i>Scope: multi-dimensional vs. narrow</i>	This dimension refers to the number of change initiatives being implemented. <i>Multi-dimensional</i> changes are ones in which several change initiatives are implemented concurrently, while <i>narrow</i> changes refer to isolated change initiatives (e.g., Kanitz et al., in press; Nadler & Tushman, 1989).
<i>Scale: organization-wide vs. peripheral</i>	The distinction between changes that engage or affect the entire organizational system (i.e., <i>organization-wide</i> ) or a subsystem within the organization, such as a department or division (i.e., <i>peripheral</i> ) (e.g., Nadler & Tushman, 1989).
<b>Change Types</b>	
<i>(De)merger and acquisition</i>	Two firms combining to form a single entity OR a firm separating into multiple independent entities.
<i>Restructure</i>	"Any major reconfiguration of internal administrative structure that is associated with an intentional management change program." (McKinley & Scherer, 2000, p. 736).
<i>Downsizing</i>	The permanent decreasing of an organization's labor force.
<i>Crisis</i>	"An organizational crisis is a low-probability, high-impact event that threatens the viability of the organization and is characterized by ambiguity of cause, effect, and means of resolution, as well as by a belief that decisions must be made swiftly" (Pearson & Clair, 1998, p. 60).
<i>New processes or activities</i>	Introduction of new ways of completing tasks (e.g., process re-engineering) or the introduction of new tasks to complete work (e.g., new tasks that are required with the introduction of a new product).
<i>Leadership-related</i>	Anything pertaining to adjustments to a major leadership role within an organization. These adjustments include (but are not limited to) changes to who possesses the leadership role or to the scope of responsibilities or agenda associated with the leader role.
<i>Physical relocation</i>	Requiring employees to move to a workspace at a new location while retaining them as members of the organization.
<i>Technological innovation</i>	An improved technological process for accomplishing tasks within an organization, such as the implementation of a new technology system across the organization.

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 4. *Literature Search: Controlled Vocabulary and Databases.*

Controlled Vocabulary	Databases
<p>(“organizational change” OR “organizational restructur*” OR “organizational crisis” OR “organizational crises” OR “workplace change” OR change (organizational) OR “organizational development” OR “downsiz*” OR merger OR acquisition OR re-organization OR “planned change” OR “new leader*” OR “new system*” OR “system implementation” OR “new work activit*” OR “new work process*” OR “environmental turbulence” OR divestiture)</p> <p>AND</p> <p>(trait OR personality OR “motivational orientation” OR “psychological state*” OR value* OR “psychological resource*” OR psychological OR resilienc* OR ego OR personal OR individual OR “psychological capital” OR self-efficacy OR efficacy OR hope OR optimism OR self-evaluation OR “core self-evaluation” OR self-esteem OR “locus of control” OR “ambiguity tolerance” OR “tolerance for ambiguity” OR “need for control” OR “personal control” OR mindfulness OR “regulatory focus” OR “big five” OR “big 5” OR “five factor personality model” OR “five-factor model” OR “5-factor model” OR “openness to experience” OR open-mindedness OR conscientiousness OR extraversion OR agreeableness OR neuroticism OR emotional stability OR cognitive ability OR mastery OR goal OR orientation OR “performance orientation” OR meta-cognition OR traits OR self-monitoring OR “empathetic concern” OR empathy OR adaptability OR “individual difference*” OR “psychological empowerment” OR empowerment (psychological) OR “freedom from self-denigration” OR cynicism OR “resistance to change” OR dispositional OR “growth need strength” OR “dispositional employability” OR “dispositional impression management” OR helplessness OR reactance OR rebelliousness OR “openness to change” OR “self-direction” OR stimulation OR “self-enhancement” OR hedonism OR “need for achievement” OR “achievement orientation” OR “need for power” OR conservation OR security OR conformity OR tradition* OR “self-transcendence” OR benevolence OR universalism)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• EBSCOHost (Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, APA PsycARTICLES, APA PsycINFO, OpenDissertations)</li> <li>• ProQuest (ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global)</li> </ul>

## DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 5. *Study Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.*

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion Criteria
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <u>Study population</u>: Employed adults (18+).</li><li>• <u>Study context</u>: Measures were administered during or immediately after (at least post-announcement) an organizational change.</li><li>• <u>Time range</u>: Articles published by December 2020.</li><li>• <u>Study designs</u>: All correlational, longitudinal, and experimental studies that fit the other criteria. Traits are theorized to be relatively stable, and generally precede behavior. The papers must provide or allow a calculation of the effect size.</li><li>• <u>Time periods in study</u>: Unrestricted – correlational data will allow us to understand impact of dispositions on with change responses and work outcomes. Longitudinal studies and single time period studies are included.</li><li>• <u>Publication criteria</u>: Published works, book chapters, dissertations and unpublished works are included (grey literature is included as well).</li><li>• <u>Geographic criteria</u>: Unrestricted.</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Study is not a quantitative empirical study (i.e., reviews, theoretical studies, and qualitative empirical pieces will be excluded).</li><li>• Study does not include primary data (to prevent overlapping samples from being included). Studies with similar authors will be reviewed for duplicate effects and excluded.</li><li>• Any study not in English, Chinese, Spanish, or Portuguese will be excluded.</li></ul>

DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 6. Variable Intercorrelations for Organizational Change Context Moderators.

	# of Samples Coded	Mean	SD	Phase						Type							
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12		
1. Before Implementation	(138)	.12	.32														
2. Degree	(113)	.77	.42	.00 (106)													
3. Mode	(95)	.19	.39	.18 (92)	-.23 *												
4. Scope	(94)	.73	.44	.13 (89)	.77 ***	-.23 *											
5. Number	(88)	2.22	1.42	-.01 (84)	.56 ***	-.33 **	.62 ***										
6. Scale	(109)	.83	.38	.01 (104)	.42 ***	-.24 *	.53 ***	.34 **									
7. Merger	(122)	.19	.39	.15 (115)	.23 *	-.06	.23 *	.25 *	.19 (103)								
8. Restructuring	(118)	.47	.50	-.14 (112)	.55 ***	-.36 ***	.58 ***	.49 ***	.30 **	.05 (114)							
9. Downsizing	(120)	.23	.42	-.01 (113)	.30 **	.20	.30 **	.17	.15 (103)	.07 (115)	.15 (113)						
10. New Process	(120)	.59	.49	-.11 (111)	-.11	-.14	-.06	.22 *	-.05 (102)	-.19 * (114)	-.09 (112)	-.28 *** (114)					
11. Leadership	(115)	.17	.38	-.17 (107)	.16	-.31 **	.09	.33 **	-.02 (99)	.08 (110)	.20 * (108)	-.21 * (110)	.05 (112)				
12. Relocation	(124)	.13	.34	.27 ** (115)	-.01	.04	.14	.15	-.02 (104)	-.12 (116)	.09 (113)	.07 (115)	.03 (118)	.02 (113)			
13. Technology	(111)	.18	.39	.05 (104)	-.39 ***	.08	-.11	-.08	.05 (97)	-.16 (107)	-.16 (104)	-.08 (106)	.12 (107)	-.16 (106)	.14 (108)		

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ .

Note. The sample size ( $k$ ) is reported below each correlation. Organizational change dimensions were coded as (1) Before Implementation (1 = Before, 0 = After); (2) Degree (1 = Radical, 0 = Incremental); (3) Mode (1 = Continuous; 0 = Episodic); (4) Scope (1 = Multidimensional, 0 = Narrow); (5) Number (the number of changes); (6) Scale (1 = Organization-wide, 0 = Peripheral).



DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Table 7. Three-level Meta-Analytic Results of Positive-Self Concept as a Predictor of Change and Work Outcomes.

Outcome	k	ES	N	Uncorrected				Heterogeneity Statistics						Publication Bias	
				Mean r	SE(r)	95% CI	95% PI	$\tau^2$ -TOTAL	$\tau^2$ -Lv11	$\tau^2$ -Lv12	$\tau^2$ -Lv13	I <sup>2</sup> -Lv11	I <sup>2</sup> -Lv12	I <sup>2</sup> -Lv13	Peters' Regression Test
<u>Explicit Change Responses</u>															
<i>Valenced Change Response</i>															
Negative Change Response	22	72	6,666	-.23	.03	[-.30, -.17]	[-.53, .07]	.026	.004	.001	.021	15.19%	4.18%	80.63%	F(1, 70) = .28
Positive Change Response	58	199	17,010	.30	.02	[.26, .34]	[-.07, .67]	.038	.003	.022	.013	7.64%	57.73%	34.63%	F(1, 197) = 2.48
<i>Other Change Responses</i>															
Change Fairness Perceptions	6	20	947	.07	.06	[-.07, .20]	[-.29, .42]	.029	.004	.011	.014	13.90%	38.82%	47.28%	-
Change Impact Perceptions	5	6	1,639	.18	.08	[-.02, .39]	[-.30, .66]	.032	.003	.000	.029	9.39%	0.00%	90.61%	-
<i>Change-Related Coping</i>															
Active or Problem	18	63	4,038	.25	.05	[.16, .35]	[-.16, .67]	.045	.004	.010	.031	9.26%	21.96%	68.78%	F(1, 61) = .18
Emotion	5	13	713	.02	.11	[-.22, .26]	[-.57, .62]	.069	.007	.008	.054	10.14%	11.18%	78.68%	-
Avoidance	6	14	1,146	-.10	.05	[-.21, .01]	[-.39, .19]	.021	.005	.006	.010	24.52%	26.84%	48.64%	-
Change Uncertainty Perceptions	6	9	943	-.26	.06	[-.40, -.12]	[-.67, .15]	.033	.005	.028	.000	16.37%	83.63%	0.00%	-
<u>Well-Being</u>															
Burnout and Stress	24	53	6,742	-.19	.05	[-.29, -.10]	[-.69, .30]	.063	.004	.020	.040	6.22%	30.92%	62.86%	F(1, 51) = .48
Negative Affect	6	7	1,332	-.14	.12	[-.43, .14]	[-.87, .58]	.079	.005	.000	.074	6.11%	0.00%	93.89%	-
Positive Affect	6	9	1,379	.35	.06	[.21, .48]	[.01, .69]	.022	.004	.000	.018	18.36%	0.00%	81.64%	-
Well-Being	7	18	2,895	.25	.04	[.16, .33]	[-.12, .61]	.030	.002	.028	.000	7.74%	92.26%	0.00%	-
<u>Work Outcomes</u>															
<i>Job Attitudes</i>															
Job Insecurity	11	21	5,457	-.22	.07	[-.37, -.07]	[-.78, .34]	.069	.002	.034	.033	3.41%	49.26%	47.33%	F(1, 19) = 7.83 *
Job Satisfaction	31	61	7,465	.26	.02	[.21, .30]	[.004, .51]	.019	.003	.010	.006	17.88%	51.70%	30.42%	F(1, 59) = .91
Organizational Commitment	20	37	5,818	.30	.04	[.23, .38]	[-.07, .67]	.034	.002	.019	.012	7.12%	57.16%	35.72%	F(1, 35) = 7.24 *
Organizational Identification	3	3	479	.11	.05	[-.08, .31]	-	.006	.006	.000	.000	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	-
Turnover Intention	23	42	6,053	-.17	.04	[-.25, -.10]	[-.51, .16]	.031	.004	.006	.021	13.99%	18.51%	67.50%	F(1, 40) = 5.60 *
Work Engagement	8	23	2,667	.43	.08	[.26, .59]	[-.07, .92]	.053	.002	.002	.050	2.94%	2.98%	94.09%	-
<i>Other Work Outcomes</i>															
Role Stressors	10	30	2,216	-.23	.03	[-.29, -.18]	[-.48, .02]	.018	.004	.014	.000	20.98%	76.49%	2.53%	F(1, 28) = .38
Absenteeism/Withdrawal	3	9	523	-.14	.07	[-.30, .02]	-	.020	.005	.003	.012	27.17%	13.44%	59.39%	-
Job Performance	19	44	4,492	.23	.05	[.14, .32]	[-.20, .65]	.047	.005	.018	.024	10.57%	37.66%	51.77%	F(1, 42) = 5.18 *
Turnover	6	15	1,299	-.08	.03	[-.13, -.02]	[-.19, .03]	.007	.005	.000	.002	70.67%	0.00%	29.33%	-

Note. k = number of samples; ES = the number of effect sizes nested within each sample; N = total sample size; Mean r = mean correlation estimate based on the three-level model; SE = the standard error of the estimate; CI = confidence interval for the mean correlation estimate; PI = prediction interval for the dispersion of true effects for k>4;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance of true effects in total and for each level in the model (Lv11 = Level 1 =, Lv12 = Level 2, Lv13 = Level 3); I<sup>2</sup> = proportion of the variance that is attributed to true variation between studies in total and for each level in the model. Peters' Regression Test (2006) was used to assess publication bias for k>9.

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Table 8. Three-level Meta-Analytic Results of Risk Tolerance as a Predictor of Change and Work Outcomes.

Outcome	k	ES	N	Uncorrected				Heterogeneity Statistics						Publication Bias	
				Mean r	SE(r)	95% CI	95% PI	$\tau^2$ -TOTAL	$\tau^2$ -Lvl1	$\tau^2$ -Lvl2	$\tau^2$ -Lvl3	I <sup>2</sup> -Lvl1	I <sup>2</sup> -Lvl2	I <sup>2</sup> -Lvl3	Peters' Regression Test
<u>Explicit Change Responses</u>															
<i>Valenced Change Response</i>															
Negative Change Response	12	25	2,517	-.21	.05	[-.31, -.11]	[-.57, .15]	.032	.005	.009	.018	14.82%	29.25%	55.93%	F(1, 23) = .16
Positive Change Response	35	77	7,283	.22	.02	[.18, .26]	[-.07, .51]	.024	.004	.015	.006	16.92%	60.16%	22.92%	F(1, 75) = .11
<i>Other Change Responses</i>															
Change Fairness Perceptions	2	3	245	.20	.05	[-.02, .42]	-	.008	.007	.000	.000	95.81%	4.19%	0.00%	-
Change Impact Perceptions	5	5	1,711	.04	.10	[-.25, .33]	[-.64, .72]	.053	.003	.025	.025	6.01%	46.99%	46.99%	-
<i>Change-Related Coping</i>															
Active or Problem	6	12	1,155	.21	.09	[.00, .41]	[-.33, .74]	.055	.004	.011	.039	8.17%	20.69%	71.14%	-
Emotion	2	2	270	-.03	.20	[-1.00, 1.00]	-	.076	.008	.034	.034	10.88%	44.56%	44.56%	-
Avoidance	2	2	270	-.09	.06	[-.86, .68]	-	.008	.008	.000	.000	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	-
Change Uncertainty Perceptions	3	4	409	-.20	.10	[-.54, .13]	-	.033	.007	.000	.027	19.67%	0.00%	80.33%	-
<u>Well-Being</u>															
Burnout and Stress	6	10	1,273	-.15	.13	[-.44, .13]	[-.88, .58]	.092	.003	.001	.088	3.47%	0.58%	95.96%	-
Negative Affect	2	2	417	-.23	.06	[-.96, .51]	-	.007	.005	.001	.001	69.89%	15.05%	15.05%	-
Positive Affect	3	3	518	.27	.10	[-.14, .67]	-	.027	.005	.011	.011	20.12%	39.94%	39.94%	-
Well-Being	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<u>Work Outcomes</u>															
<i>Job Attitudes</i>															
Job Insecurity	3	4	591	-.11	.14	[-.56, .35]	-	.081	.005	.076	.000	5.93%	94.07%	0.00%	-
Job Satisfaction	12	15	2,752	.09	.04	[.01, .17]	[-.17, .35]	.017	.004	.008	.005	22.50%	45.32%	32.18%	F(1, 13) = .45
Organizational Commitment	12	20	3,090	.07	.04	[-.01, .14]	[-.25, .38]	.025	.004	.021	.000	16.99%	83.01%	0.00%	F(1, 18) = .92
Organizational Identification	4	7	429	-.05	.07	[-.22, .12]	-	.024	.012	.000	.012	50.06%	0.00%	49.94%	-
Turnover Intention	8	10	1,427	-.07	.03	[-.14, -.001]	[-.21, .07]	.009	.006	.003	.000	66.13%	33.87%	0.00%	-
Work Engagement	5	13	1,460	.20	.09	[.004, .39]	[-.47, .87]	.091	.004	.087	.000	4.70%	95.30%	0.00%	-
<i>Other Work Outcomes</i>															
Role Stressors	4	6	532	-.02	.12	[-.32, .29]	-	.082	.007	.075	.000	8.31%	91.69%	0.00%	-
Absenteeism/Withdrawal	2	4	207	-.07	.05	[-.23, .09]	-	.011	.011	.000	.000	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	-
Job Performance	12	42	2,103	.16	.04	[.08, .24]	[-.09, .40]	.017	.004	.003	.010	22.09%	18.04%	59.87%	F(1, 40) = .31
Turnover	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. k = number of samples; ES = the number of effect sizes nested within each sample; N = total sample size; Mean r = mean correlation estimate based on the three-level model; SE = the standard error of the estimate; CI = confidence interval for the mean correlation estimate; PI = prediction interval for the dispersion of true effects for k>4;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance of true effects in total and for each level in the model (Lvl1 = Level 1, Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); I<sup>2</sup> = proportion of the variance that is attributed to true variation between studies in total and for each level in the model. Peters' Regression Test (2006) was used to assess publication bias for k>9.

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Table 9. Comparing the Two Dispositional Factors.

Positive Self-Concept versus Risk Tolerance	Valenced Change Responses			Well-Being			Job Attitudes			Job Performance		
	<i>B</i>	95% CI		<i>B</i>	95% CI		<i>B</i>	95% CI		<i>B</i>	95% CI	
Intercept	.24	[.19, .28]	***	.24	[.11, .37]	***	.12	[.06, .17]	***	.19	[.10, .29]	***
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.06	[.01, .10]	**	-.02	[-.15, .11]		.15	[.09, .21]	***	.03	[-.06, .12]	
	<i>k / ES</i>	87 / 373		37 / 102			77 / 256			25 / 86		
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.029 / .025			.019 / .015			.026 / .008		
<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (371) = 3301.70		***	<i>QE</i> (100) = 1315.08		***	<i>QE</i> (254) = 2724.89		***	<i>QE</i> (84) = 606.60		***
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	
Positive Self-Concept	.29	[.25, .33]	***	.21	[.14, .29]	***	.27	[.22, .31]	***	.23	[.14, .32]	***
	<i>k / ES</i>	68 / 271		33 / 87			61 / 187			19 / 44		
Risk Tolerance	.22	[.18, .26]	***	.18	[.01, .36]	*	.09	[.04, .14]	**	.16	[.08, .24]	***
	<i>k / ES</i>	41 / 102		9 / 15			28 / 69			12 / 42		

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; Mean *r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; CI = confidence interval for Mean *r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

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Table 10. Moderator Analyses: Organizational Change Stage and Dimensions (1 of 2)

Measured Before or During Implementation	Valenced Change Responses			Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance			
	B	95% CI		B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI		
Intercept	.25	[.21, .30]	***	-	-	.09	[.02, .15]	*	-	-	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .08]		-	-	.17	[.10, .24]	***	-	-	
Factor: Before	-.10	[-.20, -.003]	*	-	-	.04	[-.09, .17]		-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	70 / 284		33 / 90		64 / 204		22 / 80			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3}$ / $\tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.009 / .017		-		.017 / .016		-			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (281) = 1738.77	***	-		<i>QE</i> (201) = 2030.69	***	-			
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		
Before Implementation	.17	[.05, .29]	**	-	-	.22	[.04, .39]	*	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	10 / 27		3 / 5		7 / 21		0 / 0			
During Implementation	.28	[.24, .31]	***	-	-	.21	[.17, .26]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	60 / 257		30 / 85		57 / 183		22 / 80			
<b>Degree: Radical versus Incremental</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		
Intercept	.22	[.15, .30]	***	-	-	.13	[.01, .25]	*	.12	[-.03, .27]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.02	[-.02, .07]		-	-	.16	[.08, .24]	***	.01	[-.08, .11]	
Factor: Radical	.03	[-.05, .11]		-	-	-.04	[-.16, .08]		.11	[-.06, .28]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	63 / 247		26 / 79		53 / 171		11 / 26			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3}$ / $\tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.012 / .012		-		.023 / .015		.039 / .000			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (244) = 1460.58	***	-		<i>QE</i> (168) = 1938.43	***	<i>QE</i> (72) = 443.22	***		
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		
Radical	.27	[.23, .30]	***	-	-	.22	[.16, .28]	***	.25	[.12, .38]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	48 / 195		22 / 71		39 / 135		11 / 26			
Incremental	.24	[.15, .33]	***	-	-	.26	[.14, .37]	***	.13	[.02, .24]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	15 / 52		4 / 8		14 / 36		8 / 49			
<b>Mode: Continuous versus Episodic</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		
Intercept	.22	[.16, .28]	***	.20	[.03, .37]	*	.07	[-.02, .16]	.17	[.04, .30]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.01	[-.05, .08]		-.01	[-.18, .15]		.17	[.08, .27]	***	.03	[-.07, .13]
Factor: Continuous	.08	[-.02, .18]		.08	[-.07, .23]		.01	[-.12, .14]		.06	[-.15, .27]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	47 / 161		22 / 63		48 / 159		17 / 74			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3}$ / $\tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.014 / .010		.007 / .038		.022 / .016		.030 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (158) = 863.86	***	<i>QE</i> (60) = 824.73	***	<i>QE</i> (156) = 1769.08	***	<i>QE</i> (71) = 374.17	***		
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		
Continuous	.31	[.25, .38]	***	.29	[.20, .39]	***	.23	[.15, .32]	***	.26	[.04, .48]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	12 / 38		6 / 16		9 / 35		5 / 13			
Episodic	.23	[.18, .28]	***	.19	[.11, .26]	***	.20	[.14, .27]	***	.19	[.08, .30]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	35 / 123		16 / 47		39 / 124		12 / 61			

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ ,  $\cdot$   $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; Mean *r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; CI = confidence interval for Mean *r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

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Table 10. Moderator Analyses: Organizational Change Stage and Dimensions (2 of 2)

Scope: Multi-dimensional versus Narrow	Valenced Change Responses		Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance					
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI				
Intercept	.19	[.11, .28]	***	.32	[.12, .53]	**	.19	[.06, .33]	**	.11	[-.02, .25]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.04	[-.01, .10]		-.10	[-.26, .06]		.10	[.01, .19]	*	.03	[-.07, .12]	
Factor: Multi-dimensional	.05	[-.04, .15]		-.01	[-.18, .16]		-.07	[-.20, .06]		.14	[-.04, .31]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	49 / 181		25 / 75		48 / 155		18 / 75				
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.015 / .006		.007 / .031		.026 / .012		.025 / .008				
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (178) = 894.54	***	<i>QE</i> (72) = 875.38	***	<i>QE</i> (152) = 1746.30	***	<i>QE</i> (72) = 381.25	***			
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	
Multidimensional	.28	[.23, .33]	***	.22	[.15, .29]	***	.20	[.13, .27]	***	.28	[.13, .43]	***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	36 / 136		20 / 66		35 / 122		9 / 25				
Narrow	.21	[.14, .29]	***	.23	[.12, .35]	**	.28	[.18, .37]	***	.13	[.03, .23]	*
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	13 / 45		5 / 9		13 / 33		9 / 50				
<b>Number</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	
Intercept	.18	[.10, .26]	***	.26	[.10, .41]	**	.09	[-.02, .20]		.05	[-.14, .23]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.02	[-.04, .08]		-.07	[-.19, .06]		.09	[-.01, .19]	.	.00	[-.11, .11]	
Number of Changes	.03	[-.001, .06]	.	.01	[-.02, .05]		.02	[-.02, .06]		.09	[.003, .18]	*
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	43 / 147		25 / 71		46 / 126		17 / 66				
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .008		.001 / .028		.019 / .020		.025 / .009				
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (144) = 696.62	***	<i>QE</i> (68) = 755.39	***	<i>QE</i> (123) = 1081.92	***	<i>QE</i> (63) = 283.90	**			
<b>Scale: Organization-wide versus Peripheral</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>		<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	
Intercept	.19	[.10, .28]	***	-	-		.12	[-.04, .28]		.13	[-.03, .28]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.04	[-.01, .09]		-	-		.18	[.08, .28]	***	.02	[-.08, .12]	
Factor: Organization-wide	.05	[-.04, .15]		-	-		-.06	[-.20, .09]		.10	[-.08, .28]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	59 / 256		25 / 70		48 / 159		17 / 71				
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.008 / .019		-		.023 / .016		.024 / .009				
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (253) = 1559.12	***	-		<i>QE</i> (156) = 1775.54	***	<i>QE</i> (68) = 386.73	***			
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI		Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	
Organization-wide	.27	[.23, .31]	***	-	-		.21	[.15, .26]	***	.26	[.13, .38]	***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	49 / 217		24 / 69		41 / 138		11 / 26				
Peripheral	.21	[.12, .31]	***	-	-		.28	[.10, .46]	**	.13	[.02, .25]	*
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	10 / 39		1 / 1		7 / 21		6 / 45				

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; Mean *r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; CI = confidence interval for Mean *r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

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Table 11. Moderator Analyses: Organizational Change Types (1 of 2)

	Valenced Change Responses		Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance					
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI				
<b>(De)Merger or Acquisition</b>												
Intercept	.24	[.18, .29]	***	.24	[.09, .39]	**	.11	[.04, .18]	**	-	-	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.04	[-.02, .09]		-.03	[-.17, .11]		.13	[.06, .20]	***	-	-	
Factor: (De)Merger or Acquisition	-.01	[-.10, .08]		-.04	[-.23, .16]		.02	[-.10, .14]		-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>									22	81	
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.010 / .020		.032 / .026		.018 / .016				-	-	
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (244) = 1530.61	***	<i>QE</i> (86) = 1177.02	***	<i>QE</i> (202) = 2051.44	***			-	-	
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
(De)Merger or Acquisition	.26	[.18, .34]	***	.17	[-.07, .41]		.22	[.13, .32]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	14 / 41		6 / 16		7 / 37		3 / 12		-	-	
Other	.26	[.22, .30]	***	.21	[.12, .29]	***	.21	[.16, .26]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	47 / 206		24 / 73		54 / 168		19 / 69		-	-	
<b>Restructure</b>												
Intercept	.23	[.17, .28]	***	.09	[-.10, .27]		.15	[.06, .23]	**	.15	[.03, .27]	*
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .08]		-.05	[-.19, .09]		.12	[.05, .20]	**	.04	[-.06, .13]	
Factor: Restructure	.03	[-.04, .09]		.22	[.04, .39]	*	-.05	[-.13, .04]		.11	[-.06, .29]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	63 / 264		27 / 84		57 / 188		22 / 81		-	-	
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.009 / .019		.025 / .028		.020 / .014		.027 / .008		-	-	
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (261) = 1663.36	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 1074.23	***	<i>QE</i> (185) = 1757.04	***	<i>QE</i> (78) = 366.00	***	-	-	
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Restructure	.27	[.23, .31]	***	.24	[.19, .29]	***	.19	[.14, .24]	***	.29	[.14, .44]	**
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	27 / 121		19 / 66		28 / 86		7 / 17		-	-	
Other	.25	[.19, .30]	***	.08	[-.18, .34]	***	.25	[.17, .33]	***	.18	[.07, .28]	**
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	36 / 143		8 / 18		29 / 102		15 / 64		-	-	
<b>Downsizing</b>												
Intercept	.23	[.18, .28]	***	.24	[.09, .38]	**	.12	[.04, .19]	**	-	-	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .08]		-.03	[-.18, .11]		.12	[.05, .20]	**	-	-	
Factor: Downsizing	.04	[-.05, .14]		-.06	[-.26, .15]		.03	[-.06, .12]		-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	63 / 274		29 / 85		58 / 189		22 / 81		-	-	
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.009 / .019		.035 / .028		.020 / .014		-		-	-	
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (271) = 1726.63	***	<i>QE</i> (82) = 1168.95	***	<i>QE</i> (186) = 1894.38	***			-	-	
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Downsizing	.30	[.20, .40]	***	.14	[.02, .26]	*	.25	[.18, .33]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	9 / 37		6 / 19		18 / 65		4 / 11		-	-	
Other	.25	[.22, .29]	***	.22	[.12, .32]	***	.20	[.15, .26]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	54 / 237		23 / 66		40 / 124		18 / 70		-	-	

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; *Mean r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; *CI* = confidence interval for *Mean r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lv12 = Level 2, Lv13 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

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Table 11. Moderator Analyses: Organizational Change Types (2 of 2)

New Processes or Activities	Valenced Change Responses		Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance					
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI				
Intercept	.25	[.18, .31]	***	.20	[.02, .39]	*	.11	[.02, .20]	*	.26	[.10, .41]	**
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.04	[-.02, .10]		-.03	[-.16, .11]		.12	[.05, .20]	**	.03	[-.07, .13]	
Factor: New Process	-.02	[-.09, .05]		.04	[-.13, .21]		.02	[-.08, .11]		-.10	[-.27, .08]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>											
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$											
	61 / 245			32 / 91			58 / 186			22 / 81		
	.007 / .022			.034 / .027			.020 / .014			.030 / .008		
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (242) = 1577.31	***	<i>QE</i> (88) = 1257.74	***	<i>QE</i> (183) = 1861.16	***	<i>QE</i> (78) = 558.49	***			
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
New Processes or Activities	.26	[.22, .30]	***	.21	[.12, .31]	***	.23	[.16, .29]	***	.18	[.05, .31]	**
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			22 / 63			37 / 114			14 / 54		
Other	.27	[.21, .33]	***	.18	[.02, .33]	*	.20	[.14, .26]	***	.24	[.14, .34]	***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			10 / 28			21 / 72			8 / 27		
<b>Leader-Related</b>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Intercept	.24	[.18, .29]	***	.17	[.03, .32]	*	.12	[.04, .19]	**	-	-	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .08]		-.03	[-.16, .10]		.13	[.05, .20]	**	-	-	
Factor: Leader	.02	[-.08, .11]		.17	[.01, .33]	*	.01	[-.12, .14]		-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			31 / 91			57 / 187			20 / 78		
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$			.027 / .026			.020 / .014			-		
	.010 / .019			.027 / .026			.020 / .014			-		
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (256) = 1649.27	***	<i>QE</i> (88) = 1117.20	***	<i>QE</i> (184) = 1900.73	***			-		
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Leader-Related	.29	[.20, .37]	***	.31	[.25, .36]	***	.25	[.15, .35]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			9 / 24			8 / 24			3 / 7		
Other	.26	[.22, .29]	***	.15	[.05, .25]	**	.22	[.16, .27]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			22 / 67			49 / 163			17 / 71		
<b>Physical Relocation</b>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Intercept	.25	[.20, .30]	***	.23	[.10, .37]	**	.13	[.06, .21]	***	-	-	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .08]		-.03	[-.16, .11]		.12	[.04, .20]	**	-	-	
Factor: Physical relocation	-.11	[-.23, .01]		.02	[-.18, .21]		-.04	[-.15, .08]		-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			34 / 96			58 / 184			20 / 76		
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$			.033 / .026			.020 / .015			-		
	.008 / .020			.033 / .026			.020 / .015			-		
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (281) = 1896.38	***	<i>QE</i> (93) = 1300.87	***	<i>QE</i> (181) = 1891.69	***			-		
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Physical Relocation	.15	[.03, .28]	*	.21	[.15, .28]	***	.18	[.07, .29]	**	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			6 / 25			10 / 28			3 / 5		
Other	.27	[.24, .31]	***	.21	[.12, .30]	***	.23	[.18, .28]	***	-	-	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			28 / 71			48 / 156			17 / 71		
<b>Technological Innovation</b>	<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Intercept	.25	[.20, .30]	***	.23	[.09, .37]	**	.11	[.02, .20]	*	.15	[.03, .28]	*
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.03	[-.02, .07]		-.04	[-.18, .11]		.14	[.05, .22]	**	.04	[-.07, .15]	
Factor: Technological Innovation	-.01	[-.10, .09]		.08	[-.08, .24]		-.03	[-.16, .10]		.15	[-.06, .36]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			28 / 82			55 / 178			18 / 69		
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$			.006 / .031			.020 / .018			.026 / .009		
	.013 / .009			.006 / .031			.020 / .018			.026 / .009		
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (230) = 1278.93	***	<i>QE</i> (79) = 903.07	***	<i>QE</i> (175) = 1966.93	***	<i>QE</i> (66) = 400.37	***			
<i>Subgroups</i>	<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>		<i>Mean r</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
Technological Innovation	.27	[.16, .37]	***	.27	[.18, .36]	***	.15	[.06, .25]	**	.33	[-.04, .71]	.
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			5 / 10			10 / 20			5 / 26		
Other	.27	[.23, .31]	***	.20	[.14, .26]	***	.22	[.17, .28]	***	.17	[.11, .23]	***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>			23 / 72			45 / 158			13 / 43		

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; *Mean r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; *CI* = confidence interval for *Mean r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

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Table 12. Moderator Analyses: National Context Indicators

	Valenced Change Responses		Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance				
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI			
<b>Power Distance</b>											
Intercept	.23	[.12, .34]	***	.10	[-.59, .79]	.07	[-.10, .24]	-.33	[-.86, .20]		
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.05	[.01, .10]	*	-.03	[-.17, .10]	.14	[.08, .20]	***	.03	[-.06, .12]	
Power Distance	.03	[-.21, .26]		.36	[-1.39, 2.11]	.12	[-.29, .53]		1.28	[-.001, 2.57]	
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	83 / 358		33 / 95		72 / 246		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.012 / .018		.031 / .026		.018 / .014		.023 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (355) = 3193.93	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1218.25	***	<i>QE</i> (243) = 2528.68	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 371.03	***		
<b>Individualism</b>											
Intercept	.20	[.10, .29]	***	.53	[.09, .97]	*	.10	[-.04, .24]	.58	[.28, .88]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.05	[.01, .10]	*	-.03	[-.16, .11]		.14	[.08, .20]	***	.02	[-.07, .11]
Individualism	.06	[-.05, .17]		-.35	[-.86, .16]		.02	[-.16, .19]		-.46	[-.80, -.12]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	83 / 358		33 / 95		72 / 246		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.029 / .026		.018 / .015		.018 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (355) = 3193.34	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1224.85	***	<i>QE</i> (243) = 2516.47	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 321.73	***		
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance</b>											
Intercept	.31	[.20, .42]	***	-.12	[-.54, .30]		.11	[-.04, .27]	-.36	[-.71, -.001]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.05	[.01, .10]	*	-.02	[-.15, .12]		.14	[.08, .20]	***	.02	[-.07, .11]
Uncertainty Avoidance	-.13	[-.31, .05]		.69	[-.08, 1.45]		.00	[-.25, .26]		1.11	[.40, 1.81]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	83 / 358		33 / 95		72 / 246		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.027 / .026		.019 / .015		.015 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (355) = 3133.14	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1129.32	***	<i>QE</i> (243) = 2510.75	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 298.84	***		
<b>Long-term Orientation</b>											
Intercept	.28	[.22, .35]	***	.12	[-.08, .32]		.05	[-.05, .14]	.03	[-.10, .17]	
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.06	[.01, .10]	*	-.01	[-.14, .13]		.15	[.09, .21]	***	.02	[-.07, .11]
Long-term Orientation	-.11	[-.24, .02]		.27	[-.06, .60]		.15	[-.01, .31]		.43	[.14, .71]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	83 / 358		33 / 95		72 / 246		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.028 / .026		.018 / .014		.015 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (355) = 3017.14	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1222.01	***	<i>QE</i> (243) = 2522.16	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 295.48	***		
<b>Indulgence</b>											
Intercept	.12	[-.01, .26]	.	.59	[.17, 1.00]	**	.32	[.11, .52]	**	.81	[.35, 1.28]
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.05	[.01, .09]	*	-.01	[-.15, .13]		.14	[.08, .20]	***	.02	[-.07, .11]
Indulgence	.21	[-.01, .42]	.	-.57	[-1.21, .08]	.	-.31	[-.63, .02]	.	-.95	[-1.65, -.25]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	79 / 350		33 / 95		69 / 237		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.010 / .018		.027 / .026		.017 / .014		.018 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (347) = 2821.17	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1156.23	***	<i>QE</i> (234) = 2473.35	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 325.84	***		
<b>Masculinity</b>											
Intercept	.15	[.01, .30]	*	.20	[-.14, .54]		.15	[.00, .30]	.	.43	[.12, .73]
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.05	[.01, .10]	*	-.03	[-.17, .10]		.14	[.08, .20]	***	.03	[-.06, .12]
Masculinity	.16	[-.09, .41]		.06	[-.48, .61]		-.07	[-.33, .19]		-.42	[-.93, .09]
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	83 / 358		33 / 95		72 / 246		24 / 84			
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.032 / .026		.018 / .014		.023 / .008			
	<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (355) = 3219.83	***	<i>QE</i> (92) = 1200.64	***	<i>QE</i> (243) = 2440.67	***	<i>QE</i> (81) = 437.60	***		

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; Mean *r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; CI = confidence interval for Mean *r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lvl2 = Level 2, Lvl3 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.



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Table 13. Moderator Analyses: Methodological Moderators

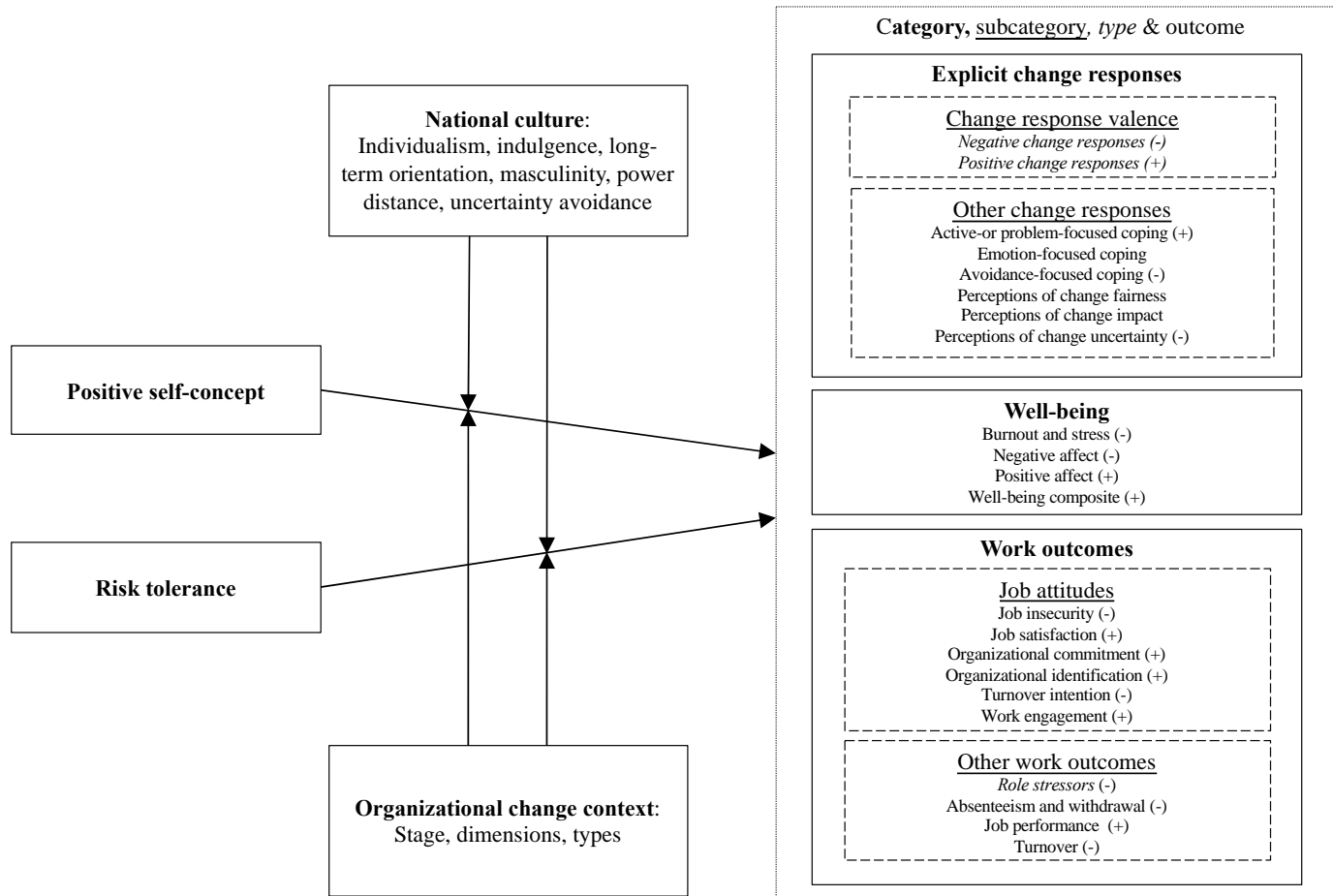
Single Source	Valenced Change Responses		Well-Being		Job Attitudes		Job Performance	
	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI	B	95% CI
Intercept	-	-	-	-	-	-	.05	[-.04, .13]
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	-	-	-	-	-	-	.04	[-.04, .12]
Single-Source DV	-	-	-	-	-	-	.22	[.13, .32] ***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	86 / 372	37 / 102		77 / 256		25 / 86	
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	-	-	-	-	-	.007 / .009	
<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	<i>QE</i> (83) = 367.80	***
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI
Single-Source DV	-	-	-	-	-	-	.30	[.20, .39] ***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	85 / 367	37 / 102		76 / 254		17 / 32	
Other-Report (or Objective) DV	-	-	-	-	-	-	.06	[.01, .11] *
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	3 / 5	0 / 0		1 / 2		9 / 54	
<b>Concurrent (if from a single source)</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>95% CI</b>
Intercept	.19	[-.12, .26]	***	.14	[-.03, .31]	.	.00	[-.09, .08]
Factor: Positive Self-Concept	.06	[.02, .10]	**	-.02	[-.15, .11]		.16	[.10, .21] ***
Concurrent (only if single-source)	.05	[-.02, .12]		.11	[-.02, .24]	.	.13	[.06, .21] ***
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	85 / 367		37 / 102		75 / 250		17 / 32
	$\tau^{2-Lvl3} / \tau^{2-Lvl2}$	.011 / .018		.031 / .024		.019 / .014		-
<i>Residual Heterogeneity</i>	<i>QE</i> (364) = 3218.06	***	<i>QE</i> (99) = 1312.97	***	<i>QE</i> (247) = 2702.76	***	-	
<i>Subgroups</i>	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI	Mean <i>r</i>	95% CI
Concurrent (only if single-source)	.29	[.25, .32]	***	.22	[.15, .30]	***	.24	[.20, .28] .
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	76 / 294		33 / 82		73 / 207		17 / 29
Non-concurrent	.25	[.18, .32]	***	.16	[-.001, .32]	.	.14	[-.01, .29] .
	<i>k</i> / <i>ES</i>	14 / 73		8 / 20		11 / 43		1 / 3

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*  $p < .05$ , ·  $p < .10$ .

Note. *k* (*ES*) = number of samples (*effect sizes*) in each analysis or each subgroup; *B* = unstandardized beta coefficient; Mean *r* = mean correlation estimate for each subgroup based on the three-level model; CI = confidence interval for Mean *r* or *B*;  $\tau^2$  = estimate of the variance components for each level in the model (Lv12 = Level 2, Lv13 = Level 3); *Residual heterogeneity* = *Q* statistic for the estimated amount of residual heterogeneity.

DISPOSITION ACTIVATION DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Figure 1. Model



Note. Our predictions regarding the direction of meta-analytic associations (+ or -) between positive self-concept and risk tolerance and each outcome is presented in parenthesis.

Figure 2. *Flowchart of Search Process*

