THERE ARE TWO SIDES TO EVERY STORY: THE VETERAN'S PERSPECTIVE ON SOCIALIZATION

by

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ABSTRACT

ALEXANDRA MARIE DUNN. There are two sides to every story: The veteran's perspective on socialization. (Under the direction of DR. LINDA SHANOCK)

Organizational socialization is a two-way interactive process where organizational outsiders become insiders and insiders adjust to working with outsiders. When carried out correctly, socialization is related to better newcomer adjustment (e.g., higher role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance), decreased newcomer turnover, and reduced resources used on future hiring efforts. Much of the extant research has focused on organizational socialization tactics, newcomer information seeking, and newcomer adjustment. Veterans' (coworkers who socialize newcomers) perceptions during the process have largely been ignored. Using socialization resources theory (SRT) (Saks & Gruman, 2012), the current study examines unexplored relationships between veterans' perceptions of resources (e.g., assimilation, socialization-related job demands, and knowledge self-efficacy), newcomer adjustment, and veteran well-being and job attitudes (e.g., emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment).

Data were collected from 115 matched veteran-newcomer pairs. Results suggest veteran's assessment knowledge self-efficacy was related to newcomer adjustment and veteran's well-being and job attitudes during socialization. An interesting non-significant finding was that most veterans (72%) did not perceive socialization as an added socialization-related job demand. This is encouraging because it suggests that veterans could view socialization positively and suggests an area for future research. These findings advance SRT by empirically testing the proposition that veterans are an important social capital resource for newcomers. It also extends SRT as it is one of the

first studies to incorporate veteran perceptions of the process. These results provide evidence to organizations that they need to pay attention to the veteran's role in the socialization process, particularly when it comes to newcomer's feelings of social acceptance and veteran's own well-being and job attitudes.

DEDICATION

There is no one else I would rather dedicate this to than my mom, Lynne, and my dad, Bill. Day in and day out, from 500+ miles away, I have felt nothing but love, support, and the confidence in me that I could do this when I sometimes lost that confidence myself. I love you both and I hope I can continue to make you proud. XXXOOO and to pieces…

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Whether employees are entering the workforce, starting a job at a new organization, or being transferred or promoted to a new role within an organization, newcomer adjustment is a frequent organizational process (Meister, 2012). Organizational socialization is the process by which newcomers make the transition from being organizational outsiders to insiders (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007) and become part of an organization's everyday activities (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). During this period of early entry, newcomers evaluate their new position and decide whether they "fit in", learn and retain relevant job skills, gain enough organizational understanding to function on their own, and attain varying levels of social support from supervisors and coworkers. It is both imperative and timely to understand the socialization process because individuals will change positions an average of 15 to 20 times during their careers and change organizations an average of six to eight times over the course of their working lives (Meister, 2012). This means that about 20% of the workforce is currently going through the socialization process at any point in time (Rollag, Parise, & Cross, 2005). Similarly, a recent report from the U.S. Labor Department found that with the rise in the economy since 2008, 57.5% of turnover was due to voluntarily leaving and starting new jobs (Zumbrun, 2014). These trends support the notion that organizational socialization is a topic of increasing importance to both researchers and practitioners.

Most socialization research has focused on such antecedents to newcomer adjustment as the role of the organization (e.g., socialization tactics), the role of the newcomer (e.g., proactivity and information-seeking), and the role of the supervisor (e.g.,

supervisor support). For example, many organizations have formalized orientation programs that teach newcomers about the policies and procedures of the organization. At the same time or in place of formal orientation programs, the supervisor may formally meet with the newcomer to set performance expectations and help the newcomer make sense of projects (Morrison, 2002). However, it is the newcomer's coworkers (veteran employees who have been socialized and are considered insiders (Feldman, 1994; Feldman, 2012)) who are often physically present and involved in the day-to-day training and information-sharing that occurs as the newcomer transitions into his or her new role. Consciously or unconsciously, organizations consistently rely on the lateral relationships between newcomers and veterans to facilitate the informal socialization process (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983). Over time, the interactions between newcomers and veterans are expected to ensure that newcomers adjust to their new roles as quickly and efficiently as possible (Feldman, 1994). These informal interactions tend to fill gaps left over from formal orientation and can be considered a primary mechanism through which socialization occurs (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Even though these veteran-newcomer relationships are crucial to the successful adjustment of the newcomer, socialization research has focused almost exclusively on the newcomer (Gallagher & Sias, 2009). In these newcomer-focused studies, researchers have assumed and conceptualized veterans as knowledgeable sources of information (Miller & Jablin, 1991) available at the newcomer's disposal and willing to share information. These studies have not, however, considered how veteran perceptions of the socialization process influence newcomer adjustment and veteran job attitudes. A goal of

the present study is to provide insights into the newcomer socialization experience from the veteran's perspective.

In my view, the socialization literature currently lacks: 1) an understanding of how the veteran may facilitate or hinder the socialization process and 2) veteran perceptions of the socialization process because the role of the veteran is often unanswered and "unasked" (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008). While previous studies have found positive relationships between veterans as a source of job-related information and newcomer adjustment (Morrison, 1993) and as a source of social support (Fisher, 1985), these studies have asked newcomers to provide their perceptions of the veteran's information-sharing and social support. This means that we still know little about how, from the veteran's perspective, veteran resources are related to newcomer adjustment.

This study contributes to the literature in several ways. In addition to the role of the most commonly studied predictor of newcomer adjustment, organizational socialization tactics, I examine how a job characteristic (veteran's socialization-related job demands) and an individual difference (veteran's knowledge self-efficacy) are related to the newcomer's perceptions of adjustment. By collecting data from veteran-newcomer dyads, this study will extend the socialization literature by examining veteran antecedents of newcomer adjustment that are out of the newcomer's control or perhaps even their awareness. This may also provide practical implications and nuanced insights for organizations and supervisors when trying to facilitate successful newcomer adjustment.

Next, I extend the socialization literature by considering how this new socialization perspective focusing on "the other side of the story" (the veteran) may be related to veteran well-being and job attitudes. More specifically, I explore how veteran

resources needed in the context of socialization relate to veteran well-being and job attitudes (e.g., emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment). I also introduce a potential antecedent of veteran resources, veteran assimilation, to better understand veteran's perceptions of resources. As a summary, this study examines (1) the relationship between new antecedents (veteran's resources) and newcomer adjustment during the socialization process and (2) the relationships between veteran resources and veteran well-being and job attitudes during the socialization process. Figure 1 depicts the proposed model (page 39).

SOCIALIZATION RESOURCES THEORY

Newcomer socialization

Socialization takes place any time that a newcomer crosses a new organizational boundary externally (i.e., entering a new organization) or internally (i.e., moving up the hierarchy, moving across functions, entering a new project team) (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Entering a new context is inherently ambiguous (Berger, 1979) and when newcomers start a new job, they are faced with many equivocal messages. The organization can play an important role in helping the newcomer understand what to pay attention to, what the organization values, and reducing ambiguity around what newcomers need to do to meet expectations and perform well on the job (Morrison, 1993a; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). By reducing this ambiguity and sending clear messages to the newcomer, newcomers are likely to become better adjusted. Thus, it is important for newcomers to make the transition to insider for reasons that are beneficial to both the individual and the organization.

For example, it is important that newcomers have positive experiences during early socialization because these early experiences are likely to affect long-term perceptions and feelings about working at the organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Positive work experiences are likely to trigger success cycles, while negative experiences, which may include being given random or less demanding assignments, not having someone to seek-information from, and not being given clear guidelines, are likely to trigger failure cycles (Ashforth et al., 2007). Similarly, early socialization experiences (e.g., feeling like newcomers' socialization needs are neglected and expectations are not met) have been linked to future negative attitudes and behaviors

including turnover (Wanous & Colella, 1989). Turnover, recruitment, and selection cost organizations significant amounts of money and organizations could save money by ensuring that newcomers are well adjusted.

Socialization resources theory

Socialization research erupted in the mid-1990s, but the research has been nonlinear, disjointed, and focused on a wide variety of topics. (See Appendix A for a full review of the history of socialization research). This inconsistency in the literature has led to the lack of a consistent theoretical framework guiding the socialization literature (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). As an attempt to rectify the lack of theoretical consistency, Saks and Gruman (2012) proposed socialization resources theory (SRT), an interdisciplinary framework drawing from psychology, management, and communication studies literatures (Cranmer, Goldman, & Booth-Butterfield, 2016). SRT argues that while transitioning to a new role is inherently challenging and stressful, providing newcomers with resources they need to overcome the challenge is the most effective way to foster adjustment and successful socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Using the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R model: Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) as the conceptual basis for SRT, Saks and Gruman propose that just like in everyday organizational life, the socialization environment can be divided into specific job demands and job resources.

The job demands inherent in starting a new job are anything physical, psychological, or social that requires physical or psychological effort. To minimize these job demands, SRT proposes a comprehensive set of resources that newcomers can draw from at various times throughout the socialization process (Saks & Gruman, 2012). These resources help achieve work goals, reduce anxieties, and increase learning and

development. Drawing from both the academic and practitioner literature, SRT consists of 17 dimensions linked to specific socialization events that can alleviate newcomer job demands and facilitate adjustment.

Following formal orientation and especially during the first six months, SRT argues that social capital resources are critical when helping newcomers transition (Cooper-Thomas, Paterson, Stadler, & Saks, 2014). Social capital gives newcomers access to training and development, recognition, feedback, and other resources that help newcomers become proficient in their work roles and integrated into various social groups (Fang, Mcallister, & Duffy, 2016; Saks & Gruman, 2012). SRT proposes four types of social capital including social events, socialization agents, supervisor support, and relationship development. The current study focuses on socialization agents defined as employees who have been with the organization, but are not in a supervisory role (i.e., veterans of the organization). These veterans are employees who have gone out of their way to help the newcomer learn their new role or become socially integrated (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

The current study draws upon and extends socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012). First, I attempt to replicate findings that illuminate the importance of formal assistance (i.e., organizational socialization tactics) as related to newcomer adjustment. Going one step further, I explore how one type of understudied social capital resource, socialization agents, influences newcomer adjustment. Despite SRT proposing various social capital resources as ways to increase newcomer adjustment, SRT has not considered how the perceptions and attitudes of the social capital resources relate to newcomer adjustment. More specifically, I examine how veteran's perceptions of their

own resources during the socialization process are related to newcomer adjustment. Finally, I extend SRT by examining how the socialization agents' (i.e., veterans) perceptions of the socialization process are related to veteran well-being and job attitudes. If researchers could identify and understand the veteran perceptions (i.e., social capital resources) critical to the newcomer adjustment process, then researchers could provide organizations and managers with insights into how to support veterans during the socialization process.

ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION TACTICS AND NEWCOMER ADJUSTMENT

Newcomer adjustment

Most research on socialization has focused on newcomer adjustment as the main criterion that determines if the socialization process has been successful. Newcomer adjustment is defined as the knowledge, self-efficacy, and motivation for performing a work role as well as forming a commitment to the organization's goals (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Others have defined adjustment as a learning process and thus, measured actual learning in terms of knowledge acquisition (e.g., Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). This line of research has attempted to measure specific aspects of learning directly related to the job (e.g., Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). However, measures of learning have not been used consistently across the socialization literature (Bauer et al., 2007). While there are some studies that have focused on learning specifically, this study will treat learning as part of the socialization process, which contributes to overall newcomer adjustment as the newcomer interprets their experience and begins to understand how to function effectively within the organization (Asforth & Saks, 1996; Fisher, 1986).

When newcomers enter an organization, they must work through a series of task and social transitions (Fisher, 1985). This means that to adjust, a newcomer needs to understand their new job tasks (role clarity), gain confidence in how they perform in their role (self-efficacy), and feel accepted and liked by peers (social acceptance) (Allen, 2006; Bauer et al., 2007). Thus, is it not surprising that in the socialization literature has typically assessed newcomer adjustment by examining role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance (Bauer et al., 2007). To be consistent with most socialization literature,

the current study will use these three commonly studied indicators of newcomer adjustment as separate constructs: role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance. These adjustment indicators are more proximal and more specific to the socialization process than some other distal and more global adjustment indicators that have been used (e.g., commitment and job satisfaction) (Allen, 2006). As newcomers go through both social and task transitions, newcomers progressively learn about time and resource allocation, which contributes to newcomers understanding of how to get their job done (role clarity), gain enough confidence to do their job on their own (self-efficacy), and get to know peers so that the newcomer feels accepted and liked (social acceptance).

Organizational socialization tactics

As soon as a potential candidate begins discussions with an organization, they start to form expectations about their new roles and the role within the environment (Ashforth et al., 2007). Depending on how accurately the newcomer's expectations about the role match the reality of the role, newcomers could be functional (expectations match the reality) or suffer from dysfunctional effects of "reality shock" (expectations do not match the reality) (Feldman, 1976). When expectations are unmet, reality shock can be a problem and manifest itself in negative newcomer behaviors, such as absenteeism or early turnover. However, when expectations are met, the effects of reality shock are weakened, and newcomers are likely to feel committed, satisfied, and have higher job performance (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995). From an organization's perspective, socialization tactics can be used to reduce uncertainty and anxiety, shape early experiences for newcomers, and reduce the potential negative outcomes of reality

shock by providing newcomers with knowledge and fostering positive attitudes (Allen, 2006).

Perhaps the most commonly studied antecedent of newcomer adjustment is organizational socialization tactics. As briefly discussed above, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) developed a framework of six bipolar socialization tactics. Organizations use these tactics (either passively or actively) as a way to influence newcomers (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006) and provide information to the newcomers about their new role (role clarity), their ability to do the job (self-efficacy), and their level of support (social acceptance). The tactics create either strong or weak situations under which newcomers adjust to their environments (Bauer et al., 2007) and learn what is expected of them. These tactics should structure the socialization process for newcomers and help them develop their role orientation, which subsequently relates to newcomer adjustment (Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed six bipolar socialization tactics used to structure early work experiences. As proposed by Jones (1986), these six tactics are most commonly organized into two gestalts at either extreme (institutionalized or individualized socialization) and each newcomer exists somewhere along that continuum (e.g., Jones, 1986; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; LaPointe et al., 2014; Perrot, Bauer, Abonneau, Campoy, Erdogan, & Liden, 2014). Jones (1986) also proposed that these six tactics could be organized into a higher order classification including three dimensions: content (collective and formal tactics), context (sequential and field tactics), and social (serial and investiture tactics). This higher order structure has not received as much attention as the overall gestalt (Bauer et al., 2007), but has been used in studies that are

interested in studies that make differential predictions about specific tactics being related to specific newcomer outcomes (e.g., Allen & Shanock, 2013; Cable & Parson, 2001). These tactics are described below.

1. *Collective versus individual:* Collective socialization occurs when newcomers are grouped together and put through a common set of experiences versus isolating newcomers and putting them through unique sets of experiences (Saks et al., 2007). An organization using collective socialization has newcomers enter the organization as a group or a cohort instead of having individual learning experiences. Collective tactics tend to send a common message to newcomers, reduce uncertainty about the role, and create a sense of shared values (Allen, 2006). For example, doctoral students tend to start graduate school as a cohort with several other new graduate students (collective) whereas a human resource professional switching organizations is likely to start their job on their own without other newcomers (individual).
2. *Formal versus informal:* Formal socialization occurs when newcomers are segregated from veteran organizational members during a defined socialization period (e.g., the first week or the first day) versus not clearly distinguishing newcomers from veterans (Saks et al., 2007). During formal socialization, newcomers may attend training classes that help them learn their new roles, provide a consistent message, and create shared values and reduce uncertainty (Allen, 2006). If the organization relies on informal tactics, the newcomer is likely to learn on-the-job during various undefined activities, which could vary from newcomer to newcomer.

3. *Sequential versus random:* Sequential socialization occurs when the organization creates a fixed sequence of discrete and identifiable steps that lead to full integration into the new role versus a random process that is ambiguous, continually changing, and lacking identifiable steps to starting the new role (Saks et al., 2007). For example, an organization using sequential socialization would let newcomers know the order of specific training in hopes of reducing uncertainty and reducing anxiety by using routines (Allen, 2006) whereas random tactics could increase uncertainty due to newcomers not knowing when or how they are going to be trained.
4. *Fixed versus variable:* Fixed socialization occurs when an organization or manager provides the newcomer with a timeline for the steps involved in gaining knowledge and the time it will take to gain this knowledge versus a process without a timeline for knowledge gain (Saks et al., 2007). When an organization uses fixed tactics, newcomers understand the specific timing of how they should progress through socialization stages (Allen, 2006), which should reduce uncertainty and anxiety. For example, newcomers going through the police academy know that the academy is 22 weeks long and that firearms training occurs in week ten whereas an event planner is likely to learn about new products and systems as they plan events for those products.
5. *Serial versus disjunctive:* During serial socialization, the newcomer is paired with a veteran that serves as a role model versus a disjunctive process where the newcomer is not purposefully paired with a veteran (Saks et al., 2007). When organizations make these pairings, the newcomer is provided with an immediate

relationship that can be used to help make sense of the new environment, acquire knowledge, and reduce uncertainty or anxiety (Allen, 2006). For example, a new accountant is likely to get assigned a more experienced counselor that they can meet with and some graduate programs pair new graduate students with more advanced doctoral students to help them make sense of their new environment.

6. *Investiture versus divestiture:* When investiture socialization is used, the organization affirms the identity of the newcomer versus with diverstiture socialization the organization disconfirms, denies, and strips the newcomer's current identity (Saks et al., 2007). Investiture tactics provide the newcomer with social support and feedback that should increase competence and confidence whereas divestiture tactics provide negative feedback and limited social support until newcomers adapt (Allen, 2006). For example, the army typically uses divestiture tactics to break newcomers down first and then build them back up on the army's values and performance standards.

Because differential predictions of outcomes based on specific socialization tactics are not the focus of the current study, they will be organized as a gestalt where the low end of the spectrum is defined as "individualized" and the high end of the spectrum is defined as "institutionalized". As Jones (1986) argues, newcomers will experience varying degrees of socialization tactics and will fall somewhere in between the extreme "institutionalized" end of the continuum and the "individualized" end of the continuum. Collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics form the institutionalized end of the continuum. These tactics create a more formalized socialization process and are used to influence newcomers to accept the status quo,

reduce uncertainty, and provide structure (Saks et al., 2007). Individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics are at the opposite, individualized end of the continuum. When individualized socialization tactics are used, the newcomer tends to develop their own approach to their new roles (Saks et al., 2007). Without the structure and formal processes in place, uncertainty and anxiety are likely to remain.

Because institutionalized socialization tactics should reduce uncertainty and anxiety, newcomers can more easily learn how to do their jobs (role clarity), gain confidence through social support, training, and resources (self-efficacy), and have the opportunity to interact with others (social acceptance). These things ease the transition from outsider to insider and increases feelings of acceptance. Previous research and meta-analyses have found positive relationships between institutionalized tactics and newcomer adjustment (i.e., role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance) (e.g., Allen, 2006; Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). Therefore, based on the preceding discussion, my first hypothesis aims to replicate previous research findings:

Hypothesis 1: Socialization tactics will be positively related to (a) role clarity, (b) self-efficacy, and (c) social acceptance.

VETERAN RESOURCES AND NEWCOMER ADJUSTMENT

Below, I start by introducing how and why veteran resources are related to newcomer adjustment. I use socialization resources theory as a guiding framework and draw from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) to argue that both the cognitive and emotional aspects of the socialization process need to be considered when examining relationships between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment. Then, I break down these arguments further, focus on, and define each veteran resource of interest (i.e., assimilation, socialization-related job demands, and knowledge self-efficacy) and hypothesize their relationships with newcomer adjustment.

Socialization resources theory and social learning theory

According to socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012), organizational socialization tactics are one type of resource that provide a formal framework for how the organization envisions and plans for newcomers to gain role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance. However, SRT also argues that social capital is important. In the little research to date on the role of veterans in the socialization process, newcomers report that organizational agents (i.e., veterans) help newcomers adjust because these veterans provide information and feedback, can be role models, and provide support for newcomers (Morrison, 2002). Newcomers have previously reported that veterans are a more useful source of knowledge, social support (Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Nelson & Quick, 1991), and normative and social information (Morrison, 1993b; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) compared to formal orientation programs and various

organizational socialization tactics, including orientation and training (Nelson & Quick, 1991; Louis et al., 1983).

Since these studies have been conducted, it has become a common assumption that newcomers can rely on veterans to give them accurate, helpful information and support them through the adjustment process. I test one of the underlying assumptions of socialization resources theory; that all veterans are useful agents during the socialization process. By examining veteran's own perceptions of their resources (i.e., socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy), we can better understand if these resources (or lack thereof) facilitate or hinder newcomer adjustment. For example, veterans may feel like they are too busy to help newcomers or they may not feel comfortable passing along knowledge to newcomers.

Socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012) argues that the veteran can facilitate or inhibit newcomer adjustment because the veteran is involved in the informal, everyday ins and outs of the newcomer adjustment process (Scott & Myers, 2005). While we know little from the veteran's perspective about how the socialization process fits into the newcomer's day-to-day socialization-related job demands and how comfortable veterans are with providing newcomers with information, we do know that newcomers are constantly interacting with and learning from those around them. Therefore, I draw from social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) to explain the links between veteran resources (i.e., socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy) and newcomer adjustment.

Social learning theory states that individuals' ideas, affect, and behavior are influenced by observation and direct experience. Individuals use information provided by

others, as well as symbols from the environment, to create and communicate information, analyze their experiences, and engage in forward thinking (Latham & Saari, 1979). Through observation and direct interactions with the environment, individual attitudes and behaviors are shaped. While newcomers learn from socialization tactics, research has shown that they also learn through day-to-day interactions with veterans (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Li, Harris, Boswell, & Xie, 2011; Reichers, 1987). These interactions give newcomers a chance to observe veterans in their roles while directly experiencing the new role themselves.

The information that newcomers receive from observations of and interactions with veterans is thus likely to influence newcomer adjustment. Specifically, newcomers can learn how to do their jobs (role clarity), gain confidence in how to do their job (self-efficacy), and receive signals about how well liked and supported they will be (social acceptance) by observing and getting feedback from veterans. Below, I provide more specific theoretical arguments for how veteran assimilation, socialization-related job demands, and knowledge self-efficacy (types of veteran resources) are related to newcomer adjustment.

Veteran socialization-related job demands and newcomer adjustment

As Feldman (2012) notes, "an underexplored topic in the research of socialization has been the time demands and role demands placed upon socialization agents" (p. 223). Socialization-related job demands are defined as workload stressors that are present in the work environment (Karasek, 1979). If done properly, newcomer socialization takes a significant amount of time, which equates to an increased workload for veterans who are

part of the process (Feldman, 1994). When socializing a newcomer gets added to a veteran's list of socialization-related job demands, it is possible that both veteran's formal prescribed (in-role) duties and their expectations to be good citizens (extra-role) increase. That is, veterans may be assigned to a newcomer as a mentor or asked by a supervisor to help the newcomer (i.e., potentially additional in-role duties). The veteran is also likely to be approached by the newcomer for information and providing the newcomer with the information may not be directly rewarded (i.e., potentially an additional extra-role duty). While it may not be explicitly written in their job duties and a formal mentorship program may not exist, supervisors are likely to depend on veterans to model and help newcomers learn their day-to-day job duties (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

One reason veteran socialization-related job demands have the potential to play a key role in newcomer adjustment is that such an added demand, in the context of socializing newcomers, could mean the veteran experiences *role overlaod.* Role overload has previously been related to job stress (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2005), feelings of frustration, and impatience with others (Feldman, 2012). The addition of socializing a newcomer could create a perception of too many responsibilities with not enough time, leaving the veteran to feel inadequate, unable to meet deadlines, and to face various other constraints (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

Organizations are trending towards getting leaner and expanding the breadth of individual job duties (Heerwagen, 2016). With this trend, it is even more likely for socialization to be viewed as an added socialization-related job demand, pushing veterans to feel overloaded and negative feelings to be intensified during the socialization process. While some might welcome the potentially short-term overload because they assume they

will get help once the newcomer is up to speed, in many organizations turnover rates and growth means that newcomers are commonplace and another round of socialization could be right around the corner (Meister, 2012; Zumbrun, 2014).

These negative feelings may also lower the quality of veteran-newcomer exchanges (Feldman, 2012). Veterans could be short with responses to newcomers, have less time to dedicate to helping the newcomer learn job tasks, new technology, and organizational systems, and overall have less energy to put towards meeting the newcomer's needs. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), as newcomers observe veterans throughout the day, they are likely to pick up on the stress of the veteran and could feel the effects of the veteran's socialization-related job demands through direct conversations. Similarly, if socialization-related job demands are high and veterans are overloaded, they are not only less likely to have available resources to support newcomers, but veterans, themselves, may experience negative emotions (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011). If newcomers have fewer (or shorter) opportunities to observe, interact, and get feedback from veterans, they are less likely to receive information about their role (role clarity), feel confident in their ability to do their jobs well (self-efficacy), and feel supported through positive relationships (social acceptance). Therefore, I hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 2:* Veteran socialization-related job demands will be negatively related to (a) role clarity, (b) self-efficacy, and (c) social acceptance.

Veteran knowledge self-efficacy and newcomer adjustment

Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as the perception that individuals have about what they can do with the skills they possess. As an extension, knowledge self-efficacy

(as applied to work) is described as an individual difference in the degree to which employees believe their knowledge can make a difference in the organization, improve work efficiency, or help solve job-related problems (Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2005). Because knowledge self-efficacy is a broad construct and could be applied to many aspects of the job, it is necessary to define boundary conditions. For this study in the socialization context, knowledge self-efficacy encompasses how to do the job, how to navigate organizational processes and relationships, and how to reduce anxiety surrounding job processes. This definition addresses and maps onto the commonly studied aspects of newcomer adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007), including role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance.

Those high in knowledge self-efficacy are more likely to contribute knowledge because they believe their knowledge is valuable. They are also more likely to put cognitive resources toward added socialization-related job demands because they realize it will improve work efficiency (e.g., socializing a newcomer) (Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997). Finally, those high in knowledge self-efficacy have high expectations about their ability to perform successfully in new situations (Jones, 1986) and face challenges with a positive mindset that allows them to effectively manage tasks to reach desired outcomes (Beauregard, 2012).

Veteran knowledge self-efficacy is likely to influence newcomer adjustment for several reasons. Some veterans may feel more competent in their abilities to explain their role to others (high knowledge self-efficacy) than others who may not feel like they can make a difference in the newcomer's early experiences, especially when the newcomer is relying on them for important information. Veterans with high knowledge self-efficacy

are expected to voluntarily provide information that will help newcomers and use proper time management and behavioral strategies to plan their workdays with time to accommodate newcomer needs and questions (Beauregard, 2012). This should increase the quality of veteran-newcomer exchanges. Similarly, the newcomer may pick up on the veteran's confidence and ability to find time to spend helping the newcomer. Thus, the veteran-newcomer exchanges should be ripe with supportive, positive conversations and contribute to the newcomer feeling socially accepted.

However, if a veteran does not feel like they can adequately transmit information to the newcomer (i.e., low knowledge self-efficacy), the quality of the veteran-newcomer exchange may suffer. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), if veterans lack confidence in their ability to transfer knowledge to the newcomer or do not think the knowledge they have to offer will help the newcomer, the veteran may not provide an adequate amount of information or feedback, decreasing the newcomer's role clarity and self-efficacy. The newcomer may also feel like the veteran does not care if they smoothly transition to become part of the organization (social acceptance). Therefore, I hypothesize that:

> *Hypothesis 3:* Veteran knowledge self-efficacy will be positively related to (a) role clarity, (b) self-efficacy, and (c) social acceptance.

VETERAN RESOURCES AND VETERAN OUTCOMES

Below, I start by introducing how and why, in the context of the socialization process, veteran resources may be related to veteran well-being and job attitudes. I introduce affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and argue the socialization process is likely to elicit emotions from veterans, which influence their subsequent well-being and job attitudes. Just like the socialization process elicits emotions from newcomers, which in turn influence newcomer attitudes, I argue that an equivalent process occurs for veterans. Through veteran-newcomer exchanges, veterans are prompted to reflect on and potentially change their own perceptions. Specific veteran resources (i.e., socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy) and their relationship with veteran outcomes (i.e., emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment) are hypothesized.

Socialization resources theory and affective events theory

It is common for employees, including top talent, to change organizations more frequently than ever before (Zumburn, 2014). To retain their top talent, organizations need to be aware of how socialization affects not only their newcomers, but their veterans as well (Feldman, 1994; Sutton & Louis, 1987). Another underlying untested assumption of the socialization literature is that since the newcomer tends to view the veteran positively (i.e., they provide relevant, important information and support), the veteran must also have a positive experience while socializing the newcomer (Feldman, 1994). Even though socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012) argues that veterans are an important social capital resource, it sets up expectations that the veteran knows

how to continue to do their jobs, provide the newcomer with information, and adapt to newcomer needs while still being successful in their own role. It is important to extend socialization resources theory to consider veteran perceptions because socialization is defined as a two-way interactive process (Reichers,1987). Organizational agents influence newcomers and newcomers influence organizational agents (Li et al., 2011; Sutton & Louis, 1987; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). Just as the socialization process creates uncertainty for newcomers, a parallel process also inevitably exists for veterans. This new uncertainty is likely to draw veteran's attention to novelties, discrepancies, and surprises in their environments (Feldman, 2012).

These day-to-day interactions with newcomers are expected to elicit veteran emotions and affective reactions. One way to understand how social capital resources (Saks & Gruman, 2012) are affected by the socialization process is to draw from affective events theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective events theory helps explain how day-to-day interactions between veterans and newcomers create emotional reactions during the socialization process. Emotions are reactions to important events that link experiences at work to employee attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Observations and direct experiences are likely to create momentary affective experiences that are triggered by various work events including interactions with others and engaging in work-related activities (Rogelberg, Allen, Shanock, Scott, & Schuffler, 2010).

Consistent with AET, for both newcomers and veterans, the socialization process has high affect-generating potential because conversations about goal achievement, planning, recognition, and exercise of power and control are often discussed (Rogelberg, Shanock, & Scott, 2012). Veterans are exposed and attend to a stimulus (the newcomer),

decide if the interaction is personally important to them, and provide some level of response (e.g., an attitude change) (Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, & Song, 2013). These interactions are expected to stir up salient emotional responses in the workplace, both positive and negative, (Boudens, 2005; Kelly & Barsade, 2001; Saks & Gruman, 2012). During these interactions, veterans can gather important information about the newcomer and from the newcomer about the organization, reflect on this information, and change their attitudes about their current role and the organization.

For example, a newcomer may question how things are currently done, ask about policies that are not typically questioned, or demand a lot of attention when trying to learn a new task. This example could highlight discrepancies in how the newcomer and veteran think about their role or highlight mismatches between the veteran's values and the organization's values; perhaps transforming veteran's perceptions of the socialization process and their jobs (Reichers, 1987). Research on the newcomer's influence on veterans tends to focus on positive aspects that newcomers bring to the role (i.e., ideas, experiences, and values) (Austin, 2002; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995) rather than how veteran-newcomer exchanges may be related to veteran's self-perceptions of well-being and job attitudes. In the next sections, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzono, 1996) is used to explain how veteran-newcomer exchanges during socialization are likely to elicit emotions and reactions from veterans.

Veteran socialization-related job demands, emotional exhaustion, and intent to quit

Socializing newcomers takes a considerable amount of time and effort from the veteran (Feldman, 1994). Until the newcomer can figure things out on their own, do their

jobs without help, and potentially relieve some current veteran socialization-related job demands by complimenting the veteran's own skills (Lado & Wilson, 1994), socializing newcomers can be an added veteran socialization-related job demand. This added socialization-related job demand could lead veterans reevaluate their own well-being and job attitudes related to retaining organizational members: emotional exhaustion and intent to quit. Emotional exhaustion is defined as feeling emotionally overextended and depleted of emotional and physical resources due to contact with others (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Intent to quit is the veteran's response to negative emotions and cognitions about work, emotional withdrawal, and thoughts of leaving the organization (Parra, 1995). Consistent veteran-newcomer exchanges could lead veterans to re-evaluate the resources they are extending during the socialization process and question if continuing to give those resources outweighs finding another organization.

As veteran's socialization-related job demands increase (e.g., more role responsibilities and more time spent with newcomers) during the socialization process, their psychological resources become depleted (Feldman, 2012). Newcomers are going to ask questions, try to acquire new technology and information system skills, seek to understand new internal language, and want to learn the day-to-day tasks of their roles. With the organizational expectation that veterans should find time to help newcomers, veterans could easily decide to put off their own work to help newcomers. This could lead to the depletion of physical resources (i.e., time), veterans working extra hours to finish their own work, and feelings of emotional exhaustion.

Not only does socializing a newcomer add a socialization-related job demand, but veterans are also expected to display positive attitudes when with the newcomer (Feldman, 2012). To do this, though, veterans may find themselves faking appropriate emotions. This faking of emotions may become especially salient when veterans help newcomers deal with the disappointment of "reality shock" (Feldman, 1976) after entering the organization and is going to use veteran emotional resources. Veterans also could feel internal stress from stretching their resources too far and trying to hide those stressful emotions from newcomers (Morris & Feldman, 1996). Acting in a way that is more positive than one feels and trying to hide how added socialization-related job demands take a toll on the veteran tends to be emotionally exhausting (van Jaarsveld, Walker, & Skarlicki, 2010).

Similar to how socialization-related job demands can deplete veteran resources, increased socialization-related job demands have also been related to intent to quit (see Podsakoff, Lepine, & LePine, 2007 for a review). This is especially true when the employee perceives that the socialization-related job demands are obstacles to their own task accomplishment (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). Due to the time and effort that is needed for successful socialization, adding training and mentoring to a veteran's workload could be a temporary obstacle to accomplishing their own tasks. If these demands get too high, the veteran could consider leaving the organization and finding somewhere where their demands and resources are more in balance.

During veteran-newcomer exchanges, veterans could make comparisons between themselves and the newcomer (Feldman, 2012). Veterans might receive information about how their socialization-related job demands, salary, and other employment deals

compare to the newcomer. If veterans realize that their inputs are greater than their output and think they could have better employment deals elsewhere, they might start to have negative feelings about their current job and think about leaving the organization. Therefore, I offer the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4: Veteran's socialization-related job demands are positively related to (a) emotional exhaustion and (b) intent to quit.

Veteran knowledge self-efficacy, emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment

Much of the socialization process involves veterans transferring knowledge to the newcomer (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012). Newcomers are going to ask tough questions, be creative and propose new ways to get things done, and challenge some of the veteran's knowledge in order to proactively regain feelings of control in their new organizational life (Ashford & Black, 1996). For some, the socialization process creates a context where veteran's knowledge self-efficacy is going to be tested. It is important that veterans believe their responses could make a difference in the newcomer's work experience and be confident that they are helping solve an organizational problem (the newcomer learning their role) to ensure successful socialization of the newcomer.

The level of veteran knowledge self-efficacy is likely to become salient during veteran-newcomer exchanges and could lead veterans to re-evaluate their own well-being and job attitudes. To be consistent with the arguments above, emotional exhaustion and intent to quit are examined. High knowledge self-efficacy veterans are expected to have low emotional exhaustion and intent to quit because they will be able to answer newcomer questions and feel validated in their current roles. Veterans with high

knowledge self-efficacy should not use many resources when helping veterans and their confidence when interacting with newcomers should reinforce that they fit well with their current organization (i.e., low emotional exhaustion and intent to quit).

Affective commitment, another commonly studied outcome variable, is also introduced in this section only because socialization-related job demands are not expected to be related to affective commitment. Because the underlying psychological process that relates socialization-related job demands to organizational outcomes is an impairment process that exhausts physical and mental resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), socialization-related job demands should not have a relationship with affective commitment. On the other hand, knowledge self-efficacy is expected to be related to affective commitment because it could be a motivational resource that increases veterans' own engagement and helps veterans achieve their work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Affective commitment is defined as an employees' emotional bond to their organization and is grounded in feelings of loyalty towards the employer (Meyer & Allen, 1991). While there are different types of commitment, affective commitment has most consistently related to both employee retention and the employee's willingness to pursue the organization's goals (i.e., helping a newcomer adjust to their new role) (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Mohamed, Taylor, & Hassan, 2006). Depending on veteran's knowledge self-efficacy, veteran-newcomer exchanges could generate emotions and thoughts that reaffirm to veterans that they belong with the organization or it could lead veterans to question if they belong.

When veteran self-efficacy is high, veterans should be confident in their job knowledge, open to sharing their expertise and answering questions, and think they can help the newcomer solve job-related problems (Kankanhalli et al., 2005). Having high knowledge self-efficacy should help veterans direct their efforts towards helping newcomers understand their new roles without feeling pressure from their supervisor or organization to do well (Whyte, Saks, & Hook, 1997). High knowledge self-efficacy veterans are less likely to put on a front for newcomers and are more likely to meet social expectations of positively interacting with the newcomer (Shanock, Allen, Dunn, Baran, Scott, & Rogelberg, 2013). If veterans are rewarded for their work with the newcomer, they are also more likely to be committed to the goal (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), have positive affective responses to the process, and reinforce their own organizational knowledge and decision to join the organization (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Veterans with high knowledge self-efficacy could even view socializing a newcomer as a reward for being a good performer and role model.

When veteran job self-efficacy is low, veterans could feel frazzled answering questions and become less willing to expend resources on something that makes them uncomfortable (Whyte et al., 1997). Some veterans are expected to become quickly discouraged if they notice the newcomer is not adjusting well and they attribute the lack of adjustment to their own role in the socialization process (Kankanhalli et al., 2005). These exchanges could trigger negative affective responses (e.g., stress and negative attitudes) because the veteran may start to feel like they are putting resources towards a task that is not meeting their organizational goals (Bandura, 1993). They also may avoid interacting with newcomers in the future and turn their efforts inward to relieve their own

stress and negative emotions. If this occurs, veterans could start to feel emotionally exhausted (Bandura, 1993) and be more likely to leave the organization.

In summary, veterans with high knowledge self-efficacy are likely to use minimal resources during veteran-newcomer exchanges, feel motivated to meaningfully contribute to newcomer adjustment (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006), and feel wanted and appreciated after helping the newcomer. It is expected that veterans with high knowledge self-efficacy will feel less emotionally exhausted, be less likely to leave the organization, and be more committed than veterans with low knowledge self-efficacy. Veterans with low knowledge self-efficacy are more likely to be pressured to put on a positive front becoming both physically and emotionally depleted, start reconsidering if they belong with the organization, and become less loyal to an organization that has put them in a situation that they perceive they cannot handle. This means veterans with low knowledge self-efficacy are more likely to feel emotionally exhausted, leave the organization, and be less committed. Therefore, the following is hypothesized:

> *Hypothesis 5:* Veteran knowledge self-efficacy is negatively related to (a) emotional exhaustion and (b) intent to quit and positively related to (c) affective commitment.

RESEARCH QUESTION: IS VETERAN ASSIMILATION AN ANTECEDENT OF PERCEPTIONS OF VETERAN RESOURCES?

Veteran assimilation is a construct adapted from the communication studies literature. Assimilation is defined as consistent membership negotiation that positions and repositions employees along specific dimensions within organizational, social, and work systems (Scott & Myers, 2010). As time goes on employees negotiate certain parts of their roles to fit their needs and adjust to other parts that they do not have power to change. Below, I introduce the idea of organizational assimilation and explore the notion that the level of assimilation of the veteran predicts perceptions of veteran resources. If veterans feel assimilated and can maintain good relationships in their organization, socializing a newcomer may be viewed as less of a socialization-related job demand and veterans would have more confidence communicating with others about their new roles. If assimilation is an antecedent of veteran resources, I want to explore whether veteran socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy could function as explanatory mechanisms for the relationship between veteran assimilation, newcomer adjustment, and veteran well-being and job attitudes.

Veteran assimilation

Organizational assimilation is defined as a process between newcomer and organizational members (e.g., veterans) where the organization not only attempts to train and orient newcomers, but the newcomers also attempt to negotiate their own roles (Kramer & Miller, 1999). Assimilation is different than socialization because it is defined as an ongoing process related to multiple dimensions of organizational life that requires establishing and maintaining a meaningful membership in an organization (Gailliard,

Myers, & Seibold, 2010). Gailliard and colleagues argue that organizational membership is negotiated based on both organizational and personal goals. This means that assimilation is a nonlinear process that continues even after an employee is no longer considered a newcomer (i.e., after being with the organization for more than 12 months) and fluctuates over the course of one's organizational membership.

As a multi-dimensional process, researchers have proposed seven dimensions of assimilation that affect member involvement and integration into an organization to varying degrees: familiarity with supervisors, familiarity with coworkers, acculturation, recognition, involvement, job competency, and role negotiation. *Familiarity with supervisors* and *familiarity with coworkers* involve getting to know supervisors and coworkers, respectively, feeling comfortable with these people, and also expressing general friendliness to others. *Acculturation* involves both learning and accepting the organizational culture and being able to get things done without disrupting organizational norms. *Recognition* occurs when the employee feels recognized, valuable, and like one's work is important to the overall goals of the organization. *Involvement* occurs when employees seek out ways to contribute to the organization and when employees decide to take on added responsibilities for the good of the organization. *Job competency* is considered knowing how to do one's job and also doing it well. *Role negotiation* occurs when the employee comes to a compromise between their own expectations and the organization's expectations (Gailliard et al., 2010).

It is expected that organizational members, in this case the veterans, would fluctuate on the degree to which they perceived themselves as high on each of the assimilation dimensions through the course of their membership with the organization

(Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000). At any given time it is likely that the assimilation dimensions are not equally as important or salient. Therefore, scores on some dimensions could be lower than others (e.g., they could have lower scores on involvement than on familiarity with supervisors) but their scores across the dimensions are expected to additively represent the overall assimilation of the veteran (Gaillard et al., 2010).

Veteran assimilation and veteran resources

The level of veteran assimilation could influence how the veteran perceives the added task of socializing a newcomer. Assimilated veterans are aware of and abide by organizational norms and have knowledge about job tasks, organizational roles, and how to navigate the social environment (Myers, 2005). They also are integrated into the culture and should feel reduced anxiety that comes with reduced ambiguity surrounding their role in the organization (Waldeck & Myers, 2007). Because veterans will have different levels of assimilation, they are also likely to have different perceptions about adding socializing a newcomer to their current role.

When veterans are assimilated, they tend to know how to do their job, know what their job entails, can get things done within the norms of the organization, and realize that their work contributes to the overall goals of the organization. If an assimilated veteran takes on the added demand of also socializing a newcomer, they may not feel overloaded or stressed because they are comfortable with their role and their place in the organization and they feel like they can handle an additional task. However, if a veteran is less assimilated, they might be more likely to feel like the added demand of socializing a newcomer is too much. Less assimilated veterans can have trouble following

organizational norms and may struggle with their roles themselves. An additional demand of helping a newcomer could really take a toll on a less assimilated veteran because they could feel a lot of pressure from trying to explain a role they are not comfortable with themselves. The less assimilated veteran could also have to take additional time when preparing for conversations with newcomers, taking away time from their primary role responsibilities. Although assimilation is not part of socialization resources theory and because most assimilation research thus far has primarily focused on the newcomer, most of the arguments above are speculative and thus, I offer the following research question:

Research Question 1: Is veteran assimilation related to veteran socialization-related job demands?

Assimilated veterans may not only handle the added socialization-related job demand of socializing a newcomer better, but they may also have more confidence explaining the role to a newcomer. Assimilated veterans are expected to have good relationships with their supervisors and coworkers, feel like what they contribute to the organization is valuable, are engrained in the culture, and feel comfortable doing their job. Perhaps most importantly, assimilated veterans are willing to get involved and take on added responsibilities for the good of the organization (e.g., involvement dimension of assimilation). If assimilated veterans feel good about their place in the organization, that confidence and understanding could transfer into their belief about their ability to share their expertise with others.

Less assimilated veterans are expected to not have great relationships with supervisors and coworkers and may not be fully engrained in the organizational culture and not follow all the organizational norms. This could lead them to struggle with the

day-to-day demands of their prescribed roles. They may also not want to get involved in other tasks outside their job descriptions, like socializing a newcomer. This lack of knowledge and lack of interest in taking on more responsibilities to help the organization could be related to lower veteran knowledge self-efficacy. The less assimilated veteran is expected to struggle with difficult questions from newcomers and struggle with relaying information clearly, correctly, and openly. Again, assimilation has not been proposed as part of socialization resources theory and not enough research has focused on what makes the veteran a good social capital resource, therefore most of the arguments above are speculative and thus, I offer the following research question:

> *Research Question 2:* Is veteran assimilation related to veteran knowledge self-efficacy in the context of socialization?

Veteran socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy as mechanisms that link veteran assimilation, newcomer adjustment, and veteran outcomes

As introduced above, veteran assimilation is proposed as a potential antecedent of veteran perceptions of resources during the socialization process. If this is the case, veteran assimilation could also influence newcomer adjustment and veteran well-being and job attitudes primarily through socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy. I propose two research questions that explore the mediated relationship between veteran assimilation, newcomer adjustment, and veteran outcomes with socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy as mediating mechanisms.

Veteran assimilation might influence newcomer adjustment largely because the veterans have the potential to shape the perceptions of newcomers through veteran-newcomer interactions (Scott & Myers, 2010). Assimilated veterans might pass on more

information, provide better advice, and help newcomers more than less assimilated veterans. When learning, observing, and interacting with a highly assimilated veteran, newcomers could learn their own roles, gain confidence in their own knowledge, and feel accepted by other employees as manifested through veteran perceptions of being involved with the socialization process. To the contrary, newcomers may have trouble learning from less assimilated veterans because they may not be able to answer questions or confidently provide information or the veteran may not have time for the newcomer with all their other socialization-related job demands.

Veteran assimilation might also influence veteran well-being and job attitudes largely because the level of assimilation could stimulate positive or negative emotions about the socialization process. Highly assimilated veterans could see helping newcomers through the socialization process as developmental, a way to give back to the organization, and feel very comfortable with the process in general. These highly assimilated veterans might not find it stressful to help a newcomer because they can balance their current socialization-related job demands with the added demand. They would also likely be confident about sharing information with the newcomer. All of this should lead to positive feelings of well-being and job attitudes during the socialization process (i.e., low emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and high affective commitment).

While highly assimilated veterans may have a positive socialization experience, less assimilated veterans might have less positive experiences. The added socialization-related job demand and lack of confidence could lead to feelings of emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and lower affective commitment. The less assimilated veteran might

perceive the addition of socializing a newcomer as a signal that the organization is not paying attention to their needs or well-being. This veteran might also feel like the organization put them in a position that they are not ready for, leading to negative feelings of emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and lower affective commitment. Because the relationships between veteran assimilation and veteran resources are unknown, their relationships with newcomer and veteran outcomes through the mediating mechanisms of veteran resources are speculated.

Assimilation is defined in part as an organizational member having meaningful membership in an organization (Gaillard et al., 2010), but it is unclear if the extent to which one is a member of an organization is related to perceptions of the socialization process. It could be the case that one's level of membership in their organization is related to important perceptions during socialization. However, it could also be that the information newcomers need is such "common knowledge" to a wide range of organizational members that the level of veteran assimilation does not predict perceptions during socialization. Therefore, based on these speculations, two final research questions are offered. The final hypothesized model is presented in Figure 1.

Research Question 3: Do socialization-related job demands mediate relationships between veteran assimilation and (a) newcomer role clarity, (b) newcomer social acceptance, (c) veteran emotional exhaustion, and (d) veteran intent to quit?

Research Question 4: Does knowledge self-efficacy mediate relationships between veteran assimilation and (a) newcomer role clarity, (b) newcomer social acceptance, (c) veteran emotional exhaustion, (d) veteran intent to quit, and (e) veteran affective commitment?

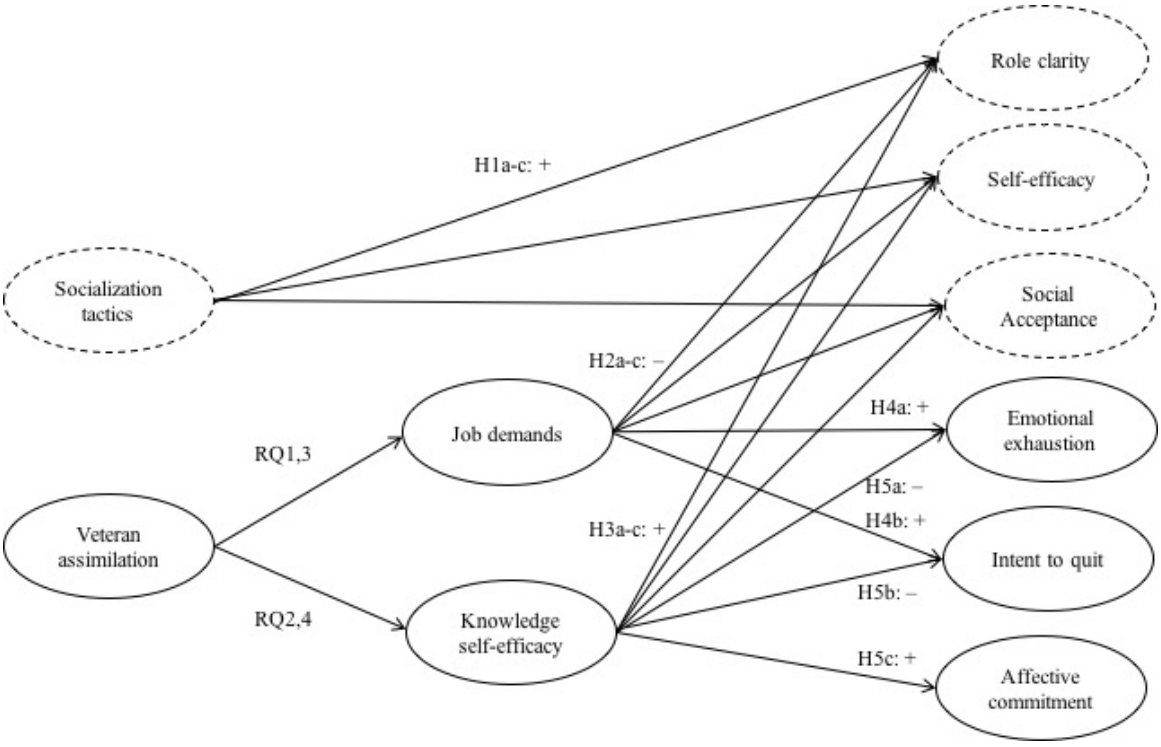

Figure 1. Hypothesized model for all hypotheses and research questions. The direct effects from socialization tactics, socialization-related job demands, and knowledge self-efficacy are hypothesized. Assimilation is added as a research question. Dotted line circles represent newcomer-rated items. Solid line circles represent veteran-rated items.

METHODS

Pilot test

Prior to starting data collection, the veteran and newcomer surveys were pilot tested with five doctoral students in the Organizational Science program and 10 working professionals. The doctoral students assessed survey design, grammar and typos, and user-friendliness of the surveys and provided feedback. After making changes based on the doctoral student feedback, five working professionals pilot tested the veteran survey and five different working professionals pilot tested the newcomer survey. They also assessed user-friendliness, but were instructed to take the survey as if they were a participant to obtain an accurate assessment of the time it took to complete the survey. The 10 working professionals finished the survey in 15 to 30 minutes. Based on looking through prior dissertations and recent research using employee surveys, 15 to 30 minutes seemed appropriate to ask from employees. Finally, before the survey was launched, a veteran knowledge self-efficacy scale was created and pilot tested. The results of the pilot tests are reviewed in the measures section.

Recruitment and procedure

Potential participants were identified via a large southeastern university alumni list or through a snowball sample. The alumni list was generated and obtained with approval from the University's Office of Legal Affairs and Institutional Research. The list contained the names and email addresses of 32,351 alumni who graduated with either an undergraduate or graduate degree between 2009 and 2015. The 2009 to 2015

timeframe was chosen with hope that these recent graduates still had an affinity for the university and would be willing to help another student from their alma mater.

Simultaneously, I created a list of personal contacts who had recently started a new job (newcomers) or had trained a newcomer (veterans). This initial list started with 75 people. A second wave of recruitment via Facebook added another 66 people to the snowball sample. In total, an additional 141 potential participants were generated through the snowball sample.

Before contacting participants, the 32,351 alumni names and emails were randomized and assigned a unique ID. Recruitment emails were sent in waves to a designated number of alumni through the online survey platform, Qualtrics (see Table 1). The waves started out small and as response rate was monitored, the waves got larger in hopes of collecting data as quickly as possible, but also as accurately as possible. Wave 1 started by sending 100 emails and by Wave 7, 10,000 emails were being sent at a time. After each wave of recruitment emails, the number of participants and pairs were counted. Data collection was complete once all 32,351 alumni email addresses and 141 snowball sample email addresses generated through personal contacts and Facebook posts were exhausted. A flow chart of the procedure can be found in Figure 2.

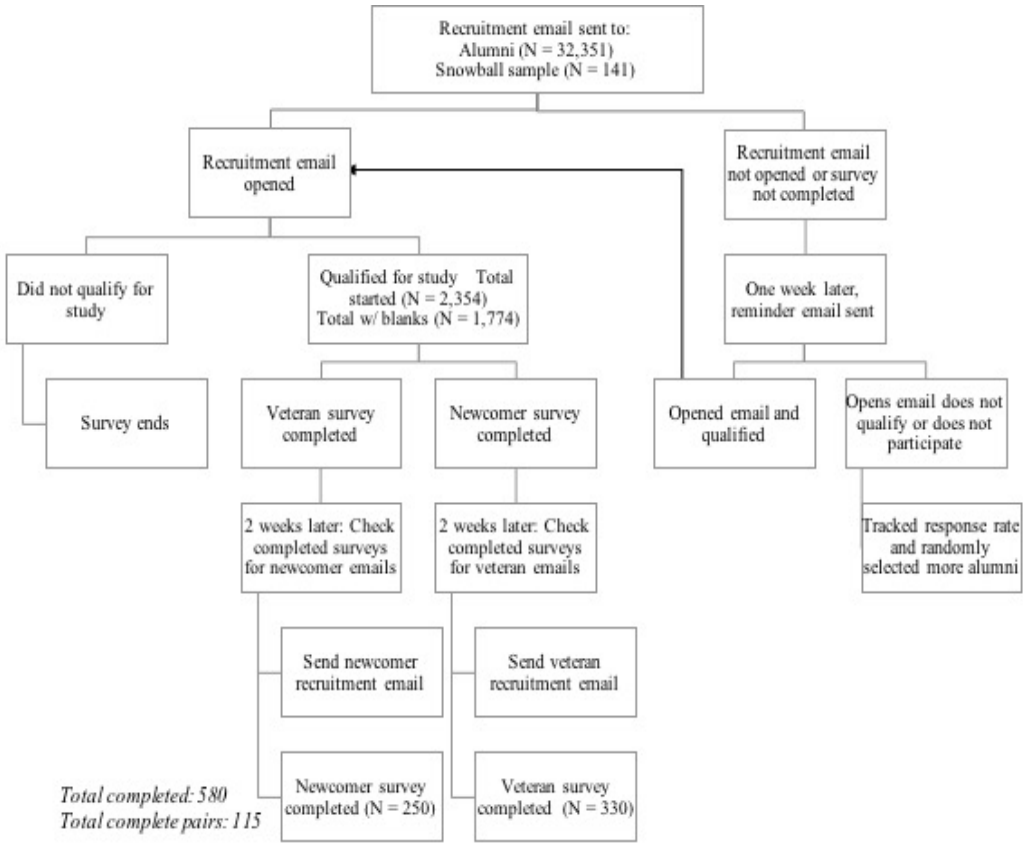

Figure 2. Flow chart depicting recruitment procedure. In total, 580 people completed either the newcomer or veteran survey (250 newcomers and 330 veterans). From the 580 completed surveys, there were 115 matched pairs.

For each wave, an email explaining the study was sent to each alumni or snowball sample participant that described the qualifications needed to participate and the potential incentives. A link was embedded in the email that took the participant to the start of the survey. Individuals who clicked on the link were presented with a series of qualification questions to ensure that the he or she was a newcomer or a veteran. If the individual qualified, the survey started, but if individual did not fit one of the qualifications, the survey ended and thanked them for their interest in participating.

To be considered a newcomer, the participant was required to have been with their organization for less than 12 months, which is a common cutoff in the socialization

literature (e.g., Allen, 2006; Bauer & Green, 1994; Fisher, 1985). This cutoff was expected to ensure that the newcomer was still learning and getting acquainted with their new role and could easily recall their perceptions of the socialization process from both an organizational and veteran-newcomer interaction perspective. After indicating that their tenure was less than 12 months, newcomers had to successfully answer two final qualifying questions to participate in the study: 1) they must have interacted with at least one coworker, other than their supervisor, who helped onboard them and 2) they must have been informally or formally mentored or helped by that same coworker during the onboarding process.

Because periods of time less than 12 months has traditionally been used to define newcomers, to be considered a veteran, the participant was required to have been with their organization for more than 12 months. It was expected that a tenure of more than 12 months would ensure that the employee had become adjusted to their role and the organization, learned the norms, understood the culture, and was no longer seeking information from others about how to do their job. After indicating that their tenure was over 12 months, veterans had to answer two final qualifying questions to participate in the study: 1) they had to indicate they had interacted with a newcomer in the past 12 months and 2) they must have informally or formally helped with onboarding of that newcomer.

Once qualified for the study, the participant read the informed consent form and agreed to participate. They then proceeded with the appropriate survey (either the newcomer or veteran survey), depending on which was applicable to the participant. A full list of newcomer survey items can be found in Appendix B and a full list of veteran

survey items can be found in Appendix C. Reminder emails were sent via Qualtrics one week after the initial email to those who had not yet completed the study.

After two weeks of the appropriate survey being open to either the newcomer or veteran, consent forms and responses were checked for completion. If the original veteran or newcomer completed their respective survey, the names and email addresses of their pair were extracted from their survey responses and new waves for participant-identified newcomers or veterans were created. The same procedure was followed for the second half of the pair as described above. Recruitment emails were sent to participants who would complete the veteran-newcomer pairs. Alumni or snowball sample participants also received reminder emails one week after the initial recruitment email, with one difference between the initial emails and the new recruitment emails in hopes of increasing participation. These emails to the potential pair explained that their coworker had already completed their portion of the study and had identified them as either someone the coworker had helped train or someone who had trained the coworker.

Final sample

2,354 individuals started the survey. Of those, 1,774 (75.4%) did not qualify as a newcomer or veteran or had more than 75% of their responses missing. Between the two samples (UNC Charlotte Alumni and snowball sample), 580 people completed the survey; 250 newcomers and 330 veterans. Of the 580 participants, the final sample used for analyses included only newcomers and veterans who had a complete pair because a complete pair was required for some hypotheses to be tested (Hypothesis 2 and 3). The total paired sample included 115 newcomers and 115 veterans. One hundred and five of

the pairs were from the UNC Charlotte alumni sample and 10 pairs were from the snowball sample (see Table 1).

TABLE 1: Cleaned sample size breakdown by sample

	UNC Charlotte Alumni	**Snowball Sample**	**Combined UNCC Snowball**
Total started	2243	111	2354
Total greater than 50% blank	1717	57	1774
Total completed	526	54	580
Total veterans	302	28	330
Total newcomers	224	26	250
Total pairs started	137	16	153
Total complete pairs	105	10	115

Note. The total number used for data analysis is 115 newcomers and veterans. The total with greater than 75% blank were removed from the cleaned dataset. Only the total complete pairs were used for subsequent data analyses.

The response rate for veterans with a completed pair (N = 115/330) was 34.8% and the response rate for newcomers with a completed pair (N = 115/250) was 46.0%. The response rate for a completed dyad (N = 115/465) was 24.7%. As a final way to look at the response rate, 153 participants completed one half of the survey (either the newcomer or veteran) and their matched pair started the survey, but did not finish. Using these numbers to calculate the response rate as the total number of completed pairs divided by the total number of potential pairs (those that started the survey) (N = 115/153), the response rate jumps to 75.2%.

According to Rogelberg and Stanton (2007), many of the non-responses could have been due to passive non-respondents or interest level of individuals. That is, potential participants might have simply forgotten about the survey, misplaced the email, did not get around to doing it give other commitments, or were not interested in the topic.

As a general rule, passive non-respondents tend to be willing to participate in the survey, but given the reasons described above simply did not complete the survey. Typically, then, passive non-respondents generally do not differ from respondents on many focal variables and therefore, bias is not usually created by passive non-respondents (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

Table 2 describes the demographics for both veteran and newcomer samples. There were no significant differences between veteran and newcomer samples on sex, race, and education. However, paired-samples t-tests revealed significant differences between veteran and newcomer samples on age, tenure, hours worked, organizational title, transition from school, and status as a manager (see Table 2). Effect sizes (Cohen's *d*) for these differences are also reported and ranged from small ($d = .23$ for hours worked) to large ($d = 1.03$ for tenure). Veterans tended to be older, with the organization longer, worked more hours, had higher ranked organizational titles, were more likely to have had a previous job, and more likely to be a manager. These differences were expected since veterans were required to be with the organization for at least 12 months and the organization put them in charge of onboarding new employees. Overall, most participants worked in for-profit organizations, worked in either the education services or health care industries, and worked in organizations that had more than 5,000 employees.

TABLE 2: Sample description for newcomers and veterans

	Newcomer			Veteran				
	M	***SD***	***Percentage***	***M***	***SD***	***Percentage***	***t-test***	***Cohen's d***
Sex	1.56	0.50	43.8% Male 56.3% Female	1.60	0.49	39.8% Male 60.2% Female	1.10	0.12
Age	31.43	9.05	64.3% 22-30 17.3% 31-40 18.4% 40-65	36.84	10.97	40.7% 24-30 28.3% 31-40 31.0% 40-67	4.90**	0.55
Race	1.59	1.04	67.0% White 19.1% Black 5.2% Hispanic 5.2% Asian 3.5% Other	1.54	1.10	75.4% White 9.6% Black 5.3% Hispanic 5.3% Asian 4.4% Other	-.44	-.06
Education	5.30	0.77	6.1% high school 56.5% bachelor's 33.9% master's 3.5% PhD, law, medical	5.47	0.89	6.1% high school 41.7% bachelor's 45.2% master's 7.0% PhD, law, medical	1.55	0.20
Tenure (months)	7.68	4.64	21.9% 1-3 months 21.1% 4-6 months 21.9% 7-9 months 35.1% 9-12 months	48.40	56.15	16.5% 12 months 26.1% 13-24 months 20.0% 25-36 months 6.1% 37-48 months 31.3% 48+ months	7.83**	1.03
Hours worked	41.77	8.85	64.9% 30-40 hours 26.3% 41-50 hours 8.8% 50+ hours	43.94	10.06	51.3% 30-40 hours 33.9% 41-50 hours 14.8% 50+ hours	1.95*	0.23
Job title	--	--	2.6% intern 34.8% entry level 45.5% associate/ananalyst 13.4% manager/senior manager 3.6% director or above	--	--	4.5% entry level 45.5% associate/analyst 38.4% manager/senior manager 7.1% director 5.5% vice president or above	5.30**	0.75
Transition from school	--	--	school 6.1% out of school for 1+ year, first job 11.4% just graduated, but worked in school 71.9% out of school for 1+ year & held other jobs	--	--	school 9.7% out of school for 1+ year, first job 3.5% just graduated, but worked in school 85.0% out of school for 1+ year & held other jobs	2.91**	0.35
Manager	1.87	0.41	14.8% manager 84.3% individual contributor	1.57	0.50	43.5% manager 56.5% individual contributor	-5.36**	-.66
Involved in hiring process	--	--	--	1.53	0.50	47.0% Yes 53.0% No	--	--

	Newcomer and Veteran Combined Descriptives				
	M	***SD***	***Percentage***		
Hired during change	1.34	0.45	66.1% Yes 33.9% No	--	--
Organizational type	3.01	1.77	33.9% For profit; 11.3% Non-profit; 10.4% Government; 13.9% Healthcare; 25.5% Education; 5.2% Other	--	--
Industry	8.38	3.38	services; 6.1% Finance and insurance; 6.1% Government; 19.1% Health care and social assistance; 8.7% Manufacturing; 18.3% Professional, scientific, and technical services; 11.3% Other	--	--
Organizational size	3.68	1.90	20.2% 1-49; 12.3% 50-99; 15.8% 100-499; 7.9% 500-999; 19.3% 1,000-4,999; 23.7% 5,000+	--	--

Note. N = 115 newcomers and veterans. M = mean; SD = standard deviation. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Measures and discriminant validity of individual measures

The measures are described below. For a full list of newcomer survey items, please see Appendix B. For a full list of veteran survey items, please see Appendix C.

Newcomer Organizational Socialization Tactics. Newcomers completed the 30-item socialization tactics measure developed by Jones (1986). Participants were asked to rate items on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Like past research, an average of each of the six dimension averages was created to represent a single-dimension scale that ranged from individualized to institutionalized tactics (Jones, 1986; Kim et al., 2005; Perrot et al., 2014). The alpha internal consistency reliability for the full set of 30 items was .85.

The measure included six five-item scales that measure each of the six socialization tactics dimensions: collective versus individual (e.g., 'This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences'), formal versus informal (e.g., 'Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis'), sequential versus random (e.g., 'This organization does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning (R)'), fixed versus random (e.g., 'I have good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization'), serial versus disjunctive (e.g., 'I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing senior colleagues'), and investiture versus divestiture (e.g., 'Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally'). Higher scores indicate that more institutionalized tactics (collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture) are used to socialize the newcomer.

Lower scores indicate that more individualized tactics (individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture) are used overall.

Discriminant validity of socialization tactics. The socialization tactics scale has been analyzed as a single- (individualized versus institutionalized; Jones, 1986), three- (content, context, and social; Cable & Parson, 2001), and six-factor model (Allen, 2006) treating each tactic as a separate dimension. There is still much debate in the literature about which measurement model best represents the construct, but in this study, for the sake of parsimony, it was hypothesized that the tactics would be a single factor.

R was used to assess the fit of five nested models (see Table 3). None of the models fit the data well. The best fitting model was the six-factor model treating each socialization tactic as a separate factor ($\chi 2$ (390) = 644.24 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .76; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .73; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .08). Because the best fitting model did not meet typical standards for appropriate model fit, additional models and ways to create the scale were considered.

First, a higher-order six-factor model was examined to determine if the six socialization tactics are multidimensional, related to a higher-order latent factor, and more parsimonious than six separate factors (Kenny, 2016). It was thought that perhaps each of the six dimensions are interrelated processes instead of one broad variable. The higher-order six-factor model had a worse fit than the single-order six-factor model and thus was not retained for future analyses.

After reviewing the literature, another three-factor model was tested using 12 items from the socialization tactics scale developed by Jones (1986). These 12-items have

been used in previous publications (e.g., Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013) and represented a three-factor model (content, context, and social socialization tactics). While these fit indices were still not ideal, the indices were better than any of the other models tested. Previous researchers chose these 12 items because they are on the original scale and consistently have factor loadings of .40 and above. The 12-item three-factor model fit the data best ($\chi 2$ (390) = 644.24 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .87; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .83; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .08). All factor loadings were above .40 and ranged from .43 to .84, and correlations between factors were .20 (content and social socialization tactics), .22 (context and social socialization tactics), and .58 (content and context socialization tactics), all of which were significant but not so high as to suggest they are the same factor.

For future analyses, a three-factor model of socialization tactics was maintained (alpha internal consistencies reported in parentheses): content (.76), context (.60), and social (.61). Even though three factors are used in the final analyses rather than one as originally proposed, use of the three-factor model is still consistent with the hypotheses regarding socialization tactics because higher scores on each of the three factors would still indicate that the organization is using more institutionalized tactics rather than individualized tactics. That is content, context, and social socialization tactics are expected to be positively related to role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance.

TABLE 3: Confirmatory factor analyses model fit indices for organizational socialization tactics

Model	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	Difference	RMSEA
One-Factor Model	0.60	0.57	825.68*	405		.10*
30 item Three-Factor Model	0.68	0.65	743.49*	402	82.19	.09*
12 item Three-Factor Model	0.87	0.83	89.33*	51	654.16	.08*
Six-Factor Model	0.76	0.73	644.24*	390	-554.91	.08*
Higher Order Six-Factor Model	0.74	0.72	673.41*	399	-29.17	.08*

Note. N = 115. One factor model includes all items as a single factor; three-factor model includes content, context, and social tactics using all 30 scale items (10 items per factor); six-factor model includes all tactics as separate factors (collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, investiture); the higher-order six-factor model had a latent higher-order factor and treated each tactic as a separate factor; the 12 item three-factor model includes content, context, and social tactics. The 12-item three-factor model (the best fitting model) was examined because of problems with fit using all the items and has been used in previously published research (e.g., Allen & Shanock, 2013). Difference = difference in chi-square values from the previous model. All chi-square and difference statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Role clarity. A nine-item measure developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) was used to measure newcomer role clarity. While the scale was originally designed to measure role ambiguity, the items were reverse coded to reflect role clarity (e.g., Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Participants rated items on a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Instructions asked newcomers to only think about their new role and focus on their experiences since starting in their new organization. Sample items included "I know exactly what is expected of me" and "I know that I have divided my time properly". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .83.

Self-efficacy. An eight-item measure developed by Jones (1986) was used to measure newcomer self-efficacy. Participants rated items on a Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Instructions asked newcomers to only think about their new role and focus on their experiences since starting in their new organization. Sample items include "My new job is well within the scope of my abilities"

and “Professionally speaking, my new job exactly satisfies my expectations of myself”. The alpha internal consistency reliability was .53.

Because of the low reliability of the scale, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal axis factoring and oblique rotation was conducted. In previously published studies and in the initial scale design (Jones, 1986), the scale had a one factor solution. The EFA revealed a three-factor solution based on three Eigenvalues that are greater than 1.0. The correlation between Factor 1 and Factor 2 was .17. The correlation between Factor 1 and Factor 3 was .41. The correlation between Factor 2 and Factor 3 was .06. Factor loadings ranged from .29 to 1.05. One item (Item 4) did not load well onto any one factor. Item 2 had an unusual factor loading of 1.05 indicating a possible ulta-Heywood case. Given that the reliability of the scale was so low, the problems with the loadings for Items 2 and 4, and after visually inspecting the three factors which showed that the items do not seem to be related in any theoretically meaningful way, the newcomer self-efficacy scale was included in the newcomer correlation table (Table 5), but not included in future analyses. See Table 4 for items and factor loadings.

TABLE 4: Exploratory factor analysis for newcomer self-efficacy scale			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1. My new job is well within the scope of my abilities.	**0.55**	-0.01	-0.04
2. I do not anticipate any problems in adjusting to work in this organization.	-0.19	-0.01	**1.05**
3. I feel I am overqualified for the job I will be doing.	0.00	**0.83**	0.02
4. I have all the technical knowledge I need to deal with my new job, all I need now is practical experience.	0.17	0.07	**0.29**
5. I feel confident that my skills and abilities equal or exceed those of my future colleagues.	**0.44**	0.32	0.06
6. My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully in this organization.	**0.71**	0.01	-0.01
7. I could have handled a more challenging job than the one I will be doing.	0.10	**0.74**	0.07
8. Professionally speaking, my new job exactly satisfies my expectations of myself. (R)	-0.39	**0.47**	-0.32
Note. Items were rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strong disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Instructions asked newcomers to rate each item based on their feelings about their new role.			

Social acceptance. A seven-item measure developed by Morrison (2002) was used to measure social acceptance. Participants rated items on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Instructions asked newcomers to only think about their new role and focus on their experiences since starting in their new organization. Sample items include "I feel comfortable around my coworkers" and "With my coworkers, I am easily identified as 'one of the gang'". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .86.

Veteran assimilation. Veterans responded to the 24-item Organizational Assimilation Index (OAI) (Gailliard, Myers, & Seibold, 2010). The OAI consists of seven subscales: familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, acculturation, recognition, involvement, job competency, and role negotiation. Because there were

different numbers of items per subscale, the seven subscales were averaged individually and then averaged together to create a single OAI index score. Participants responded to items using a five-point Likert type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include "I feel like I know my coworkers pretty well" (familiarity with coworkers), "I think my supervisor values my opinions" (recognition), and "I think I have a good idea about how this organization operates" (acculturation). The alpha internal consistency reliability for the full set of 24 items was .87.

Discriminant validity of assimilation. The assimilation scale has been used as a single-factor, six-factor (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), and seven-factor scale (Gaillard et al., 2010). In early conceptualizations, assimilation was considered a single factor, but is now viewed as a more complex process with multiple dimensions (Scott & Myers, 2010). Because of this shift, researchers proposed a six-factor model, which was recently updated to seven-factors that considers familiarity with coworkers and supervisors as separate dimensions. For parsimony, I proposed that the assimilation scale would be one factor and would be related to veteran socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy. Because research questions were proposed for the relationships between assimilation and veteran resources, the research questions would remain the same regardless of the number of factors used as I would still be exploring potential relationships between assimilation overall or its assimilation dimensions with veteran socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy.

Using the lavaan package in R, the fit of four nested models were compared (see Table 5). The seven-factor model showed a significantly better chi-squared statistic than the one-, six-, and higher-order model ($\chi 2$ (231) = 376.62 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit

Index [CFI] = .89; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .87; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .07). Additionally, all indicators in the seven-factor model loaded reliably on their predicted factors (loadings ranged from .23 to .92). Although the RMSEA values below .05 are considered good fit, values up to .08 represent reasonable errors of approximation (Byrne, 2001). Even though the seven-factor model fit best, acculturation and job competency were removed from future analyses due to low reliabilities (.48 and .63, respectively). Therefore, a five-factor model of assimilation was retained for future analyses (alpha internal consistencies reported in parentheses): familiarity with coworkers (.73), familiarity with supervisors (.81), recognition (.94), involvement (.76), and role negotiation (.70). Correlations between the factors ranged from .20 to .50.

TABLE 5: Confirmatory factor analyses model fit indices for veteran assimilation

Model	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	Difference	RMSEA
One-Factor Model	0.57	0.53	827.89*	252		.14*
Six-Factor Model	0.87	0.84	416.78*	237	411.11	.08*
Seven-Factor Model	0.89	0.87	376.62*	231	40.16	.07*
Higher Order Seven-Factor Model	0.85	0.83	449.07*	246	-72.45	.09*

Note. N = 115. One factor model includes all items as a single factor; six-factor model includes familiarity with coworkers (Factor 1), acculturation (Factor 2), involvement (Factor 3), job competency (Factor 4), role negotiation (Factor 5) and familiarity with supervisors and recognition combined (Factor 6); seven-factor model includes all tactics as separate factors (familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, acculturation, recognition, involvement, job competency, role negotiation); the higher-order seven-factor model had a latent higher-order factor and treated each factor as a separate dimension. Difference = difference in chi-square values from the previous model. All chi-square and difference statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Veteran socialization-related job demands. An 11-item measure developed by Ganster and Fusilier (1989) was used to measure veteran socialization-related job demands. Participants used a 5-point Likert type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) to rate items. Instructions were explicit about thinking about onboarding

the newcomer. Items were adapted to reflect a change in job demands due to socialization. Sample items include “I had much more work to do than before the newcomer was around”, “I constantly had to rush more to get work done”, and “I had problems dealing with my increased workload”. The alpha internal consistency reliability was .86.

Veteran knowledge self-efficacy. A new measure was developed to measure veteran knowledge self-efficacy. In 1991, Miller and Jablin proposed 31 types of information sought by newcomers (e.g., organizational procedures, performance feedback, managing job pressures and role conflicts). These types of information represented things such as what is required to function on the job (role clarity), how to function successfully on the job (self-efficacy), and the nature of relationships with others (social acceptance).

To create the scale used in this study, the list of 31 types of information sought by newcomers were used during a pilot test. The goal of the pilot test was to narrow the 31 items down to between 10 and 15 items to create a short knowledge self-efficacy scale that captured the information sought most often from newcomers. These items were expected to highlight the important parts of the onboarding process for which veterans need to have high efficacy when providing newcomers with information about these aspects of the role and organization. It was important to narrow down the number of items to be manageable for survey participants. Especially in this study, the survey was already long (15 to 30 minutes) and a shorter scale was needed to avoid participant fatigue or the potential for insufficient effort responding (Dunn et al., 2016; Meade & Craig, 2012).

Pilot test description: Participants in the pilot study were ten subject matter experts (SMEs) defined as someone who onboarded at least two people at their current organization and one of those onboarding experiences was in the past month. These ten people were separate from the pilot test described above to test for survey length and user-friendliness. SMEs completed two tasks. In the first task, the SMEs saw a randomized list of the 31 types of information sought by newcomers and were asked to sort the items into a "Top 10" list of the types of information newcomers tend to ask about most often. In the second task, they saw the same 31 items, but rated how *their own confidence in explaining that type of information* could affect how the newcomer does their job on a scale from 1 (*definitely not*) to 5 (*definitely yes*). For example, the SME thought about if having confidence in themselves to adequately explain "job instructions" could affect how well a newcomer does their job.

Pilot test results: The number of times each of the 31 items appeared in the Top 10 list was counted, an average was calculated based on what position in the Top 10 list each type of information was, and an average was computed for the SMEs' confidence in explaining each type of information. The data were then visually inspected and items were chosen based on a combination of where that item showed up most often in the Top 10 list and if it was rated as something the veteran needed to be confident in explaining to others. Thirteen items were retained for the final scale. These 13 items appeared in the Top 10 list seven or more times and had average or above average ratings on the importance of confidence. The instructions and final items are presented in Table 5.

To better understand the factor structure of the scale, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on the sub-sample of veterans ($N = 175$) not included in

later tests of the hypothesized model because they were not part of a completed pair (Table 6). Inter-item correlations were examined initially and one item (how to get a promotion) correlated less than .30 with all other items and was the only item with an item-total correlation less than .40. Initially, using principal axis factoring with oblique rotation, three factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. However, one factor only had one item load onto it and it was the same item with low inter-item correlations and item-total correlations. Therefore, the item "how to get a promotion" was removed from future analyses and another EFA was conducted.

In the twelve-item principal axis factoring EFA, two factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. All item-total correlations were above .48. Factor loadings ranged from .42 to .87. The two factors were correlated at .42. The factors seem to have face validity as well. Factor 1 deals with information about the organization and the role (e.g., job procedures related to the specific role and what work needs to be done), while Factor 2 is more focused on assessing performance and managing the role (e.g., adequacy of basic skills and abilities and managing job pressures and role conflicts) (see Table 4). The alpha internal consistency reliability of the sub-sample was .85 for the "job knowledge" factor and .89 for the "assessment" factor.

Final scale based on EFA: Knowledge self-efficacy was measured with a 12-item scale created for this study. Veterans were asked to rate items on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 *(not at all confident)* to 5 *(extremely confident)* regarding their confidence in their ability to explain the role or their ability to give feedback on various job aspects. Sample items include "job instructions", "the reason for doing each task", and "adequacy

of his/her basic skills and abilities". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .87 for the job knowledge factor and .88 for the assessment factor.

TABLE 6: Exploratory factor analysis for knowledge self-efficacy scale items

	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Job instructions	**0.87**	0.08
2. Organizational procedures	**0.57**	-0.01
3. Amount of responsibility for the new role	**0.67**	-0.02
4. The reason for doing each task	**0.78**	0.10
5. Job procedures specific to the new role	**0.71**	-0.09
6. What work needs to be done	**0.63**	-0.09
7. How to get job training	**0.41**	-0.24
8. Appropriateness of social behavior	0.08	**-0.66**
9. Adequacy of his/her basic skills and abilities	0.15	**-0.68**
10. Adequacy of his/her performance under pressure	0.10	**-0.82**
11. Managing job pressures and role conflicts	-0.06	**-0.83**
12. Overcoming his/her anxieties	-0.11	**-0.87**

Note. N = 175. The sample is veterans who completed the survey, but did not have a matched pair and therefore are not included in the final analyses. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (not at all confident) to 5 (extremely confident). Instructions asked veterans, "How confident were you in your ability to explain or give feedback on each of the following aspects of the organization and new role to the newcomer?"

Discriminant validity of knowledge self-efficacy. A CFA was conducted to examine if the two-factor structure from the EFA held for the sample used for testing the hypothesized model (Table 7). Consistent with the EFA, the two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one-factor model, although the fit was still not adequate ($\chi 2$ (53) = 209.65 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .83; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .79; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .16). All indicators in the two-factor model loaded on their predicted factors (lowest loading = .52). The correlation between the two factors was .59. For future analyses, the two-factor model was maintained (alpha internal consistencies reported in parentheses): job knowledge self-efficacy (.88) and assessment knowledge self-efficacy (.89).

TABLE 7: Confirmatory factor analyses model fit indices for veteran knowledge self-efficacy

Model	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	Difference	RMSEA
One-Factor Model	0.62	0.54	396.51*	54		.24*
Two-Factor Model	0.83	0.79	209.65*	53	186.86	.16*

Note. N = 115. One factor model treats all items as a single factor; two-factor model treats job knowledge self-efficacy and assessment knowledge self-efficacy as separate factors. Difference = difference in chi-square values from the previous model. All chi-square and difference statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Veteran emotional exhaustion. An 8-item measure developed as part of the Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to measure veteran emotional exhaustion. Participants rated items on a 7-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*every day*). Instructions were adapted to ask veterans to think about their time during the onboarding process and asked "How often did you…?" followed by a series of statements. Sample items include "feel frustrated by your job" and "feel like you are working too hard on your job". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .92.

Veteran intent to quit. Veterans responded to the three-item measure of intent to quit developed by Parra (1995). Participants rated items using a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Instructions were adapted to ask veterans to think about their time during the onboarding process. Sample items include "I may look for another organization soon" and "I often think of quitting my current organization". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .87.

Veteran affective commitment. The six-item scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) was used to measure veteran's affective commitment. Participants rated items using a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample

items include “I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization” and “Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me”. The alpha internal consistency reliability was .93.

Control variables

Newcomer controls. Newcomer’s perceptions of liking and comfort with veterans, and organizational size were examined as potential control variables for newcomer outcomes. It was expected that if the newcomer liked and felt comfortable with the veteran, they could also feel more socially accepted and not be afraid or intimated to ask the veteran for information about their new roles. Organizational size was examined because larger organizations are more complex and some structure around the socialization process is likely needed, leading to more institutionalized socialization tactics (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998). If there are more institutionalized tactics, newcomers may not seek as much information from veterans, but could still have high role clarity and social acceptance.

Veteran controls. Veteran’s perceptions of liking and comfort with newcomers, organizational size, veteran tenure, and veteran stress were examined as potential controls for veteran outcomes. Veterans who liked and felt comfortable with the newcomers they were helping could have felt less emotionally exhausted, less likely to quit, and more committed to an organization that hired someone they got along well with and could easily work with. Organizational size and tenure was examined because the larger the organization, the greater the number of newcomers there are going through the socialization process at a time (John, 1993). Veterans at larger organizations and who

have been with the organization for a longer period could feel more comfortable socializing newcomers, not be surprised or interrupted by socialization process, and have figured out how to balance onboarding with their current role leading to less emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and more affective commitment. Finally, stress has been previously related to all three veteran outcomes examined in this study such that stress typically is related to more emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and less affective commitment.

Newcomer and veteran liking were assessed using three items developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). Both the veteran and the newcomer completed this scale about each other. Participants rated three items on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items include "I get along well with the newcomer/veteran" and "getting to know this newcomer/veteran has been a pleasure". The alpha internal consistency reliabilities were .75 for newcomers and .75 for veterans.

Newcomer and veteran comfort were assessed using three items developed for this study that focused on the onboarding process. Both newcomers and veterans rated their comfort level with each other on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include "I felt comfortable approaching the veteran with questions during the onboarding process" and "I felt comfortable interacting with the newcomer during the onboarding process". The alpha internal consistency reliability was .72 for newcomers and .75 for veterans.

Organizational size appeared on the veteran survey. One multiple choice question asked them to choose the size of their organization: 1-49; 50-99; 100-499; 500-999; 1,000-4,999; 5,000 or more. Veterans responded to one open-ended question about *tenure*

and reported their tenure in months. One item assessed *veteran stress* and asked veterans to report if they ever felt added stress because of the socialization process.

Control variables are typically examined for two reasons: to check for spurious relationships and to check to see if independent variables of interest explain incremental validity in the dependent variables of interest over and above control variables. In this study, controls were retained for future analyses if they explained variance in the dependent variable, which allowed for a check to see if the study's independent variables explained incremental variance in the dependent variable (Becker, 2005). If the potential control variables were not related to the dependent variables of interest, they were dropped from future analyses for the sake of parsimony.

Newcomer perceptions of liking and comfort were related to newcomer adjustment variables (role clarity and social acceptance) and retained for future analyses. For veterans, organizational size and veteran stress were related to veteran outcomes and thus retained. Newcomer perceptions of liking and comfort were predicted to only be related to newcomer outcomes while organizational size and veteran stress were predicted to only be related to veteran outcomes.

RESULTS

Data merging and cleaning

Before merging, data were inspected for the proportion of the survey that was incomplete (total $N = 2{,}354$). A variable was created to flag responses that had over 75% missing data ($N = 1{,}774$). Responses that were flagged were visually inspected to determine what data were missing. A majority of the responses flagged as having more than 75% missing data either 1) did not qualify for the study, but their responses to the qualifying questions were recorded or 2) started the survey but dropped off after the demographics. After those data were removed, there were 580 participants: 330 veterans and 250 newcomers. These data were merged using SPSS resulting in 115 pairs of newcomers and veterans. The data that were not matched have been retained in a separate dataset for future research (see Table 2 for more information). Also, these data were used in exploratory factor analyses for knowledge self-efficacy.

After data were merged and initially cleaned, the data were examined for missing data, outliers, and insufficient effort responding (IER). In terms of missing data, 94.0% ($N = 108$) of veteran data and 92.4% ($N = 106$) of newcomer data had less than 3 items with missing data. One participant's data was removed because the veteran had completed the survey, but the newcomer had not completed any more than the qualifying questions and a few socialization tactics items.

It was important to evaluate how much missing data there were before starting the primary analyses because structural equation modeling requires no missing values so that the missing values do not influence results (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). There are two ways to ensure that there are no missing data: 1) remove cases that have missing data or

2) if less than 5% of the data is missing per case, replace missing data with values (e.g., use mean imputation) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Because of the small sample size (*N* = 115), it was important to maintain as many responses as possible. Thus, any missing data was replaced at the item level with the item mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The item mean replaced a missing data point 50 times across all items on the newcomer and veteran surveys (approximately 1% missing data).

Outlier analyses were also performed on all focal variables. Any participants with scores on measures above or below two standard deviations were visually inspected. Some participants had extreme scores on more than one scale. However, when examined together, the extreme scores seemed logical. For example, one veteran was two standard deviations above the average on intent to quit and two standard deviations below the average on commitment. While unfortunate, it also makes sense that someone who is thinking about leaving the organization is also not committed. Another example was a newcomer who was two standard deviations below the mean on socialization tactics, indicating that they experienced very individualized tactics. This same participant was also two standard deviations below the mean on social acceptance. Despite the extreme scores, this makes sense because individualized tactics typically leave newcomers feeling isolated and less embedded than newcomers who experience institutionalized tactics (Ashforth & Saks, 1996).

Three IER indices were used to examine the data: Response Time, Long String, and the Individual Response Variability (IRV) Index. Most participants (85% of veterans and 75% of newcomers) finished the survey in under 60 minutes. Because participants could return to the survey or may not have clicked the “finish” button, the response time

average and standard deviation are not very meaningful. Instead, I examined the bottom 10% of the data (N = 12 veterans and 12 newcomers), which was anyone who finished the survey in under 15 minutes and 30 seconds. After visual inspection, while some participants finished in a short amount of time, there was no apparent pattern in these data to warrant removal.

The IRV Index was calculated by taking the standard deviation of all consecutive survey items included in the model (Dunn, Heggestad, Shanock, & Theilgard, 2016). The purpose of the IRV Index is to identify respondents who may not be engaging in Long String behavior, but are irregularly fluctuating their responses throughout the survey. Low IRV scores are typically problematic, especially when looking across a variety of constructs, because the respondent was likely not paying attention to changes in the content of the items. The IRV Index included multiple constructs, negatively worded items, and was calculated before the items were recoded. The mean IRV Index score was 1.60 (SD = .21) for newcomers and 1.31 (SD = .19) for veterans. The bottom 10% of the data (N = 12), which was newcomer scores below 1.33 and veteran scores below 1.08, were examined for insufficient effort responding. There was one veteran and one newcomer that were flagged by both Response Time and the IRV index. Both were retained because it was apparent that the respondents were switching responses between constructs and the pattern of responses appeared to make sense (e.g., if the respondent had low scores on intent to quit, they had higher scores on commitment).

The Long String Index was calculated in R for both newcomers and veterans. The Long String Index identifies how many consecutive times each respondent uses the same response option (Dunn et al., 2016; Meade & Craig, 2012). Research suggests that

those respondents with high long string scores are less likely to have been paying attention to the content of the items and more likely to want to finish the survey as quickly as possible. The mean Long String Index score was 5.97 (*SD* = 2.35) for newcomers and 9.63 (*SD* = 4.30) for veterans. The top 10% of the data (*N* = 12), which was newcomer scores above 9 and veteran scores above 15, were examined. Like the Response Time and IRV Index, responses did not warrant removal from the dataset. Many of the long strings occurred within scales. For example, many veterans used the same response for the assimilation scale (there were no reverse coded items) and the knowledge self-efficacy scale, while many newcomers used the same response scale for socialization tactics. These scales are also quite lengthy (24, 13, and 30 items respectively), which explains the longer strings that are present in the data.

Common method variance

Part of the model contained predictor and criterion variables from different sources (Hypotheses 2a-c and Hypotheses 3a-c), which helps overcome common method issues. However, three of the five hypothesized relationships (Hypotheses 1a-c, Hypotheses 4a-b, and Hypotheses 5a-c) were from a single source (e.g., either from the newcomer or the veteran) and were reported at a single time point on their survey. These two factors (single source and single time point) increase the chance of having common method variance influence the hypothesized relationships (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

One recommendation for controlling for common method includes using different response formats (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Throughout the survey, the length of the

Likert-type responses (e.g., from 5 points to 7 points) did change from measure to measure and several qualitative questions intermittingly broke up the quantitative measures. This should have made participants pay attention to the survey and re-focus on the items as they recognized the changes in scales and qualitative questions. Finally, both surveys were broken up into four parts. Each part was on a separate page with a description of what that part was about (e.g., you will now answer a series of questions about your onboarding experience or you will now answer a series of questions regarding your role). These page breaks allowed the participant to take a break from the survey, disengage while on that page, and re-engage with the next set of questions.

Even though there were procedural remedies put in place to control for common method variance, a statistical test, the confirmatory factor analysis marker variable technique (Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010), was conducted to better evaluate if common method variance was potentially an explanation for the results. The marker variable used in this study was polychronicity or the extent to which people prefer to engage in two or more tasks simultaneously (Kaufman-Scarborough & Lindquist, 1999). Polychronicity was chosen because it was a short scale (only four items), would blend in easily with the rest of the survey items, and was expected to not be theoretically related to any focal variables (Williams et al., 2010). It is important that the marker variable is not related to the focal variables because any variance shared could then be explained by a common method (i.e., the single time point survey). Polychronicity appeared on both newcomer and veteran surveys.

Before running the CFA marker variable analysis, correlations were run between polychronicity and all main study variables. Polychronicity was not statistically

significantly related to any newcomer or veteran focal variables. Therefore, I could continue with the marker variable analyses using AMOS 23.0. A measurement model was created where the focal variables all covaried with each other. A latent common factor was added to the model and every observed item was regressed onto the latent common factor. Each regression weight was constrained to "a", so that each regression weight was the same for each observed item and the common factor would explain the amount of common variance shared among the observed items. When the marker variable was added to the measurement model, the same steps were followed as described above so that the marker variable covaried with the latent variables, the observed items were regressed onto the latent common factor, and the regression weights were constrained to "a". Finally, the variance in the common factor was constrained to 1.

For the newcomer data, socialization tactics, role clarity, social acceptance, and polychronicity were included in the model. For the veteran data, assimilation, socialization-related job demands, knowledge self-efficacy, intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, commitment, and polychronicity were included in the model. After running the model, the regression weights ("a") were squared to obtain the common variance among the observed items. The regression weights were .27 for newcomers and .26 for veterans. Squaring each of these, the percentage of common variance was less than 10%; 7.45% in the newcomer model and 6.81% in the veteran model.

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics, bivariate correlations, and internal reliability alphas are reported in Tables 8, 9, and 10. Table 8 reports relationships between newcomer

independent variables, dependent variables, and potential control variables. Table 9 reports relationships between veteran independent variables, dependent variables, and potential control variables. Based on the results from confirmatory factor analyses and reliability analyses, Table 10 contains descriptives, reliabilities, and correlations for all study variables. Some variables are not included in Table 10 due to low reliability (e.g., newcomer self-efficacy, veteran acculturation and job competency). Table 10 also only retains control variables that were related to dependent variables of interest. Table 8 and 9 were included in hopes of making it easier for readers to find relationships of interest.

Means and standard deviations were examined first. One mean that was surprising was the mean for veteran socialization-related job demands (M = 2.50; SD = .70). It was expected that veterans helping with the onboarding process would have high socialization-related job demands, but 2.50 is below the midpoint for that scale. Aside from two veteran variables (emotional exhaustion and intent to quit), all standard deviations were below 1.0. This may indicate that some measures suffered from range restriction. Two of the variables with the smallest standard deviations were the dimensions of veteran assimilation and knowledge self-efficacy. However, we would expect that since veterans have been with their organization for over one year, that they should be assimilated and can talk with others about their role and the organization.

Consistent with hypotheses, socialization tactics were positively related to newcomer role clarity and social acceptance. That is, the more institutionalized tactics were, the higher the newcomer's role clarity and social acceptance. Most dimensions of veteran assimilation were negatively related to veteran socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy. The veteran socialization-related job demands variable was

positively related to emotional exhaustion and intent to quit, while both dimensions of veteran knowledge self-efficacy were negatively related to emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and positively related to affective commitment. Finally, the veteran socialization-related job demands variable was not related to newcomer adjustment (role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance), but veteran job and assessment knowledge self-efficacy were positively related to newcomer role clarity and social acceptance.

TABLE 8: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of newcomer study and control variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15	(.76)				
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40	.58**	(.60)			
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15	.20*	.22*	(.61)		
4. Role clarity	4.81	0.95	.56**	.44**	.45**	(.83)	
5. Self-efficacy	5.18	0.74	.20*	0.12	0.07	.29**	
6. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80	.27**	.31**	.44**	.44**	
7. Newcomer liking of veteran	4.69	0.69	.22*	.25**	.19*	.30**	
8. Newcomer comfort with veteran	4.70	0.47	0.17	.23*	.48**	.33**	
9. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.08	0.04	-.06	0.08	
	M	***SD***	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15					
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40					
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15					
4. Role clarity	4.81	0.95					
5. Self-efficacy	5.18	0.74	(.59)				
6. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80	.25*	(.85)			
7. Newcomer liking of veteran	4.69	0.69	0.05	.23*	(.75)		
8. Newcomer comfort with veteran	4.70	0.47	.33**	.37**	.46**	(.72)	
9. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.07	-.02	0.17	0.15	--

Note. $N = 115$. Internal consistency alpha reliabilities are reported on the diagonal. Content, context, and social socialization tactics are reported from the 12-item measure. Potential control variables include newcomer liking, newcomer comfort, and organizational size

TABLE 9: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of veteran study and control variables

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62	(.73)					
2. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79	.49**	(.81)				
3. Acculturation	4.54	0.42	.34**	.42**	(.48)			
4. Recognition	4.31	0.89	.41**	.78**	.36**	(.94)		
5. Involvement	3.90	0.84	.37**	.28**	.25**	.36**	(.76)	
6. Job competency	4.28	0.53	.20*	0.06	.22*	0.02	.37**	(.63)
7. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.09	.30**	.40**
8. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61	.31**	.24**	.31**	.25**	.36**	.46**
9. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73	.35**	.26**	.23*	.25**	.35**	.25**
10. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70	-.10	-.12	-.24**	-.10	-.24*	-.09
11. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20	-.27**	-.25**	-.17	-.33**	-.52**	-.16
12. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22	-.21**	-.24**	-.32**	-.45**	-.50**	0.01
13. Affective commitment	3.89	0.80	.33**	.27**	.39**	.33**	.56**	.19*
14. Veteran liking	4.71	0.59	0.09	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.08	0.03
15. Veteran comfort	4.77	0.47	.25**	.23*	.24**	.26**	.21*	0.17
16. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.09	-.06	0.14	-.06	0.09	.23*
17. Veteran tenure (months)	48.40	56.15	.25**	0.07	0.09	-.06	0.08	0.16
18. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	0.16	.21*	.22*	.26**	0.12	0.1

	M	*SD*	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62						
2. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79						
3. Acculturation	4.54	0.42						
4. Recognition	4.31	0.89						
5. Involvement	3.90	0.84						
6. Job competency	4.28	0.53						
7. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	(.70)					
8. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61	0.09	(.88)				
9. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73	0.13	.59**	(.89)			
10. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70	-.06	-.12	-.11	(.86)		
11. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20	-.09	-.31**	-.27**	.38**	(.93)	
12. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22	-.02	-.24**	-.22*	.20*	.53**	(.92)
13. Affective commitment	3.89	0.80	0.18	.23*	.30**	-.29**	-.44**	-.64**
14. Veteran liking	4.71	0.59	-.08	0.06	.29**	-.10	-.07	0.04
15. Veteran comfort	4.77	0.47	0.08	0.17	.33**	-.06	-.14	-.09
16. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.11	.22*	0.09	-.20*	-.13	0.02
17. Veteran tenure (months)	48.40	56.15	-.12	0.14	0.07	-.20*	-.09	-.04
18. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	0.07	.18*	.26**	-.37**	-.33**	-.14

	M	*SD*	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62						
2. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79						
3. Acculturation	4.54	0.42						
4. Recognition	4.31	0.89						
5. Involvement	3.90	0.84						
6. Job competency	4.28	0.53						
7. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67						
8. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61						
9. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73						
10. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70						
11. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20						
12. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22						
13. Affective commitment	3.89	0.80	(.87)					
14. Veteran liking	4.71	0.59	-.05	(.75)				
15. Veteran comfort	4.77	0.47	0.17	.22*	(.75)			
16. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	-.08	0.11	0.07	--		
17. Veteran tenure (months)	48.40	56.15	18*	-.12	-.03	-.02	--	
18. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	.21*	0.15	.36**	0.16	-.01	--

Note. $N = 115$. Internal consistency alpha reliabilities are reported on the diagonal. The seven factors of assimilation are reported (familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, acculturation, recognition, involvement, job competency, and role negotiation). Potential control variables include veteran liking, veteran comfort, organizational size, veteran tenure, and veteran stress.

TABLE 10: Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations of newcomer and veteran study and control variables used for final test of hypotheses

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15	(.76)				
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40	.58**	(.60)			
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15	.20*	.22*	(.61)		
4. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61	.20*	0.16	.24**	(.88)	
5. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73	0.08	0.09	0.12	.59**	(.89)
6. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70	0.16	0.14	-.01	-.12	-.11
7. Role clarity	4.81	0.95	.56**	.44**	.45**	.31**	0.15
8. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80	.27**	.31**	.44**	.30**	.31**
9. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20	-.13	-.07	-.07	-.31**	-.27**
10. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22	-.07	-.14	-.11	-.24**	-.22*
11. Commitment	3.89	0.80	0.06	0.06	0.12	.23*	.30**
12. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62	-.01	-.03	0.10	.31**	.35**
13. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79	-.02	-.03	0.17	.24**	.26**
14. Recognition	4.31	0.89	0.15	0.11	.19*	.25**	.25**
15. Involvement	3.90	0.84	0.09	0.1	0.17	.36**	.35**
16. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	0.06	0.09	0.12	0.09	0.13
17. Newcomer liking	4.69	0.69	.22*	.25**	.19*	0.13	0.14
18. Newcomer comfort	4.70	0.47	0.17	.23*	.48**	.27**	.27**
19. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.08	0.04	-.06	.22*	0.09
20. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	0.04	0.03	0.06	.18*	.26**

	M	*SD*	6	7	8	9	10
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15					
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40					
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15					
4. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61					
5. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73					
6. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70	(.86)				
7. Role clarity	4.81	0.95	0.15	(.83)			
8. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80	-.07	.44**	(.85)		
9. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20	.38**	-.19*	-.32**	(.93)	
10. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22	.20*	-.18*	-.40**	.53**	(.92)
11. Commitment	3.89	0.80	-.29**	0.07	.30**	-.44**	-.64**
12. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62	-.10	0.08	-.18*	-.27**	-.21**
13. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79	-.12	0.15	-.23*	-.25**	-.24**
14. Recognition	4.31	0.89	-.10	.25**	-.23*	-.33**	-.45**
15. Involvement	3.90	0.84	-.24*	0.14	-.26**	-.52**	-.50**
16. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	-.06	0.06	0.04	-.09	-.02
17. Newcomer liking	4.69	0.69	-.11	.30**	.23*	-.14	-.09
18. Newcomer comfort	4.70	0.47	-.16	.33**	.37**	-.22*	-.14
19. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	-.20*	0.08	-.02	-.13	0.02
20. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	-.37**	0.15	-.31*	-.33**	-.14

Table 10 continued on next page.

	M	*SD*	11	12	13	14	15
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15					
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40					
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15					
4. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61					
5. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73					
6. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70					
7. Role clarity	4.81	0.95					
8. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80					
9. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20					
10. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22					
11. Commitment	3.89	0.80	(.87)				
12. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62	.33**	(.73)			
13. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79	.27**	.49**	(.81)		
14. Recognition	4.31	0.89	.33**	.41**	.78**	(.94)	
15. Involvement	3.90	0.84	.56**	.37**	.28**	.36**	(.76)
16. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	0.18	0.04	0.05	0.09	.30**
17. Newcomer liking	4.69	0.69	0.02	0.12	0.01	-.04	0.15
18. Newcomer comfort	4.70	0.47	0.07	0.02	0.06	0.06	.20*
19. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	-.08	0.09	-.06	-.06	0.09
20. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	.21*	0.16	.21*	.26**	0.12

	M	*SD*	16	17	18	19	20
1. Content socialization tactics	4.12	1.15					
2. Context socialization tactics	4.06	1.40					
3. Social socialization tactics	5.03	1.15					
4. Job knowledge self-efficacy	4.36	0.61					
5. Assessment knowledge self-efficacy	4.10	0.73					
6. Socialization-related job demands	2.50	0.70					
7. Role clarity	4.81	0.95					
8. Social acceptance	4.04	0.80					
9. Emotional exhaustion	2.86	1.20					
10. Intent to quit	2.30	1.22					
11. Commitment	3.89	0.80					
12. Familiarity with coworkers	4.30	0.62					
13. Familiarity with supervisors	4.21	0.79					
14. Recognition	4.31	0.89					
15. Involvement	3.90	0.84					
16. Role negotiation	4.17	0.67	(.70)				
17. Newcomer liking	4.69	0.69	0.05	(.75)			
18. Newcomer comfort	4.70	0.47	0.11	.46**	(.72)		
19. Organizational size	3.68	1.90	0.11	0.17	0.15	--	
20. Veteran stress	1.72	0.45	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.16	--

Note. $N = 115$ newcomers and $N = 115$ veterans. Variables reported here are only variables included in the final test of hypotheses. Newcomer reported variables include socialization tactics, role clarity, social acceptance, liking, and comfort. Veteran reported variables include knowledge self-efficacy, emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, commitment, assimilation variables, organizational size, and stress. Internal consistency alpha reliabilities are reported on the diagonal. The five factors of assimilation are reported (familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, recognition, involvement, and role negotiation). Control variables include newcomer liking, newcomer comfort, organizational size, and veteran stress.

Discriminant validity of constructs in hypothesized models

Multiple nested confirmatory factor analytic models were tested to evaluate whether the survey variables were distinct from each other and to ensure that the indicators loaded onto their intended latent variables. The laavan package in R was used to compare the fit of various models for the newcomer portion of the model, the veteran portion of the model, and the full model shown in Figure 2.

Newcomer model. For the newcomer model, a series of four nested CFA models were compared using the laavan package in R (see Table 8). A one-, two-, three-, and five-factor model was compared. The one factor model included all five constructs as a single factor. The two-factor model included content, context, and social socialization tactics as one factor (Factor 1) and role clarity and social acceptance as another factor (Factor 2). The three-factor model included content, context, and social socialization tactics as one factor (Factor 1) and role clarity (Factor 2) and social acceptance (Factor 3) as separate factors. The five-factor model included each construct as a separate factor: content tactics (Factor 1), context tactics (Factor 2), social tactics (Factor 3), role clarity (Factor 4) and social acceptance (Factor 5).

Each more differentiated model showed a significantly better chi-squared statistic and the model treating each hypothesized construct as separate factor (five-factor model) showed the best fit ($\chi 2$ (340) = 508.18 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .86; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .85; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .06). This model treats the socialization tactics as three factors (content, context, and social socialization tactics) and role clarity and social acceptance as separate factors. It does not include self-efficacy due to low reliability.

TABLE 11: Confirmatory factor analyses model fit indices for full newcomer model

Model	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	Difference	RMSEA
One-Factor Model	0.62	0.59	814.89	350		.11*
Two-Factor Model	0.66	0.64	757.80	349	57.90	.10*
Three-Factor Model	0.82	0.80	567.48	347	190.32	.07*
Five-Factor Model	0.86	0.85	508.18	340	59.3	.06*

Note. N = 115. One factor model includes all three constructs (socialization tactics, role clarity, and social acceptance) as a single factor; two-factor model includes socialization tactics (Factor 1) and role clarity and social acceptance (Factor 2); three-factor model includes socialization tactics (Factor 1), role clarity (Factor 2), and social acceptance (Factor 3); five-factor model includes content tactics (Factor 1), context tactics (Factor 2), social tactics (Factor 3), role clarity (Factor 4) and social acceptance (Factor 5). Difference = difference in chi-square values from the previous model. All chi-square and difference statistics are significant at the .05 level.

Veteran model. Using the lavaan package in R, a series of five nested CFA models were compared for veterans (see Table 9). A one-, two-, six-, and 11-factor model were compared. The one factor model includes all constructs as a single factor. The two-factor model includes the independent variables (assimilation, knowledge self-efficacy, and socialization-related job demands) (Factor 1) and dependent variables (intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, commitment) (Factor 2) as separate factors. The six-factor model includes all measures as separate constructs (assimilation dimensions as one factor, knowledge self-efficacy as one factor, and socialization-related job demands, intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, and affective commitment as separate factors). The 11-factor model treats assimilation as five factors, knowledge self-efficacy as two factors, and socialization-related job demands, intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, and commitment as separate factors.

The 11-factor model fit the data the best ($\chi 2$ (1429) = 2,331.41 ($p < .05$); Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .80; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .79; Root Mean Square

Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .07). The 11-factor model treats each variable as a separate construct (five dimensions of assimilation, socialization-related job demands, job knowledge self-efficacy, assessment knowledge self-efficacy, emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment). It does not include the two assimilation scales that had low reliability (acculturation and job competency).

TABLE 12: Confirmatory factor analyses model fit indices for full veteran model

Model	CFI	TLI	χ^2	df	Difference	RMSEA
One-Factor Model	0.29	0.27	5614.16	1952		.13*
Two-Factor Model	0.36	0.33	5289.7	1951	324.46	.12*
Six-Factor Model	0.63	0.62	3834.36	1937	1,455.34	.11*
11-Factor Model	0.80	0.79	2331.41	1429	936.35	.07*

Note. N = 115. One factor model includes all constructs as a single factor; two-factor model includes the independent variabels (assimilation as a single scale, knowledge self-efficacy as a single scale, and socialization-related job demands) (Factor 1) and dependent variables (intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, commitment) (Factor 2); six-factor model includes all measures as separate constructs (assimilation, knowledge self-efficacy, socialization-related job demands, intent to quit, emotional exhaustion, commitment); 11-factor model (the best fitting model) removes two assimilation factors (acculturation and job competency) leaving five assimilation factors, socialization-related job demands, job and assessment knowledge self-efficacy, emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and commitment. Difference = difference in chi-square values from the previous model. All chi-square and difference statistics are significant at the .05 level.

The final model, based on all confirmatory factor analyses, is presented in Figure 3. The model treats organizational socialization tactics as three factors (content, context, and social), assimilation as five factors (familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, recognition, involvement, and role negotiation), veteran knowledge self-efficacy as two factors (job knowledge self-efficacy and assessment knowledge self-efficacy), and socialization-related job demands, role clarity, social acceptance,

emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment as separate factors. While none of the models had great fit (i.e., CFI and TLI scores above .90, RMSEA below .05), some models fit better than others. The best fitting models were retained to test the hypotheses. Potential implications of less adequate model fit are considered in the Discussion.

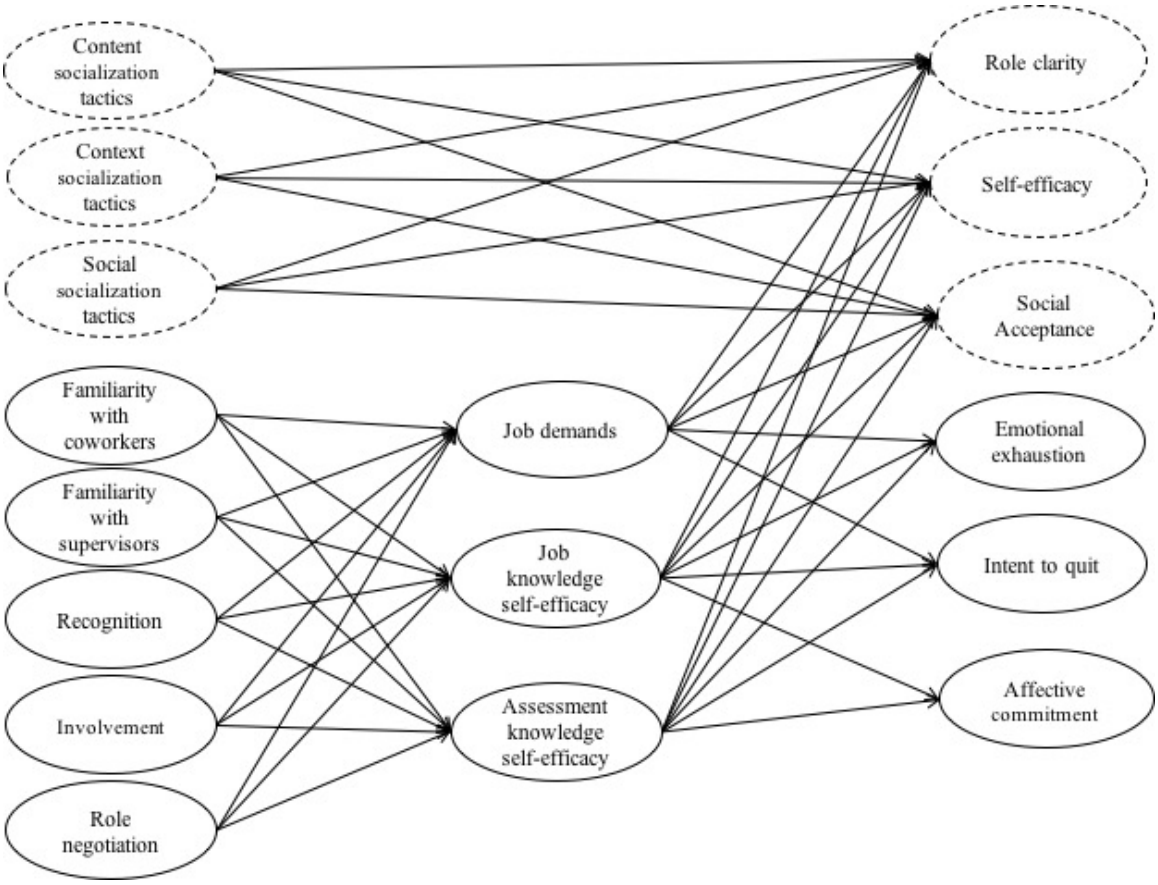

Figure 3. Final model based on nested confirmatory factor analyses. Socialization tactics are broken up into three factors: content, context, and social tactics. Assimilation is broken up into 5 factors (after two being dropped for low reliability): familiarity with coworkers, familiarity with supervisors, recognition, involvement, and role negotiation. Knowledge self-efficacy is broken up into two factors: job knowledge self-efficacy and assessment knowledge self-efficacy. Dotted line circles represent newcomer-rated items. Sold line circles represent veteran-rated items.

Structural equation modeling, sample size, and item parceling

Before testing hypotheses, the use of item parceling was considered due to the less adequate model fit found for both the newcomer and veteran portions of the model during confirmatory factor analyses. Researchers have argued that item parceling reduces the number of indicators in a model and, thus, can improve model fit (Bandalos, 2002; Matsunaga, 2008). Item parceling is also particularly ideal when the sample size is small because it creates a better indicator to sample size ratio (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). In this study, if item parceling was not used, there would have been 82 items as indicators across the newcomer and veteran models for a sample size of 115. Therefore, to reduce the number of indicators and to potentially improve model fit, item parceling (described below) was used for the remainder of the analyses.

In organizational research, models are typically tested as totally aggregated models (path modeling) or totally disaggregated models (each item is an indicator) (Coffman & MacCullum, 2005). The often-underused idea of item parceling has been described as a partial disaggregation model, which results in fewer model parameters and an improved indicator to sample size ratio (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). With parceling, parcels are used as indicators rather than using each individual item as an indicator of a latent variables. Research argues that partial disaggregation models are a better option than path analysis because the parameter estimates will be less biased than when completely aggregated models assume no measurement error. Item parceling has also been found to increase communality across indicators, reduce random error, and show more normalized distributions (an assumption of structural equation modeling) than using single item indicators (Matsunaga, 2008).

One assumption of item parceling is that all scales need to be unidimensional (Bandalos, 2002; Matsunaga, 2008). Because the best fitting model includes socialization tactics, assimilation, and knowledge self-efficacy scales as multiple dimension scales that treat the dimension as separate factors, it was deemed appropriate to continue with item parceling. If items are representing a unidimensional scale, as is the case in this study, parcels can be created using a random, factorial, correlational, or radial algorithm of assigning within-scale items to a parcel, averaging those item scores, and using the parcels as indicators for SEM analyses (Bandalos, 2002; Coffman & MacCallum, 2005; Matsunaga, 2008). Because one purpose of parcels is to reduce the number of indicators and improve model fit, research has recommended keeping the number of parcels to no more than three per latent factor, but to have at least two to protect against estimation bias (Bandalos, 2002; Matsunaga, 2008). Given the positive benefits of item parceling and the desire to limit parameter estimates, due to the small sample size of 115 matched pairs, item parceling was used with structural equation modeling.

The random algorithm was used to assign items to parcels. Not only is the random algorithm the simplest method, but it also made theoretical sense. Since each of the scales represent separate factors, then in principle any combination of the items can represent a subsample of the items and therefore should have approximately equal communalities and error variances (Matsunaga, 2008). Three item parcels were created as indicators of each of the 16 latent factors in the overall model (five newcomer factors and 11 veteran factors). Each item was randomly assigned to one of the three parcels until all items were assigned to a parcel. For scales with only three items, one parcel was created and the latent variable had one indicator. For scales with four or five items, two parcels were

created with either two or three items so that a composite could be created. The number of items per parcel ranged from one (for three-item scales) to four for longer scales (e.g., socialization-related job demands).

With parcels as indicators, structural equation modeling in AMOS was used to test the hypothesized model. Structural equation modeling allows users to test a multivariate model (multiple mediators and dependent variables) and to test all main effect hypotheses, and the research question (testing direct effects and mediation), simultaneously. Structural equation modeling was used, rather than path analysis, because unlike measured variables, which are assumed to be measured without error (Kline, 1998), latent variables account for measurement error and can correct for bias in effect estimates.

To preserve power due to the small sample size, recommendations from Becker (2005) regarding control variables were followed. Hypotheses were tested without control variables that had non-significant relationships with outcome variables. According to Table 6, organizational size was dropped from newcomer analyses due to low and non-significant bivariate correlations with newcomer dependent variables. According to Table 7, veteran liking, veteran comfort, and organizational size were dropped from veteran analyses. The control variables that were included in the model were organizational size (for veteran relationships), veteran stress, and newcomer liking and comfort.

Test of hypotheses

Figures 4 presents the direct effects model, fully testing Hypotheses 1 through 5 and controlling for organizational size, veteran stress, newcomer liking and newcomer comfort. The χ^2 test of exact fit was significant, χ^2 (281) = 555.47∗ and the indicators of approximate fit suggested mediocre fit (MacCullum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996) to the data: χ^2/df = 1.98; CFI = .81; TLI = .78; RMSEA = .09. MacCullum and colleagues (1996) argue that RMSEAs below .10 tend to have mediocre fit. It has also been argued that models with low sample sizes tend to have artificially large values of RMSEA (Kenny, 2015). Overall, squared multiple correlations [*SMC*] indicate that the six independent variables (content, context, and social socialization tactics, socialization-related job demands, and job and assessment knowledge self-efficacy) explained a percentage of variance in each of the dependent variables: 76% of role clarity, 59% of social acceptance, 40% of emotional exhaustion, 83% of intent to quit, and 71% of affective commitment.

Hypothesis 1a-c, which examined the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment, were partially supported. Newcomer self-efficacy was not tested (Hypothesis 1b) because of low reliability. Content tactics were significantly positively related to (a) role clarity (β = .57, p < .01) and (c) social acceptance (β = .23, p < .05). Context tactics were not significantly related to any newcomer adjustment variables. Social tactics were positively significantly related to (a) role clarity (β = .60, p < .01) and (c) social acceptance (β = .58, p < .01).

Hypotheses 2a-c and 3a-c examined the relationships between veteran resources (socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy) and newcomer

adjustment. Hypothesis 2a-c were not supported. Newcomer self-efficacy was not tested (Hypothesis 2b, 3b) because of low reliability. There was no significant relationship between veteran socialization-related job demands and (a) role clarity (β = .13, p = .19) and (c) social acceptance (β = -.03, p = .79). Regarding Hypothesis 3a-c, job knowledge self-efficacy was not related to (a) role clarity (β = .13, p = .21) or (c) social acceptance (β = -.10, p = .46). Assessment knowledge self-efficacy was not related to (a) role clarity (β = .01, p = .29), but was positively significantly related to newcomer social acceptance (β = .34, p < .05). Thus, Hypothesis 3a was not supported and Hypothesis 3c was partially supported.

Hypotheses 4a-b and 5a-c examined the relationships between veteran resources and veteran outcomes. Hypothesis 4a-b were partially supported. Veteran socialization-related job demands were positively significantly related to (a) emotional exhaustion (β = .28, p < .01), but not significantly related to (b) intent to quit (β = -.01, p = .96). Hypothesis 5a-c were also partially supported. Job knowledge self-efficacy was not significantly related to (a) emotional exhaustion (β = -.12, p = .23), (b) intent to quit (β = -.18, p = .24) or (c) affective commitment (β = -.11, p = .24). However, assessment knowledge self-efficacy was negatively significantly related to (a) emotional exhaustion (β = -.24, p < .01) and (b) intent to quit (β = -.54, p < .01). Finally, assessment knowledge self-efficacy was positively significantly related to (c) affective commitment (β = .38, p < .01).

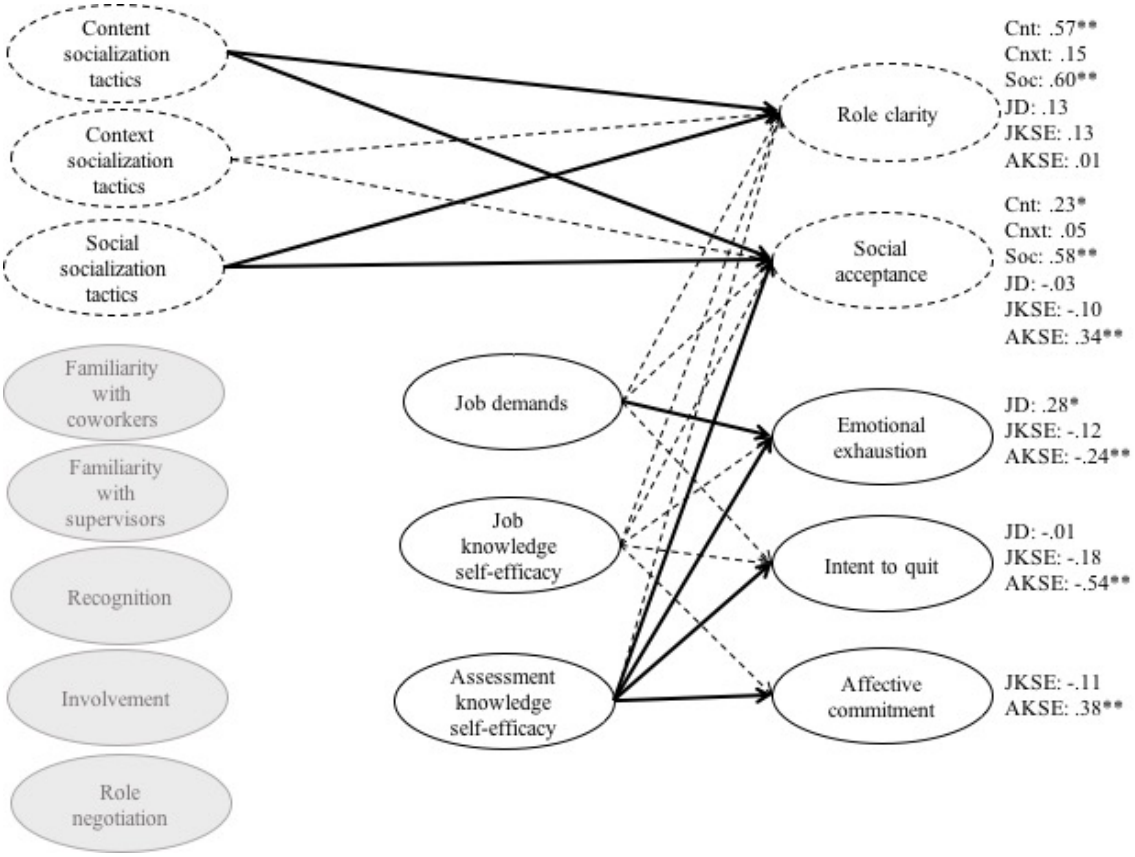

Figure 4. Test of hypotheses and direct effect results. Results from the direct effects model are presented. Dark solid lines represent supported hypotheses. Dotted lines represent unsupported hypotheses. Dotted line circles represent newcomer-rated items. Solid line circles represent veteran-rated items. Shaded circles represent research questions that were not examined in this analysis. The numbers on the right are the direct effect estimates for each independent variable to the dependent variable. Control variables include newcomer liking, newcomer comfort, organizational size (for veteran relationships), and veteran stress. Cnt = content socialization tactics; Cnxt = context socialization tactics; Soc = social socialization tactics, JD = socialization-related job demands, JKSE = job knowledge self-efficacy; AKSE = assessment knowledge self-efficacy. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Test of research question

Figure 5 presents the mediation model discussed in the research question addressing veteran assimilation. In this model, veteran assimilation is added as an independent variable and the indirect effects through socialization-related job demands, job knowledge self-efficacy, and assessment knowledge self-efficacy are tested while

controlling for organizational size, veteran stress, newcomer liking and newcomer comfort. Like the main effects model, structural equation modeling in AMOS with item parceling was used. The χ^2 test of exact fit was significant, χ^2 (564) = 1,213.36∗ and the indicators of approximate fit suggested worse fit of the data compared to the direct effects model: χ^2/df = 2.15; CFI = .68; TLI = .65; RMSEA = .10. Overall, squared multiple correlations [*SMC*] indicate that the five factors of assimilation explained a small amount of overall variance in the mediators: 3% of job knowledge self-efficacy, 5% of assessment knowledge self-efficacy, and 50% of assessment knowledge self-efficacy. There was also a certain percentage of variance explained in the dependent variables by the independent variables (socialization tactics and assimilation) and the mediators (socialization-related job demands, and job and assessment knowledge self-efficacy): 95% of role clarity, 57% of social acceptance, 43% of emotional exhaustion, 48% of intent to quit, and 64% of affective commitment.

Because SEM was used to test the mediation model, each step required for mediation was assessed simultaneously rather than in separate steps (Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998). The mediated model proposed that assimilation was an antecedent of veteran resources (i.e., socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy) and suggested that socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy mediated the relationship between veteran assimilation, veteran attitudes, and newcomer adjustment. According to Kenny and colleagues (1998), there are three steps to test for mediation: 1) the independent variables need to be related to the mediators, 2) the mediators need to be related to the dependent variables controlling for the independent

variables, and 3) the indirect effect is then calculated to understand the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable through the mediator.

In Step 1, familiarity with supervisors (β = -.12, p < .05), recognition (β = .42, p < .01), and involvement (β = .55, p < .01) were related to assessment knowledge self-efficacy. Because no dimensions of assimilation were related to socialization-related job demands or job knowledge self-efficacy, the test of mediation through those two mediators ends. In Step 2, assessment knowledge self-efficacy was related to veteran emotional exhaustion (β = -.58, p < .01), intent to quit (β = -.68, p < .01), and affective commitment (β = .78, p < .01) as well as newcomer social acceptance (β = .52, p < .01). Assessment knowledge self-efficacy was not related to newcomer role clarity so the test of mediation stops for this relationship. In Step 3, AMOS calculated the indirect effects of assimilation (i.e., familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement) with veteran outcomes (i.e., emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and commitment) and newcomer social acceptance through assessment knowledge self-efficacy.

The indirect effects of familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement with newcomer social acceptance and veteran emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment were calculated. While AMOS does use bootstrapping to calculate the total indirect effect for all mediators on the outcome of interest, AMOS does not calculate individual indirect effects for each mediator. Since the three dimensions of assimilation were only related to one mediator (assessment knowledge self-efficacy), the Z' test (Preacher, 2001) was used to calculate the individual indirect effects specifically through assessment knowledge self-efficacy.

The Z' test allowed for the indirect relationships to be tested between familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement and the outcomes of interest specifically through assessment knowledge self-efficacy. While current research recommends using bootstrapping to test for indirect effects (e.g., Preacher, 2001), the Z' test is a more conservative test of mediation. It does not account for the non-normal distribution of indirect effects and thus 'penalizes' the significance of indirect effects in the direction of Type II error (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Therefore, if the indirect effect is significant using the Z' test, it would be significant using bootstrapping as well.

Regarding newcomer social acceptance, the indirect effects through assessment knowledge self-efficacy were significant for familiarity with supervisors ($ab = .05$, $Z' = -1.94$, $p < .05$), recognition ($ab = .16$, $Z' = 3.43$, $p < .01$), and involvement ($ab = .22$, $Z' = 3.58$, $p < .01$). Regarding veteran emotional exhaustion, the indirect effects through assessment knowledge self-efficacy were significant for recognition ($ab = -.25$, $Z' = -3.46$, $p < .01$) and involvement ($ab = -.34$, $Z' = -3.62$, $p < .01$) and not significant for familiarity with supervisor ($ab = .08$, $Z' = -1.89$, $p = .06$). Regarding veteran intent to quit, the indirect effects through assessment knowledge self-efficacy were significant for familiarity with supervisor ($ab = .12$, $Z' = 1.98$, $p < .05$), recognition ($ab = -.39$, $Z' = -4.01$, $p < .01$), and involvement ($ab = -.52$, $Z' = -4.25$, $p < .01$). Regarding veteran affective commitment, the indirect effects through assessment knowledge self-efficacy were significant for familiarity with supervisor ($ab = -.07$, $Z' = -1.97$, $p < .05$), recognition ($ab = .23$, $Z' = 3.91$, $p < .01$), and involvement ($ab = .30$, $Z' = 4.14$, $p < .01$).

In summary, veteran assimilation was not related to veteran socialization-related job demands (Research Question 1) or job knowledge self-efficacy (Research Question 2), but three out of the five dimensions of assimilation was related to assessment knowledge self-efficacy (Research Question 2). Because veteran assimilation was not related to veteran socialization-related job demands, the mediation relationship proposed in Research Question 3 was not tested. Finally, regarding Research Question 4, assessment knowledge self-efficacy did mediate the relationships between three dimensions of assimilation (familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement) and newcomer social acceptance and veteran emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment.

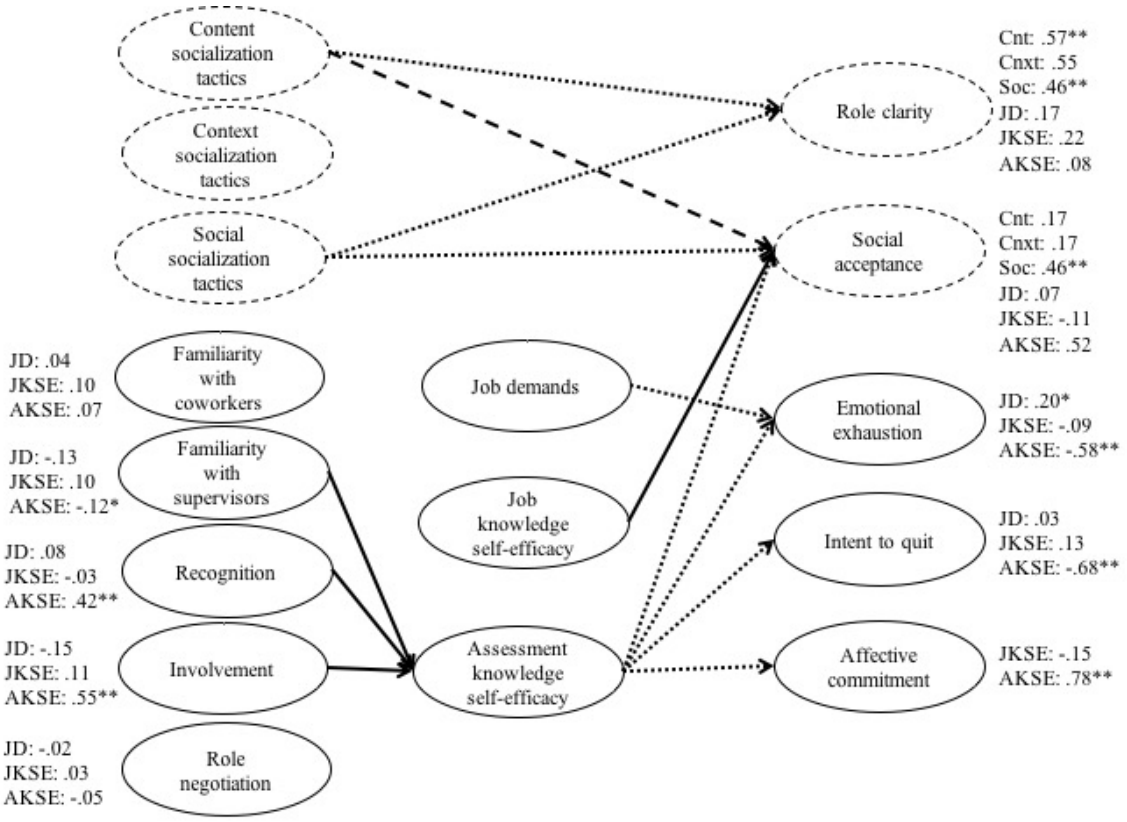

Figure 5. Test of research question and mediation results. Results from the mediation model are presented. Dotted line circles represent newcomer-rated items. Solid line circles represent veteran-rated items. No line between variables represents an unsupported pathway. Small dotted arrows represent relationships that were significant in the direct effect model and the mediation model. Large dotted line arrows represent a relationship that was significant in the direct effects model, but no longer significant in the mediation model (content socialization tactics and social acceptance). Dark solid arrows represent new significant relationships that were found using the mediation model. The numbers on the left are the direct effect estimates for the independent variables to the mediators. The numbers on the right are the direct effect estimates for the mediators to the dependent variable. Control variables include newcomer liking, newcomer comfort, organizational size (for veteran relationships), and veteran stress. Cnt = content socialization tactics; Cnxt = context socialization tactics; Soc = social socialization tactics, JD = socialization-related job demands, JKSE = job knowledge self-efficacy; AKSE = assessment knowledge self-efficacy. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

DISCUSSION

Discussion of study findings

This study aimed to address two main gaps in the socialization literature. First, the current study examined how veterans facilitate or hinder newcomer adjustment. Next, this study aimed to understand the "other side" of the socialization story; how veterans perceive the socialization process. This study examined how two veteran resources, including one job characteristic (socialization-related job demands) and one individual difference (veteran knowledge self-efficacy), relate to newcomer adjustment and veteran well-being and job attitudes. Having data from two sources puts the current study in a unique position to explore new antecedents of newcomer adjustment (veteran resources) as well as the underexplored relationship between veteran resources and veteran attitudes during the socialization process. The extension to include veteran perceptions highlights Feldman's (2012) arguments that socialization is a process that influences more than just the newcomer.

Overall, there were four main research questions in the current study: 1) replicating previous research, are socialization tactics related to newcomer adjustment?; 2) are veteran resources related to newcomer adjustment?; 3) are veteran resources related to veteran perceptions during the socialization process?; and 4) is veteran assimilation an antecedent to veteran resources? For the first research question, content and social socialization tactics were significantly positively related to two aspects of newcomer adjustment (role clarity and social acceptance). That is, higher content and higher social tactics are related to better newcomer adjustment. This partially replicates previous research showing that when socialization tactics are more institutionalized (i.e.,

occur in a sequential order over a scheduled amount of time and provides newcomers with access to experienced veterans), newcomers are better adjusted.

For the second research question, two veteran resources were examined. Veteran socialization-related job demands and job knowledge self-efficacy were not related to newcomer adjustment. However, assessment knowledge self-efficacy was positively significantly related to one aspect of newcomer adjustment (social acceptance). Veterans who felt more confident in their abilities to discuss how to behave, give feedback on the newcomer's performance, and provide advice about overcoming anxieties were related to newcomers feeling more socially accepted. While non-significant, the relationship between veteran socialization-related job demands and newcomer adjustment provides interesting insights into future research. It continues to beg the question of how veterans perceive the process and how those perceptions are understood by newcomers. This is discussed further in the future research section of the discussion.

The third research question examined if veteran resources are related to veteran perceptions of well-being and job attitudes during the socialization process. While not significantly related to newcomer adjustment, veteran socialization-related job demands were significantly positively related to veteran emotional exhaustion such that if the veteran feels like socializing a newcomer is an added socialization-related job demand, they are more likely to feel emotionally exhausted. Also, veterans with higher assessment knowledge self-efficacy reported significantly less emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and were more affectively committed to the organization. These results indicate that being confident in their ability to provide advice and feedback have important implications for veteran well-being and job attitudes during the socialization process.

Finally, it was proposed that veteran assimilation, or how integrated into the organization the veteran is, could be an antecedent to perceptions of veteran resources. Out of the five dimensions of assimilation examined, none were related to veteran socialization-related job demands or job knowledge self-efficacy, but three were related to assessment knowledge self-efficacy (familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement). Veterans who felt like they know their supervisors, felt recognized and valued, and tend to seek out ways to contribute to the organization (e.g., by socializing a newcomer) had higher assessment knowledge self-efficacy.

Regarding the research question about veteran assimilation, three of the assimilation dimensions (familiarity with supervisors, recognition, and involvement) were indirectly related to newcomer social acceptance and veteran emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment through assessment knowledge self-efficacy through assessment knowledge self-efficacy. Overall, because these data were collected at one time point, we cannot assume causal relationships. However, we can answer the research questions presented such that certain dimensions of assimilation were only related to one veteran resource (assessment knowledge self-efficacy) and assessment knowledge self-efficacy statistically mediated the relationship between these assimilation dimensions and newcomer and veteran outcomes.

In the text to follow, the results are discussed with regard to three areas: 1) theoretical implications for socialization resources theory; 2) practical implications for human resource managers and organizations; and 3) limitations and future research.

Theoretical contributions

Before directly discussing theoretical contributions, one noteworthy contribution to come out of this study is a potential new measure of knowledge self-efficacy specific to the socialization context. While not a focal part of the study, the term knowledge self-efficacy has mostly been studied in management information systems in relation to deciding to contribute knowledge to electronic knowledge repositories. This study took this idea of knowledge self-efficacy and transferred it to the socialization context. Understanding if one's confidence in their ability to discuss their role and answer questions is important since a lot of socialization research argues that socialization agents (supervisors and coworkers) are extremely important to newcomer adjustment (Reichers, 1987). Newcomers have even reported that interactions with peers, supervisors, and coworkers are more important adjustment mechanisms than formal practices (Louis et al., 1983; Nelson & Quick, 1991). While additional samples would need to be used to further validate the measure, the knowledge self-efficacy scale developed for this study was grounded in previous research, pilot tested, and had sound psychometric properties.

The current study also contributes to the literature in several other ways. First, this study begins to test and extend socialization resources theory (SRT) (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Specifically, the study aimed to replicate the importance of formal organizational assistance as related to newcomer adjustment. It then tested the proposition that social capital resources (socialization agents) are important for good newcomer adjustment. Finally, it extended SRT to include not only newcomers, but veteran perceptions of socializing newcomers and how it could affect their own well-being and job attitudes. Below, each of these areas are discussed in more detail.

Integrating socialization resources theory, social learning theory, and affective events theory

While socialization resources theory (SRT) was used as a guiding framework for the current study, it was necessary to integrate other theories (social learning theory and affective events theory) to better explain the relationships between veteran resources, newcomer adjustment, and veteran outcomes. SRT is a relatively new theory that proposed a typology of 17 different resources that are expected to reduce uncertainty and increase newcomer adjustment. Even though these 17 dimensions are a useful starting place to inform researchers and organizations about what newcomers may need, SRT lacks explanatory mechanisms and does not yet dive deep enough into *how* or *why* these resources are important for newcomers. To fill this gap, I used social learning theory to explain the relationships between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment and affective events theory to explain the relationships between veteran resources and veteran perceptions.

Socialization resources theory argues that social capital resources (veterans) are important for newcomers post-orientation, but does not explain why newcomers need veterans. I proposed that social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) could provide one explanatory mechanism for these relationships. The veteran-newcomer interactions could be a place where newcomers have a chance to observe and directly their new role while they interact with veterans. This observation and interaction could be related to newcomer adjustment because the newcomer could pick up on cues from the veteran about their job demands and how much the veteran knows about successfully navigating the organization. It is important to continue this line of research and understand how veteran resources are related to newcomer adjustment. Using social learning theory was a

first attempt at understanding these relationships, but it leaves open avenues for examining other veteran resources that could be observed by newcomers.

As previously stated, socialization resources theory leaves out the veteran's perceptions and does not consider veteran outcomes that may occur due to the socialization process. Even though it says social capital resources are important for newcomers, it lacks explanation for how veterans' resources could be depleted from helping the veteran. To fill this gap, I used affective events theory to explain that the veteran-newcomer interactions could elicit emotions in veterans that lead to certain perceptions. These interactions could be positive or negative for both newcomers and veterans. It is important to continue this line of research to better understand how these interactions are related to veteran outcomes. One way to do this is to look at specific interactions via longitudinal or diary study methods to better capture the fluctuation in perceptions after an interaction. Using affective events theory was a beginning step to start to link the socialization process to veteran perceptions and opens avenues for future research to explore how veteran perceptions can change with the socialization process.

Organizational socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment

The results generally support the theoretical notion that formal resources, in the form of socialization tactics, increases newcomer adjustment; a direct test of one dimension of SRT. Previous research has found that institutionalized socialization tactics are positively related to newcomer adjustment (Allen, 2006; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). More specifically, in the context of the three-factor model used in the present study (content, social, and context socialization tactics), when the *content* of the

socialization process is presented in a sequential (rather than random) order and occurs over a scheduled amount of time (rather than variably), newcomers know when they will learn things and are aware of specific experiences that will help them become insiders. Having a schedule and clear guidelines helps newcomers learn their new roles and feel more socially integrated. *Social* tactics provide newcomers with access to experienced role models and when giving feedback, ensures that much of the feedback is positive (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Having access to experienced organizational agents that provide positive feedback helps newcomers get questions answered quickly, efficiently, and in a constructive manner. Newcomers are more willing to ask questions about their new role and feel more socially accepted when they receive constructive and encouraging feedback.

Finally, while newcomers seem to learn their roles and feel like part of the group when organizations provide a clear framework and positive interactions, *context* tactics did not have a relationship with newcomer adjustment. That is, it did not seem to matter if newcomers were socialized as a group through common learning experiences and clearly defined activities. Perhaps this sample experienced a mixture of common and individual learning experiences that both equally contributed to newcomer adjustment. Another reason for the non-significant relationship could be because newcomers could establish personal, one-on-one relationships with supervisors or coworkers who catered the socialization process to the newcomer's needs. Overall, these results support the ideas proposed in socialization resources theory that formal orientation and assistance are important for positive newcomer adjustment. These resources help newcomers reduce uncertainty and transition successfully into their new roles (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Social capital resources and newcomer adjustment

The results also partially support the idea that social capital resources in the form of socialization agents (veterans) play an important role in the socialization process. To my knowledge this is the first empirical test of this dimension of SRT. Results suggest that socialization agents are particularly important when providing newcomers with informal information that would help the newcomer understand what skills they need, what is expected of them in terms of performance, and how to manage uncertainty and anxieties (assessment knowledge self-efficacy). However, more research is needed to better understand how exactly veterans are influencing the newcomer adjustment process.

Veteran socialization-related job demands

Veteran socialization-related job demands, a job characteristic that could deplete resources, was not related to newcomer adjustment (Hypothesis 2a-c). There could be two explanations for these non-significant relationships. First, on average it does not appear that many veterans perceived the socialization process as an added socialization-related job demand ($M = 2.50$; $SD = .70$ on a five-point Likert scale). To further this point, veterans responded to one item that asked if they felt "added stress" due to onboarding the newcomer; 72% of the veterans replied "no". If veterans do not perceive the socialization process as something that leads to an increased workload, it is not likely to affect their interactions with newcomers.

To further understand the veteran's perceptions of the socialization process, the 28% of veterans who did report feeling added stress were also prompted to explain what caused the added stress. Many responses included time restraints, lack of standardization

of the onboarding process, and a lack of direction from their supervisor. For example, one veteran reflected on the added stress and said, "I had no direction from my supervisor, onboarding was not included in my job description (nor built in to my schedule to allow proper time), and I was not formally onboarded by anyone (started as a 1 year temporary intern, self-taught the majority of my job)." While these responses were the minority in this sample, it does seem like for some, socializing the newcomer was perceived as an added socialization-related job demand and the qualitative responses provide some directions for future research.

The non-significance of this finding is interesting and prompts additional research questions regarding how veteran resources are related to the socialization process. Perhaps organizational socialization tactics and training designed by the organization are especially important because they take workload off veterans by providing newcomers with tools and some baseline knowledge about their new roles. A lot of socialization research has also focused on the proactivity of the newcomer (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007; Kramer, 1994). Perhaps newcomers' proactivity also buffers how much work the veteran does because the newcomers are likely to seek information from a wide variety of sources (e.g., veterans, supervisors, print materials, online training, etc.).

Another explanation for the non-significant findings between veteran socialization-related job demands and newcomer adjustment could be because veterans make newcomer adjustment a priority. Veterans could understand the importance of newcomer adjustment, want to help the newcomer so that they get up to speed quickly, and want to make the newcomer feel like the organization cares about their development and well-being. For example, a recent article in the *Financial Times,* reports that in the

first 90 days, newcomers make their decision to stay with the organization and 16-17% of those newcomers will leave (Rigby, 2017). That is, veterans could see the onboarding process as a necessary part of their role and as an activity that sets the tone for the newcomers' success (or failure) at the organization and work hard to ensure the newcomers' success despite their own work.

This could also explain why veteran socialization-related job demands were not related to newcomer adjustment, but were related to veteran well-being (i.e., emotional exhaustion) (Hypothesis 4a). If veterans understand the importance of the socialization process, they are likely to put on a good front for the newcomer, provide the newcomer with resources, and do what they can to help the newcomer be successful. By putting the newcomer first, the veteran could end up spending extra time on their own work and to reduce the harmful effects of "reality shock" the veteran may display certain positive emotions that are not always true (e.g., surface act). Both things could take an emotional and physical toll on the veteran. Because the veteran understands the value of onboarding or because their supervisor put them in charge of onboarding the newcomer, they may put the newcomer's needs first and then return to their own socialization-related job demands, leading to their own emotional exhaustion.

Veteran job knowledge self-efficacy

As another empirical test of the relationship between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment, veteran job knowledge self-efficacy was examined. There was no relationship between job knowledge self-efficacy and newcomer adjustment (Hypothesis 3a-c). One explanation for the non-significant relationship could be newcomer

proactivity. That is, because newcomers are active agents in the socialization process (Kramer, 1994), newcomers are likely to seek information until they get what they need. For example, if newcomers ask a veteran a question and are not comfortable with the information they receive, the newcomer can ask a different veteran the same question, go to their supervisor, or search for the answer on their own. This suggests that veterans could play a more important role in helping newcomers understand the informal processes of the organization rather than the formal role tasks and procedures because newcomers have other resources available to help them figure out their job tasks.

Veteran assessment knowledge self-efficacy

Only one pathway between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment was significant, partially supporting Hypothesis 3c: as veteran assessment knowledge self-efficacy increased, newcomers' perceptions of social acceptance also increased. Unlike job knowledge self-efficacy which focused on everyday job tasks and procedures, assessment knowledge self-efficacy was defined as the veteran's confidence to explain or give feedback about appropriateness of social behavior, performance, and managing job pressures and anxieties.

According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), newcomers are likely to adjust to their new roles based on watching and interacting with veterans. These interactions could have been particularly important to informally learn about how to behave in their new role, what their supervisor may expect in terms of performance, and to get advice about how to manage their role. When veterans are confident in providing

this information, the newcomer could feel more socially accepted because the newcomer could perceive the veteran sharing this information as a form of support and liking.

Assessment knowledge self-efficacy was not related to newcomer role clarity. One reason for this could be because assessment knowledge self-efficacy is more focused on informal information rather than the role itself. That is, assessment knowledge self-efficacy is not necessarily focused on how to formally get the job done, but focuses more on the ability of the veteran to provide the newcomer with informal information about how to behave and deal with other employees and anxieties that could come with their new roles.

Future research should explore what makes veterans an attractive resource for newcomers. That is, what do newcomers need most from veterans that they cannot get from formal training or supervisors? Future research should also consider how veteran-newcomer relationships will differ from person to person. To be a good resource, veterans may have to figure out what newcomers need most and cater their help to that specific area. Therefore, while the resources explored in this study did not always predict newcomer adjustment, it does not discount the importance of continuing to empirically test relationships between the social capital dimension of SRT and newcomer adjustment. Future research could provide us with a better understanding of when social capital is needed and insights into how socialization agents can best help newcomers.

Veteran outcomes during the socialization process

Finally, this study extends SRT by considering socialization agents' perceptions of the socialization process. Generally, one veteran resource, assessment knowledge self-

efficacy, played an important role in veteran outcomes during socialization. The lack of general support for the other veteran resources (socialization-related job demands and job knowledge self-efficacy) continues to raise the question of how veterans perceive the socialization process.

Assessment knowledge self-efficacy was related to veteran well-being and job attitudes including emotional exhaustion, intent to quit, and affective commitment. Being confident when explaining more informal aspects of the role decreased emotional exhaustion and intent to quit and increased affective commitment. Perhaps these types of conversations were strong enough to elicit certain veteran emotions related to well-being and job attitudes. Questions that would challenge veteran's assessment knowledge self-efficacy are more likely to allow the veteran to exercise power and control and discuss goal achievement and how to deal with anxieties (Rogelberg et al., 2012), which are more affect-generating types of conversations compared to discussions about organizational tasks and procedures. The veteran's ability to answer these types of questions could remind veterans of how far they have come since starting their own job and reinforce for the veteran that their current role and organization is (or is not) a good fit.

A similar explanation could be used to explain the non-significant relationship between job knowledge self-efficacy and veteran well-being and attitudes (Hypothesis 5a-c). Most veterans felt confident in their ability to help the newcomer with role related questions ($M = 4.36$; $SD = .61$ on a five-point Likert-type scale). It makes sense that most veterans had high job knowledge self-efficacy since they were required to be in their role for at least 12 months. Because they are used to their jobs, veterans might not even think twice about answering questions about their role. That is, veterans might be so confident

in their ability to explain their role, as evidenced by the high mean on the knowledge self-efficacy scale, that answering these questions does not arouse emotions enough (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) to differentially effect their feelings of well-being or job attitudes.

As described previously, veteran socialization-related job demands were related to veteran emotional exhaustion. This finding fits with the arguments in the current study, which was that veterans could view the socialization process as an added socialization-related job demand and that veteran's resources could be depleted during socialization leading to lower veteran well-being. Emotional exhaustion is defined as feeling overextended and depleted of emotional and physical resources due to contact with others (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). While veterans are catering to the newcomer, their own socialization-related job demands could be adding up leading to more hours worked after helping the newcomer. Another reason why veterans could feel emotionally and physically depleted is because they want to present the organization and the role in a positive light. Despite extra work or personal frustrations, veterans could find themselves faking or over-exaggerating some positive emotions when with the newcomer, leaving veterans emotionally exhausted.

Overall, this study took more of a stress perspective by examining resources and demands, but future research should explore other explanations. For example, the similarity (or dissimilarity) of individual-level factors could play an important role in the perception of the process. That is, the fit between the veteran and newcomer could play an important role in the veteran's perceptions of the process. Certain newcomer characteristics might not mesh well with veteran characteristics leading to more emotional exhaustion (e.g., a very extraverted newcomer and an introverted veteran).

Additionally, as anecdotal evidence from some of the veteran comments in this study, future research should explore the supervisor and organization's role in helping veterans through the socialization process. That is, depending on how the supervisor discusses the socialization process, the supervisor or organization's perceived support, or the culture of the organization, veterans may have very different experiences socializing newcomers.

Practical contributions

In addition to theoretical implications, this study also offers useful information for practitioners and human resource management professionals. The results suggest that formal organizational tactics continue to play an important role in the newcomer adjustment process. However, in a recent survey sponsored by Onboardia, an onboarding solutions provider, 91% of managers, 81% of human resource professionals, and 75% of employers admit that their organization does not handle onboarding well (Schappel, 2016). Future research should dig deeper into what types of training, onboarding information, and resources are most helpful to newcomers. Using socialization resources theory as a guide, researchers and practitioners should be able to examine multiple types of resources to better understand which are most important to newcomers and when these resources seem to be most helpful.

Saks and Gruman (2012) argue that one particularly valuable aspect of SRT is that by having multiple dimensions (17 of them), human resource managers and organizations can tailor their socialization programs to the needs of their newcomers in various roles across the organization. I believe that some dimensions of SRT will be important universally across roles and organizations, while others might be more role

specific. For example, a formal orientation that describes the landscape of the organization, introduces basic policies and practices, and explains the structure and culture of the organization might be a universal resource during the socialization process. However, the socialization process is not one-size-fits all and some resources may be more effective for certain roles. For example, even within an organization like a technology company, sales associates and engineers are likely to need different resources to reduce uncertainty and adjust to their new roles. Sales associates could benefit from supervisor and coworker support when dealing with customers while engineers could benefit from additional technical information, feedback, and training. Both research and practitioners could benefit from understanding which resources are most important and why and use this information to build an onboarding program that best addresses newcomer needs.

Based on the Onboardia survey results, the company also suggests giving new employees a mentor or buddy during the process because 56% of employees said they would embrace and use such a person (Schappel, 2016). While this supports the SRT proposition that socialization agents are an important resource during socialization, no information is offered about how to structure the mentor or buddy relationship, what the mentor should discuss with the newcomer, or how the veteran may perceive being selected as a mentor. Future research needs to examine how veterans can best help newcomers without being negatively related to veteran's perceptions of the process.

The results from the current study could provide some pieces of information about what personal characteristics veterans need to be able to communicate effectively with newcomers, while also positively influencing their own well-being and job attitudes.

Assessment knowledge self-efficacy seems to be an important veteran characteristic for both newcomer adjustment and veteran outcomes. Veterans need to be confident when discussing performance, managing the job, and reducing anxieties with newcomers. Some things organizations could do to ensure that veterans are ready for these conversations is to make sure the performance management process is clear (e.g., is onboarding part of their performance ratings?). Also, supervisors should spend time with their veterans before they help a newcomer to help the veteran prep for the experience.

Finally, approximately one quarter of the sample did report feeling added stress from the onboarding process and some of the main reasons for this seems to anecdotally be a lack of supervisor support, a lack of standardization, and a lack of time. These three areas seem to be good places to start to better understand what resources socialization agents could need to be successful and reduce the stress of onboarding. Similarly, organizations could benefit from talking with veterans to better understand their insecurities around talking with newcomers and what they could do to reduce those insecurities. Based on the results of the study, the socialization process does not just influence newcomer adjustment, but it is also related to veteran outcomes, to some extent, and points out the importance of not ignoring this group during the socialization process.

Limitations and future research

Measurement and analyses

As with any study, there are several limitations. The small sample size presents potential issues with stable structural equation modeling parameter estimates and fit. To have stable parameter estimates and enough power to accurately test structural equation

models a sample size of about 150 or more is typically necessary and 200 is a goal for most SEM research (Kenny, 2015). Mitchell (1993) recommended that the sample size should be at least 50 more than eight times the number of variables in the model and Stevens (1996) suggests having at least 15 cases per measured variable. Using these suggestions, a better sample size for structural equation modeling would have been between 170 and 240 participants and above. Item parceling was used, in part, to create a more optimal variable to sample size ratio and to help overcome the number of individual item indicators compared to the sample size needed to have stable parameter estimates (Bandalos, 2002).

While sample size may be considered a weakness, the sample collected in the current study opens new doors for socialization research. Most socialization research only focuses on one organizational actor (usually the newcomer) due to the difficulty to obtaining matched pair data. Collecting data from multiple parties more accurately portrays the dyadic nature of socialization. By definition, socialization is a two-way interactive process (Reichers, 1987) and the contributions that can be made to the socialization literature by collecting matched-pair data are vast.

Sample size also plays a role in estimating goodness-of-fit measures. The final structural equation models had lower goodness-of-fit indices than the "urban legend" cutoffs of .90 for TLI and CFIs and .05 for RMSEAs (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006). While these cutoffs are ideal, the seminal article by Bentler and Bonnet (1980) does not argue that the .90 cutoff means acceptable model fit. Instead, Bentler and Bonnet (1980) argued that even models with overall fit indices less than .90 can usually be substantially improved (e.g., with larger samples, better measures, etc.). We also know that models

with more variables tend to have relatively poor fit compared to models with less variables (Kenny, 2015). Many individual scales fit the data better when broken down into multiple factors (rather than a single factor), leading to a 16-factor model rather than a 10-factor model, which could be one reason for less adequate model fit.

For future analyses and as a potential way to improve model fit, using as much of the sample size as possible is recommended. For example, Allen and Shanock (2012) used an SEM strategy that allowed the researchers to incorporate all data from all participants, even if their "pair" or a timepoint is missing. Although not used that often due to complexity when structuring the data, this technique allows for various survey responses to be treated as "groups" based on which parts of the surveys the participants completed (Hayduk, 1996). While this would not help stabilize the parameter estimates for the hypotheses that examine veteran resources as related to newcomer adjustment (the total sample size would remain at 115), using the full sample size available for hypotheses that involve just veterans ($N = 330$) or just newcomers ($N = 250$) could increase power, stabilize parameter estimates, and provide a more robust test of these relationships.

Another limitation of the study is the low internal consistency alpha reliability of multiple scales that have been previously validated and used in published literature. The socialization tactics scale (Jones, 1986), newcomer self-efficacy scale (Jones, 1986), and two of the assimilation dimensions (Gaillard et al., 2010) had low internal consistencies. Even though the data were checked for missing data, multivariate outliers, extreme scores, and insufficient effort responding, the psychometric properties of some scales were poor. This could be a function of the number of items of each scale, the similarity

between the items (e.g., item intercorrelations), the sample's interpretation of the items, or a function of the survey design.

While the .70 cutoff has been deemed an "urban legend" (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006), it is still a widely accepted cutoff and therefore is addressed. While the scales mentioned above do not meet the established threshold, we also know that using less reliable measures also only lowers the expected observed correlation and the power to detect it, assuming a constant sample size (Lance et al., 2006). Therefore, while the reliabilities of some scales were low in comparison to other study scales, it does not mean that these scales cannot be used. For example, one of the socialization tactics scales (social) had significant relationships with newcomer adjustment variables despite the low internal consistency ($\alpha = .61$). Unlike the self-efficacy scale which was removed from analyses due to low reliability and a poor factor structure, the socialization scales were maintained, despite low reliability, because the fit of the 12-item three-factor model met mediocre goodness-of-fit standards (Kenny, 2015). Finally, while correcting for reliability was an option, Lance and colleagues (2006) argue that correction for reliability does not solve the overarching problem of poor measurement. Therefore, instead of correcting for reliability, areas for future research are suggested.

Overall, these results do highlight important areas for future socialization research. The Jones (1986) organizational socialization tactics scale has been one of the most popular scales to date in the socialization literature. Despite multiple studies using the scale, it has consistently been used with different factor structures (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Mignerey et al.,1995) without knowing if these different factor structures affect findings (Bauer et al., 2007). While not discussed

in published research, one reason that these studies may use different factor structures is because they use the structure with the best reliabilities and factor structure. For example, Lapointe and colleagues (2014) reported alpha internal consistencies for each of the six socialization dimensions and two were below the .70 cutoff (collective vs individual = .65; formal vs informal = .65). Instead of using each of the scales separately in future analyses, they considered institutionalized socialization as a common factor that accounts for variance in the first order dimensions, but failed to report the fit of this higher-order factor structure and did not discuss theoretically why the higher-order factor structure was appropriate. Future research should consider updating the scale, re-evaluating the dimensions, and potentially even shortening the current 30-item scale. The same could be said about the self-efficacy scale (Jones, 1986) and the assimilation scale (Gaillard et al., 2010), although there has been more support for the psychometric properties of these scales in the literature.

Finally, the use of item parceling was expected to increase reliability among scales (Bandalos, 2002). While parceling should mitigate some of the problems, future research should consider using other internal consistency measures. Cronbach's Alpha has become the standard internal consistency statistic to report in organizational research, but it may not always be the most accurate internal consistency statistic depending on the subsequent analyses used. Recent research suggests that other internal reliability statistics may be less conservative and more appropriate for partial least squares (PLS) models (e.g., structural equation modeling and multi-level modeling) (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). Hair and colleagues recommend using a composite reliability rather than

the Cronbach's alpha reliability because it does not assume all indicators are equally reliable (and do not have equal loadings on a construct).

Sample and research design

The method of recruitment and data collection could be considered a weakness of the study. Even though using recently graduated alumni was supposed to be a benefit because we expected these potential participants to still have an affinity for their alma mater, it does not appear that this increased participation. Additionally, not knowing if the person receiving the initial recruitment email was going to be a newcomer or veteran could have been detrimental to the number of completed pairs. For example, if a newcomer completed the survey first, the newcomer might not have felt comfortable asking a veteran to do something for them just yet due to the veteran's higher status and power in the organization. In the future, identifying veterans first could be a better avenue for collecting as many completed pairs as possible. Finally, those who responded to the survey self-selected into participating and self-nominated either the newcomer or the veteran. There could have been individuals who received the recruitment email and chose specific individuals (either the newcomer they helped or the veteran that helped them) that they had a good experience with versus another individual who they may have had tension. That is, the first person who responded to the survey had the option of choosing someone in their network and the person they chose could have different perceptions than someone the first person did not choose.

When thinking about the sample itself, the inclusion criteria also could have been stricter. The criteria required the newcomer to be with the organization for less than 12

months and to have interacted with someone other than their supervisor. The veteran criteria required them to be with the organization for more than 12 months and to have helped onboard a newcomer in the past year. While this ensured that the participant could be defined as a newcomer or a veteran, additional information about the organization's socialization process could have been helpful. For example, it is likely that newcomers interacted with a few veterans during socialization. Newcomers could have chosen the veteran that helped them the most, they liked the most, or they got along with best; potentially influencing results. Future research should consider tapping into the newcomer's social network to better understand the availability of one or multiple veterans.

More specifically, recent research on socialization argues that newcomers are not interacting with just one veteran (e.g., Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011; Fang, Mcallister, & Duffy, 2016). The role of a single veteran may not be as important as the overall social network of the newcomer when thinking about newcomer adjustment. For example, in this study, if newcomers realized that the veteran had a lot going on, they could have been proactive and sought out another veteran to ask for help. Future research should explore how newcomer's social networks are formed, the speed with which these networks are formed, and how the relative size of the networks could potentially be related to newcomer adjustment.

Another potential problem with the inclusion criteria is that participants worked in a wide variety of organizations, industries, and likely in very different organizational cultures and structures. There was also no standard operationalization of what "helping onboard a newcomer" meant; that was left up to the interpretation of the potential

participant. What one veteran thought was "helping during onboarding" could look very different than the next participant. While this potentially makes the results more generalizable, it also leaves a lot of room for potential moderators and future research questions.

Future research could benefit from studying one (or a few) organization's socialization processes and getting a better understanding of what it means to help onboard a newcomer in that organization. For example, some organizations (e.g., Google) have very formal mentoring programs set up where every time a newcomer enters an organization, they are assigned a mentor. The mentor also buys into the importance of being a good mentor because this one-on-one mentoring is tied to their performance reviews and potential promotions to people managers in the future. Other organizations are obviously a lot less formal, do not necessarily pair newcomers with mentors, and could simply tell veterans to be open to questions from newcomers as they arise. These structural and cultural differences could play an important role in understanding veterans' perceptions of the process. Research could benefit from better understanding if veterans prefer these more structured mentoring assignments or if they find it easier to help newcomers in less structured environments.

When considering the design, this study used a quantitative survey at one time point to capture a snapshot of veteran and newcomer perceptions. While online surveys are a good tool to collect a lot of data relatively quickly, this study design also has limitations. Because this research is in the "nascent theoretical" stage (Edmondson & McManus, 2007) and empirical research in this space is lacking, it could be important to take a step back from quantitative research and take a deeper look at richer qualitative

data. In 2012, Feldman (2012) outlined a vast array of unanswered questions regarding the influence of socializing newcomers on veterans. Since then, only 10 studies have used Feldman's ideas as a springboard for future empirical research. Because little is known about veterans' perceptions, "rich, detailed, inductive, and evocative data" (Edmonson & McMacnus, 2007) could be helpful to ensure that future research is identifying and investigating key variables and relationships. Therefore, future research could benefit from qualitative data including interviews with veterans and newcomers, observations, and open-ended questions.

Future research could also consider how interactions between newcomers and veterans create perceptions of the person or the organization as a whole (not just attitudes the process). Could veterans withhold information on purpose and therefore be a poor resource for newcomers (e.g., coworker undermining)? Could newcomer actions in the very first few days form positive or negative veteran perceptions that yields more or less support from veterans in the future? Could conversations with newcomers make veterans reconsider their own career success, support received from the organization, or psychological contracts? As you can see, there are many avenues for future research just within this single social capital resource dimension of SRT. By using qualitative research, researchers can begin to create a roadmap of interesting research questions that could continue for an entire research career.

Building off the idea that this area of research is still in nascent stages (Edmondson & McManus, 2007), there are still many theoretically relevant relationships to be explored. We know that socialization is defined as a two-way interactive process. As a first step, this study explored direct effect relationships between veteran perceptions

and either newcomer or veteran outcomes. Future research should remember that newcomers are active agents during socialization who are interacting with the veteran of interest, other veterans, other newcomers, and their supervisors.

Things the newcomer does (or does not do), the newcomer's personality, and the newcomers perceptions could be related to both veteran and newcomer outcomes. For example, the proactivity of the newcomer could moderate veteran's perception of the process and veteran outcomes. That is, if the newcomer tries to find answers to organizational problems on their own, seeks out multiple sources of information, and understands that the veteran still has their own job to do, the veteran could have a very different perception of the process compared to a veteran dealing with a "needy" newcomer.

Future research should consider whether the veteran perceives helping during socialization as an in-role or extra-role behavior. If the veteran considers socialization as an in-role behavior, they may be less likely to perceive the process as an added job demand or as challenging knowledge self-efficacy. It would also be interesting to consider if the veteran perceives some forms of helping as in-role behaviors and others as extra-role behaviors. For example, helping the newcomer learn a computer system could be perceived as an in-role behavior, but taking the newcomer to lunch or dinner with a few other coworkers could be perceived as an extra-role behavior. It would be interesting to understand if the more informal, extra-role behaviors contribute more or less to newcomer adjustment compared to the more formal, prescribed in-role behaviors. Other potential moderators of the relationship between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment could include gender similarity, veteran/threat benefits, and the quality of

organizational resources available to either newcomers or veterans. Potential moderators of the relationship between veteran resources and veteran outcomes could include perceived organizational support, supervisor support, emotional labor, and veteran threat/benefit perceptions.

Finally, because socialization is defined as an organizational process, as theory and empirical research build, it will also be important to incorporate more complex designs including longitudinal investigations and diary study methods to capture the day-to-day fluctuations in relationships and perceptions. Time could also play a very important role in the veteran's perceptions of the process. If it takes a "long time" to socialize one newcomer, the veteran might not look forward to socializing other newcomers in the future. However, if the newcomer catches onto things quickly, the veteran could have positive perceptions of the socialization process.

Conclusion

The current study addressed gaps in the socialization literature. Using socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012) as a framework, it explored the relationship between veteran resources and newcomer adjustment and extended SRT to include an understanding of veteran's feelings of well-being and job attitudes as related to the socialization process. The results suggest that veteran's knowledge self-efficacy is related to both newcomer adjustment and veteran's well-being and job attitudes during the socialization process. Even though many of the results were non-significant, an interesting finding was that many veterans do not perceive socializing a newcomer as an added socialization-related job demand. The lack of a relationship between veteran

socialization-related job demands, newcomer adjustment, and some veteran attitudes suggests that future research should continue to examine veteran's understanding of the socialization process. Not only do these findings contribute to our understanding of socialization resources theory, but the findings also provide useful information for practitioners and organizations as they design and implement socialization practices and develop better ways to foster quick and efficient newcomer adjustment.

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APPENDIX A: HISTORY OF SOCIALIZATION

History of socialization

Despite the importance of successful socialization to both the individual and the organization, research on socialization has been spotty and relatively neglected. Socialization research erupted in the mid-1990s, but after this heightened interest, research has floundered. One of the reasons for this floundering is that there is a lot of disagreement about how to define successful socialization, knowing when a newcomer has been "socialized" (an insider), and how to measure socialization over time. Because of these disagreements, a solid and consistent theoretical framework surrounding organizational socialization is lacking (Cooper & Anderson, 2006).

There is also a common tendency to focus on the newcomer's experience, perceptions, and attitudes (e.g., newcomer's adjustment, job satisfaction, intention to quit) (Bauer et al., 2007). While it is important to understand the newcomer perspective, this tendency neglects the perspectives of other organizational agents (e.g., coworkers' and supervisors'). Because socialization is a process that unfolds over time and involves multiple agents of the organization, it is important to integrate multiple perspectives to gain a better understanding of *why* some newcomers are more adjusted than others and *how* organizations can improve the socialization process by maximizing the effectiveness of their organizational agents without making it too onerous on the agents. Below, I briefly outline some of the history of organizational socialization research that spans both organizational and newcomer perspectives.

History of socialization: Stage models

Socialization has been studied in various disciplines for many years. For example, researchers in psychology and sociology have examined family, school, and youth organization socialization, how socialization changes over the life course (i.e., as one matures), the phenomenology of occupations (e.g., nurses, executives, teachers), and socialization in total institutions (e.g., military, correctional institutions, psychiatric hospitals) (Ashforth et al., 2007). This early research laid the groundwork for researchers in psychology, communication, and management to focus on organizational socialization. In the 1960's, researchers attempted to separate the socialization process into a generalizable set of four stages: anticipation, encounter, adjustment, and stabilization.

Anticipation occurs before entry and as the newcomer prepares to enter the organization. The newcomer learns about the organization from various agents and they begin to set expectations about what it will be like once inside the organization. During the *encounter* stage, newcomers enter the organization, are exposed to the reality of the organization, and deal with the discrepancy between expectations and reality (i.e., reality shock). Once the newcomer starts the role, they begin learning and *adjustment*, which involves becoming integrated into various networks and teams, learning job tasks, and gaining the confidence they need to get the job done. Finally, *stabilization* occurs and newcomers start to feel like insiders, no longer needing to seek information from insiders, and becoming fully integrated into networks and groups.

These stage models were often criticized because they are prescriptive in nature (i.e., you cannot move to the next stage until you completed the previous stage) and because they are not "true" process models that explain *how* changes occur. These

models were not well supported empirically and more comprehensive explanations of the process seemed to evolve a few years after these stage models including a framework for socialization tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), newcomer information-seeking, and the new veteran perspective.

History of socialization: Socialization tactics

While there are many formal and informal socialization strategies, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed that there are six bipolar tactics, existing on a continuum, that organizations can use to structure the socialization process. These tactics are described in more detail below. In 1986, Jones argued that the tactics form a gestalt where one side of the continuum represents institutionalized tactics and the other side of the continuum represents individualized tactics. Institutionalized tactics typically encourage newcomers to passively accept their roles, while individualized tactics encourage newcomers to develop their own approach to their roles (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Previous research has mainly focused on the relationship between socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment or the process of a newcomer working through task and social transitions in order to understand role demands, gain confidence in the role, and feel liked and accepted by peers (Bauer et al., 2007). Typically, institutionalized tactics have been linked to better newcomer adjustment because these tactics guide newcomers into the socialization process and shows the newcomer step-by-step how to become a functioning organizational member. On the opposite end of the continuum, individualized tactics tend to leave the newcomer to navigate the socialization process on their own,

without much guidance or structure, which has been linked to less newcomer adjustment (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Examining socialization tactics has been an important step because it has specified a set of propositions about the structure of socialization and has been related to many important socialization outcomes (e.g., role clarity, task mastery, role orientation, social acceptance). While the focus on socialization tactics has produced rich empirical findings and has provided socialization researchers with a comprehensive framework for understanding socialization practices, research on socialization tactics has been criticized for three main reasons: 1) the tactics do not consider the content; 2) the tactics do not take the process into consideration; and 3) this approach only considers one aspect of the socialization process – what the organization provides for the newcomer. Even though socialization tactics provide descriptions of how an individual may be socialized (i.e., going through common learning experiences with other newcomers or going through a learning process on their own), the tactics do not consider the actual information that is provided to newcomers (Ashforth et al., 2007). Similarly, studying organizational tactics alone is not enough because newcomers are not passive organizational agents.

History of socialization: Newcomer proactivity

As socialization research has evolved, researchers have argued that it is important to think about the socialization process as an interactive relationship. Rather than a one-way process, where organizations can use different strategies to socialize newcomers, socialization researchers now recognize that newcomers are not silent partners – they can also strategize, choose who to seek information from, and shape their roles to best fit their needs (Bullis, 1993). Socialization is a continuous process that involves forces from

the organization that help integrate the individual and direct them about how to do their job and forces from the individual that help the individual make the job their own (i.e., individualization or personalization). That is, during socialization, the newcomer learns what the organization is about, what the organization values, and what their role is within the organization. At the same time, while the newcomer is learning their role, they also have a chance, to varying degrees, to make the job fit their needs, schedule their time, and figure out how they can best complete their tasks (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bullis 1993).

Starting a new role, in a new organization or within the same organization, is likely to cause some level of ambiguity for the newcomer, which is likely to foster feelings of uncertainty (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In other words, when a newcomer starts a new role, there are likely to be multiple interpretations (i.e., ambiguity) (Weick, 1995) about how to best perform in the role, who to get information from, and how to handle problems as they arise (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). All of these ambiguities are likely to lead to feelings of doubt, confusion, unpredictability, and apprehension (i.e., uncertainty) and are typically undesirable (Morrison, 1993). Thinking about the newcomer as an active agent in the socialization process, uncertainty reduction theory argues that the newcomer will seek to reduce uncertainty (Kramer, 1994) through a variety of proactive behaviors. Newcomer proactivity is defined as the various ways by which newcomers actively seek information about their new role, the current work environment, and their performance from veterans in the organization (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Like organizational socialization tactics, socialization researchers have examined various newcomer proactivity tactics that can be used to reduce uncertainty and contribute to newcomer adjustment. Even though there are several different newcomer

proactivity typologies (see Ashforth et al., 2007 for a review), the premise of these typologies is that newcomers can choose to observe or overtly interact with agents in the organization to gain information about the organization, solicit feedback, understand relationships, network, and socialize with others. Overall, newcomer proactivity has been related to higher newcomer adjustment (e.g., Miller & Jablin, 1991), more innovative roles (Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995), and role clarity, job satisfaction, and intent to quit (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

History of socialization: The veteran perspective and socialization resources theory

Socialization research has mainly focused on how the organization attempts to shape the newcomer and, more recently, how the newcomer attempts to reduce uncertainty through proactivity. While these perspectives are valuable, socialization research has largely ignored the role of the veteran in the socialization process. Also, recent socialization researchers have argued that an underexplored topic includes time and role demands for socialization agents (Feldman, 2012). Socialization is inherently a two-way interactive process (Reichers, 1987) and to develop a richer understanding of the socialization process, I argue that researchers must consider the veteran's perspective. I believe the veteran is an important piece of the socialization process because it is how the organizational socialization tactics come to life and who the newcomer will turn to in order to seek important information (Louis et al., 1983). From a practical standpoint, I argue that the socialization process presumably affects the veteran's job and job attitudes because they should take time to socialize a newcomer.

Most recently, socialization resources theory (Saks & Gruman, 2012) was introduced as a way to organize potential newcomer resources into a 17-dimension typology. Each dimension is also proposed to be most useful at a certain point in time during the socialization process. Prior to entry, anticipatory socialization is expected to help meet newcomer needs. Immediately after entry, Saks and Gruman argue that newcomers should have access to a formal orientation, proactive encouragement, and formal assistance (i.e., a mentor or buddy). Following orientation, it is proposed that newcomers will need both social capital and work-related resources. Social capital resources include social events, socialization agents, supervisor support, and relationship development. Work-related resources include job resources, personal planning, training, assignments, information and feedback, and recognition and appreciation. Finally, once the formal socialization period is over, Saks and Gruman suggest that there needs to be follow-up and program evaluation from the newcomers' perspective.

To come up with the most common resources that most benefit newcomers, Saks and Gruman used information from both the academic and practitioner literatures. Drawing from the Job Demands-Resources Model, the basic principle is that newcomers have a lot of job demands when they first start a job, leading to energy and resource depletion. However, these potential resources can be used to motivate newcomers, facilitate learning and development, and help newcomers reach their work goals.

There are two unique and useful aspects of socialization resources theory. First, Saks and Gruman argue that the theory is diagnostic and actionable. Their hope is that by using the 17 dimensions, organizations can assess their current socialization programs and then use the dimensions as a way to develop and improve their current programs.

Second, because there are 17 dimensions, organizations can tailor their socialization programs to best fit the specific needs of newcomers in different roles. That is, the socialization process is not one size fits all; the resources that an engineer in a company could need may not be the same as the resources a sales representative in the same company could need.

While the dimensions are proposed based on previous research, socialization resource theory can be extended by examining some of the resources from a different perspective. Socialization resources theory proposes that one social capital resource is socialization agents. These agents (i.e., veterans) can be an important source of support and information for newcomers. However, it is unclear who makes the best socialization agents and why. The current study is a start in understanding what makes a socialization agent a valuable resource for newcomers. By examining two veteran resources (socialization-related job demands and knowledge self-efficacy), research can begin to understand if certain veteran characteristics play key roles in newcomer adjustment. Similarly, by examining veteran perceptions, research can begin to understand how being a newcomer resource may be related to veteran well-being and job attitudes.

APPENDIX B: NEWCOMER SURVEY ITEMS

Below is a list of the newcomer survey items used in the current study. The items also have variable codes used for data analyses.

Beginning Survey Codes

1. NStartDate – date starting the survey
2. NEndDate – date ending the survey
3. NResponseType (can delete this) – put in by Qualtrics; all 0 - delete
4. NIPAddress – Not needed
5. NProgress – How much of survey is completed (percent)
6. NTimeSeconds – Time in seconds spent on the survey
7. NRecordedDate – Date data was recorded in Qualtrics
8. NResponseID – not needed
9. NRecipientLastName – From Qualtrics Panel; Last name
10. NRecipientFirstName – From Qualtrics Panel; First name
11. NRecipientEmail – From Qualtrics Panel; Email
12. NewID – Randomized assigned ID from full list of 30,000 email addresses
13. NFinished
    a. 1 = yes
    b. 0 = no
14. NBlanks – number of blanks in the survey. One full row has both the newcomer and veteran survey. This helps you understand how many items each participant completed.
    a. Total number of survey items: 345
    b. Total number of veteran items: 182
    c. Total number of newcomer items: 163
    d. *Note:* Any survey responses with more than 200 blanks were removed from the dataset (N = 1,757)

Qualifying questions for the study

1. Qual1 - What is your current organizational status?
    a. 1 = I have been with my organization for over 12 months.
    b. 2 = I have been with my organization for less than 12 months.

2. NewQual1 - In the past 12 months in your new role, besides your supervisor, have you interacted with at least one person that has helped transition or onboard you?
    a. 1 = No (go to the end of the survey)
    b. 2 = Yes

3. NewQual2 - In the past 12 months, have you received training (formal or informal), mentorship, or help from this specific coworker?
    a. 1 = No, I did not receive training, mentorship, or help from this coworker (go to the end of survey)

   b. 2 = Yes, I received formal training, mentorship, or help (mandated by the organization)
   c. 3 = Yes, I received informal training, mentorship, or help (my coworker decided to help me)

4. Please enter YOUR name and WORK email address below. Again, please enter your ORGANIZATION email address (not a personal email address) in all lowercase letters**.**

   This information will be used for linking purposes only. That is, your name and WORK email address will be used to link your responses to the newcomer's responses that you helped train. Once your responses are linked, this identifying information will be removed from the database and replaced with a unique ID number.
   a. NewFirstName:
   b. NewLastName:
   c. NewEmail:

5. Please provide the name and WORK email address of the NEWCOMER you helped onboard. Again, please enter the newcomer's ORGANIZATION email address (not a personal email address) in all lowercase letters.

   a. When you answer questions about a "newcomer", you should think about THE PERSON WHOSE NAME YOU ARE ENTERING BELOW.
   b. VetFirstName:
   c. VetLastName:
   d. VetEmail:

6. NewConsent
   a. 1 = I do not agree to participate
   b. 2 = I agree to participate

Demographic questions

1. NSex - What is your sex?
   a. 1 = Male
   b. 2 = Female
   c. 3 = Other (fill in)

2. NAge - What is your age in years? (fill in)

3. NRace - What is your race?
   a. 1 = Caucasian
   b. 2 = African American
   c. 3 = Hispanic
   d. 4 = Asian
   e. 5 = Other/mixed

4. NEdu - What is your highest level of education?
    a. 1 = Some high school
    b. 2 = High school graduate
    c. 3 = Completed some college
    d. 4 = Associate degree
    e. 5 = Bachelor's degree
    f. 6 = Master's degree
    g. 7 = PhD, law, or medical degree

Information about the job

1. NTenureMonths - How long have you been in your current role (please round to the nearest whole number IN MONTHS)? (fill in)

2. NHrsWorked - How many hours per week do you TYPICALLY (on average) work? (fill in)

3. NOrgType - What best describes the type of organization you work for? (drop down list)
    a. 1 = For profit
    b. 2 = Non-profit (religious, arts, social assistance, etc.)
    c. 3 = Government
    d. 4 = Health care
    e. 5 = Education
    f. 6 = Other

4. NIndustry - What industry do you currently work in? (drop down list)
    a. 1 = Accommodation and food services
    b. 2 = Administrative and support services
    c. 3 = Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting
    d. 4 = Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
    e. 5 = Construction
    f. 6 = Educational services
    g. 7 = Finance and insurance
    h. 8 = Government
    i. 9 = Health care and social assistance
    j. 10 = Management of companies and enterprises
    k. 11 = Manufacturing
    l. 12 = Mining, quarrying, and oil and gas extraction
    m. 13 = Professional, scientific, and technical services
    n. 14 = Real estate, rental, and leasing
    o. 15 = Self-employed
    p. 16 = Transportation and warehousing

5. NOrgSize - How many employees are at your current organization? (drop down list)

   a. 1 = 1 – 49
   b. 2 = 50 – 99
   c. 3 = 100 – 499
   d. 4 = 500 - 999
   e. 5 = 1,000 – 4,999
   f. 6 = 5,000 or more
   g. 7 = Other

6. NTitleMC - Which of the following most closely matches your job title? (drop down list)
   a. 1 = Intern
   b. 2 = Entry level
   c. 3 = Analyst/associate
   d. 4 = Manager
   e. 5 = Senior manager
   f. 6 = Director
   g. 7 = Vice president
   h. 8 = Senior vice president
   i. 9 = C level executive (CIO, CTO, COO, CMO, etc)
   j. 10 = President or CEO
   k. 11 = Owner

7. NSchoolTrans – Are you transitioning to this job directly from school?
   a. 1 = I am just out of school (graduated in the past year) and this is my first job
   b. 2 = This is my first job, but I have been out of school for more than a year
   c. 3 = I am just out of school, but worked while I was in school
   d. 4 = I have been out of school for more than a year and I have had other jobs before

8. NMgr - Are you currently in a managerial role?
   a. 1 = Yes, I manage other employees
   b. 2 = No, I am an individual contributor

9. NChange – Were you hired during a period of organizational growth or change?
   a. 1 = Yes
   b. 2 = No

Control variable: Coworker liking scale

- 4 items
- Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(5), 487-499.
- Anchors:

- First item anchors: 1 (I don't like this newcomer at all) to 5 (I like this newcomer very much)
- Next 3 item anchors: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)
- In the published article, they average the 4 items together, despite being measured on different scales. I could also consider analyzing the two anchors separately.

1. NLiking1 - How much do you like the veteran?
2. NLiking2 - I get along well with the veteran.
3. NLiking3 - Getting to know this veteran has been a pleasure.
4. NLiking4 - I think this vetrean would make a good friend.

Other control variables

1. NVComfort 1 – I felt comfortable interacting with the veteran during the onboarding process.
    a. 1 = Not at all comfortable
    b. 2 = Somewhat uncomfortable
    c. 3 = Neither uncomfortable nor comfortable
    d. 4 = Somewhat comfortable
    e. 5 = Extremely comfortable

2. NVComfort 2 – I felt comfortable approaching the veteran with a question during the onboarding process.
    a. 1 = Not at all comfortable
    b. 2 = Somewhat uncomfortable
    c. 3 = Neither uncomfortable nor comfortable
    d. 4 = Somewhat comfortable
    e. 5 = Extremely comfortable
3. NVComfort3 – I felt comfortable with the amount of information the veteran gave me during the onboarding process.
    a. 1 = Not at all comfortable
    b. 2 = Somewhat uncomfortable
    c. 3 = Neither uncomfortable nor comfortable
    d. 4 = Somewhat comfortable
    e. 5 = Extremely comfortable

Organizational Socialization Tactics (IV)

- 30 items
- Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *Academy of Management journal*, *29*(2), 262-279.
- 7-point scale – strongly disagree to strongly agree

Thinking about when you first started your most recent role, please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

Collective versus individual:

1. STCI1 In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job related training activities.
2. STCI2 Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements.
3. STCI3 This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.
4. STCI4 Most of my training has been carried out apart from other newcomers. (R)
5. STCI5 There is a sense of "being in the same boat" amongst newcomers in this organization.

Formal versus informal:

1. STFI1 I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.
2. STFI2 During my training for this job I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members.
3. STF13 I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods.
4. STFI4 Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis. (R)
5. STFI5 I have been very aware that I am seen as "learning the ropes" in this organization.

Investiture versus divestiture:

1. STID1 I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.
2. STID2 Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.
3. STID3 I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. (R)
4. STID4 My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.
5. STID5 I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations. (R)

Sequential versus random:

1. STSR1 There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization.
2. STSR2 Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceeding stages of the process.
3. STSR3 The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this organization.
4. STSR4 This organization does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning
5. STSR5 The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this organization.

Serial versus disjunctive:

1. STSD1 Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization.
2. STSD2 I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues
3. STSD3 I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. (R)
4. STSD4 I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization. (R)
5. STSD5 I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. (R)

Fixed versus variable:

1. STFix1 I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experiences.
2. STFix2 I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization.
3. STFix3 The way in which my progress through is organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me.
4. STFix4 I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercise in this organization. (R)
5. STFix5 Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, through the grapevine, rather than through regular organizational channels. (R)

Organizational Socialization Tactics (IV)

- 12 item scale from Allen & Shanock, 2013
- Allen, D. G., & Shanock, L. R. (2013). Perceived organizational support and embeddedness as key mechanisms connecting socialization tactics to commitment and turnover among new employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *34*(3), 350-369.
    - Adapted from Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *Academy of Management journal*, *29*(2), 262-279.
- 7-point scale – strongly disagree to strongly agree

Thinking about when you first started your most recent role, please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

Content:

1. STSR1 There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization.
2. STSR2 Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceding stages of the process.
3. STSR3 The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this organization.
4. STFix2 I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization.

5. STFix3 The way in which my progress through is organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me.

Context:

1. STCI1 In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job related training activities.
2. STCI3 This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.
3. STFI1 I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.

Social:

1. STSD3 I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. (R)
2. STSD5 I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. (R)
3. STID3 I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. (R)
4. STID5 I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations. (R)

Marker variable: Polychronicity

- 4 items
- Kaufman-Scarborough, C., & Lindquist, J. D. (1999). Time management and polychronicity: Comparisons, contrasts, and insights for the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *14*(3/4), 288-312.
- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 =Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

Please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

1. NMarker1 - I do not like to juggle several activities at the same time
2. NMarker2 - People should not try to do many things at once.
3. NMarker3 - When I sit down at my desk, I work on one project at a time
4. NMarker4 - I am comfortable doing several things at the same time (R)

Role Clarity

- 9 items – adapted from "role ambiguity"
- Rizzo, R. J,, House, R, J,, & Lirtzman, S, I. 1970. Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 15: 150-163.
- 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Thinking about your current role, please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

1. RC1 - I feel certain about how much authority I have at my new job.
2. RC2 - Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my new job.
3. RC3 - I know that I have divided my time properly at my new job.
4. RC4 - I know what my responsibilities are at my new job.
5. RC5 - I have to "feel my way" in performing my duties at my new job. (R)
6. RC6 - I feel certain how I will be evaluated at my new job.
7. RC7 - I have just the right amount of work to do at my new job.
8. RC8 - I know exactly what is expected of me at my new job.
9. RC9 - Explanation is clear of what has to be done at my new job.

Self-efficacy

- 8 items
- Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. *Academy of Management journal*, *29*(2), 262-279.
- 7 point Likert-scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree)

Thinking about your current role, please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

1. My new job is well within the scope of my abilities.
2. I do not anticipate any problems in adjusting to work in this organization.
3. I feel I am overqualified for the job I will be doing.
4. I have all the technical knowledge I need to deal with my new job, all I need now is practical experience.
5. I feel confident that my skills and abilities equal or exceed those of my future colleagues.
6. My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully in this organization.
7. I could have handled a more challenging job than the one I will be doing.
8. Professionally speaking, my new job exactly satisfies my expectations of myself. (R)

Social acceptance

- 7-items
- Morrison, E. W. (2002). Newcomers' relationships: The role of social network ties during socialization. Academy of Management Journal, 45(6), 1149-1160. doi:10.2307/3069430
- 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Thinking about your current role, please answer the following based on how much you agree with each statement.

1. SocAcc1 - I look forward to being with my coworkers each day at my new job.
2. SocAcc2 - I feel comfortable around my coworkers at my new job.
3. SocAcc3 - I feel accepted by my coworkers at my new job.

4. SocAcc4 - With my coworkers, I am easily identified as “one of the gang” at my new job.
5. SocAcc5 - I do not feel that I have much in common with my coworkers at my new job. (R)
6. SocAcc6 - I feel little attachment to my co-workers at my new job. (R)
7. SocAcc7 - I often feel like an outsider when I am around my coworkers at my new job. (R)

APPENDIX C: VETERAN SURVEY ITEMS

Below is a list of the veteran survey items used in the current study. The items also have variable codes used for data analyses.

Beginning Survey Codes

1. StartDate – date starting the survey
2. EndDate – date ending the survey
3. ResponseType (can delete this) – put in by Qualtrics; all 0 - delete
4. IPAddress – Not needed
5. Progress – How much of survey is completed (percent)
6. TimeSeconds – Time in seconds spent on the survey
7. RecordedDate – Date data was recorded in Qualtrics
8. ResponseID – not needed
9. RecipientLastName – From Qualtrics Panel; Last name
10. RecipientFirstName – From Qualtrics Panel; First name
11. RecipientEmail – From Qualtrics Panel; Email
12. NewID – Randomized assigned ID from full list of 30,000 email addresses
13. Finished
    a. 1 = yes
    b. 0 = no
14. Blanks – number of blanks in the survey. One full row has both the newcomer and veteran survey. This helps you understand how many items each participant completed.
    a. Total number of survey items: 345
    b. Total number of veteran items: 182
    c. Total number of newcomer items: 163
    d. *Note:* Any survey responses with more than 200 blanks were removed from the dataset (N = 1,757)

Qualifying questions for the study

1. Qual1 - What is your current organizational status?
    a. 1 = I have been with my organization for over 12 months.
    b. 2 = I have been with my organization for less than 12 months.

2. VetQual1 - In the past 12 months, have you interacted with a newcomer (e.g., has someone new joined your work group, team, or started doing a similar role)?
    a. 1 = No
    b. 2 = Yes

3. VetQual2 - In the past 12 months, have you helped train this newcomer (either formally or informally)?
    a. 1 = No, I have not trained, mentored, or helped the newcomer (go to the end of the survey)

   b. 2 = Yes, I formally trained, mentored, or helped the newcomer (the training was mandated by the organization)
   c. 3 = Yes, I informally trained, mentored, or helped the newcomer (I just decided to help the newcomer)

4. Please enter YOUR name and WORK email address below. Again, please enter your ORGANIZATION email address (not a personal email address) in all lowercase letters**.**

   This information will be used for linking purposes only. That is, your name and WORK email address will be used to link your responses to the newcomer's responses that you helped train. Once your responses are linked, this identifying information will be removed from the database and replaced with a unique ID number.
   a. VetFirstName:
   b. VetLastName:
   c. VetEmail:

5. Please provide the name and WORK email address of the NEWCOMER you helped onboard. Again, please enter the newcomer's ORGANIZATION email address (not a personal email address) in all lowercase letters.

   When you answer questions about a "newcomer", you should think about THE PERSON WHOSE NAME YOU ARE ENTERING BELOW.
   a. NewcomerFirstName:
   b. NewcomerLastName:
   c. NewcomerEmail:

6. VetConsent
   a. 1 = I do not agree to participate
   b. 2 = I agree to participate

Demographic questions

5. VSex - What is your sex?
   a. 1 = Male
   b. 2 = Female
   c. 3 = Other (fill in)

6. VAge - What is your age in years? (fill in)

7. VRace - What is your race?
   a. 1 = Caucasian
   b. 2 = African American
   c. 3 = Hispanic
   d. 4 = Asian
   e. 5 = Other/mixed

8. VEdu - What is your highest level of education?
    a. 1 = Some high school
    b. 2 = High school graduate
    c. 3 = Completed some college
    d. 4 = Associate degree
    e. 5 = Bachelor's degree
    f. 6 = Master's degree
    g. 7 = PhD, law, or medical degree

Information about the job

10. VTenureMonths - How long have you been in your current role (please round to the nearest whole number IN MONTHS)? (fill in)

11. VHrsWorked - How many hours per week do you TYPICALLY (on average) work? (fill in)

12. VOrgSize - How many employees are at your current organization? (drop down list)
    a. 1 = 1 – 49
    b. 2 = 50 – 99
    c. 3 = 100 – 499
    d. 4 = 500 - 999
    e. 5 = 1,000 – 4,999
    f. 6 = 5,000 or more
    g. 7 = Other

13. VTitleMC - Which of the following most closely matches your job title? (drop down list)
    a. 1 = Intern
    b. 2 = Entry level
    c. 3 = Analyst/associate
    d. 4 = Manager
    e. 5 = Senior manager
    f. 6 = Director
    g. 7 = Vice president
    h. 8 = Senior vice president
    i. 9 = C level executive (CIO, CTO, COO, CMO, etc)
    j. 10 = President or CEO
    k. 11 = Owner

14. VSchoolTrans – Are you transitioning to this job directly from school?
    a. 1 = I am just out of school (graduated in the past year) and this is my first job
    b. 2 = This is my first job, but I have been out of school for more than a year
    c. 3 = I am just out of school, but worked while I was in school

   d. 4 = I have been out of school for more than a year and I have had other jobs before

15. VMgr - Are you currently in a managerial role?
    a. 1 = Yes, I manage other employees
    b. 2 = No, I am an individual contributor

Control variable: Coworker liking scale

- 4 items
- Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(5), 487-499.
- Anchors:
  - First item anchors: 1 (I don't like this newcomer at all) to 5 (I like this newcomer very much)
  - Next 3 item anchors: 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)
  - In the published article, they average the 4 items together, despite being measured on different scales. I could also consider analyzing the two anchors separately.

5. VLiking1 - How much do you like the newcomer?
6. VLiking2 - I get along well with the newcomer.
7. VLiking3 - Getting to know this newcomer has been a pleasure.
8. VLiking4 - I think this newcomer would make a good friend.

Other control variables

2. VComfort 1 – I felt comfortable interacting with the newcomer during the onboarding process.
    a. 1 = Not at all comfortable
    b. 2 = Somewhat uncomfortable
    c. 3 = Neither uncomfortable nor comfortable
    d. 4 = Somewhat comfortable
    e. 5 = Extremely comfortable

3. VComfort 2 – I felt comfortable answering questions from the newcomer during the onboarding process.
    a. 1 = Not at all comfortable
    b. 2 = Somewhat uncomfortable
    c. 3 = Neither uncomfortable nor comfortable
    d. 4 = Somewhat comfortable
    e. 5 = Extremely comfortable

4. Stress1 - Outside of the normal stressors of your role, did you ever feel "added stress" as a result of the onboarding process?
    a. 1 = Yes
    b. 2 = No

5. Stress1Qual – What was it about the onboarding process that made you feel added stress (e.g., amount of time, lack of materials, lack of standardization, direction from your supervisor, etc.).
    a. *Open-ended question that was shown if the respondent answered "yes" to the above question.*

6. Hiring1 - Were you a part of any of the hiring process for this newcomer? For example, were you part of the recruitment, interview, and selection process of this newcomer?
    a. 1 = Yes
    b. 2 = No

Marker variable: Polychronicity

- 4 items
- Kaufman-Scarborough, C., & Lindquist, J. D. (1999). Time management and polychronicity: Comparisons, contrasts, and insights for the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *14*(3/4), 288-312.
- 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 =Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly Agree

1. VMarker1 - I do not like to juggle several activities at the same time
2. VMarker2 - People should not try to do many things at once.
3. Vmarker3 - When I sit down at my desk, I work on one project at a time
4. VMarker4 - I am comfortable doing several things at the same time (R)

Veteran Assimilation (IV)
Gailliard, Myers, & Seibold, 2010
Organizational assimilation index

- 7 dimensions of the OAI
- 24 items total
- 5 point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree – strongly agree)

Thinking about your own job and your own experiences in your current role, please indicate how much you agree with each statement.
**Note: This scale was randomized for each participant – each question was seen in a different order.*

1. VA1 - I consider my coworkers friends
2. VA2 - I feel comfortable talking to my coworkers
3. VA3 - I feel like I know my coworkers pretty well
4. VA4 - I feel like I know my supervisor pretty well
5. VA5 - My supervisor sometimes discusses problems with me
6. VA6 - My supervisor and I talk together often
7. VA7 - I understand the standards of the organization

8. VA8 - I think I have a good idea about how this organization operates
9. VA9 - I know the values of my organization
10. VA10 - I do not mind being asked to perform my work according to the organization's standards
11. VA11 - My supervisor recognizes when I do a good job
12. VA12 - My supervisor listens to my ideas
13. VA13 - I think my supervisor values my opinions
14. VA14 - I think my supervisor recognizes my value to the organization
15. VA15 - I talk to my coworkers about how much I like it here
16. VA16 - I volunteer for duties that benefit the organization
17. VA17 - I talk about how much I enjoy my work
18. VA18 - I can do others' jobs, if I am needed
19. VA19 - I have figured out efficient ways to do my work
20. VA20 - I think I'm an expert at what I do
21. VA21 - I often show others how to perform our work
22. VA22 - I have helped to change the duties of my position
23. VA23 - I have changed some aspects of my position
24. VA24 - I do this job a bit differently than my predecessor did

Socialization-related job demands (IV)

- 11 items
- Ganster, D. C., & Fusilier, M. R. 1989. Control in the workplace. In C. L. Cooper & I. Robertson (Eds.), International review of industrial and organizational psychology: 235-280. Chichester, England: Wiley.
- 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree)

Thinking about when you were helping onboard the newcomer, please answer the following. Remember to think about your time when you were onboarding the newcomer.

While onboarding the newcomer…

1. JD1 - I had to constantly work faster.
2. JD2 - I had much more work to do than before the newcomer was around.
3. JD3 - I had to work harder to finish tasks.
4. JD4 - I constantly worked under more time pressure.
5. JD5 - I constantly had to rush more to get work done.
6. JD6 - I did my work in comfort. (R)
7. JD7 - I constantly dealt with more of a backlog of work.
8. JD8 - I had too little work before the newcomer was around. (R)
9. JD9 - I think the pace of my work was too fast before the newcomer was around.
10. JD10 - I had problems dealing with my increased workload.
11. JD11 - I wished I could work at an easier pace.

New Knowledge Self-Efficacy (IV)
Miller & Jablin, 1991

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of the process. *Academy of Management Review*, *16*(1), 92-120.

- This scale came from the mini-pilot study before the survey went live.
    - 13 items from the 31 item list were selected for the final survey. The decision was made based on ratings from 10 subject matter experts who have recently trained newcomers and rated how often the newcomer asked about each area of training.
- 1 = not at all confident; 2 = somewhat not confident; 3 = neither confident or not confident; 4 = somewhat confident; 5 = extremely confident

Thinking about when you were helping onboard the newcomer, please answer the following.

How confident were you in your ability to explain or give feedback on each of the following aspects of the organization and new role to the newcomer?

1. NewKSE1 – Job instructions
2. NewKSE2 – Organizational procedures
3. NewKSE3 – Amount of responsibility for the new role
4. NewKSE4 – The reason for doing each task
5. NewKSE5 – Job procedures specific to the new role
6. NewKSE6 – How to get a promotion
7. NewKSE7 – What work needs to be done
8. NewKSE8 – How to get job training
9. NewKSE9 – Appropriateness of social behavior
10. NewKSE10 – Adequacy of his/her basic skills and abilities
11. NewKSE11 – Adequacy of his/her performance under pressure
12. NewKSE12 – Managing job pressures and role conflicts
13. NewKSE13 – Overcoming his/her anxieties

ITQ (DV)

- 3 items
- Parra, L. F. (1995). Development of an intention to quit scale. Unpublished manuscript. Bowling Green State University.
- 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree

After being part of the onboarding experience, please rate how much you agree with the following statements.

1. VITQ1 - I may look for another organization soon.
2. VITQ2 - I often think of quitting my current organization.
3. VITQ3 - I intend to stay at my present organization. (R)

Affective Commitment (DV)

- 6 items
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. 1997. *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.
- 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree

After being part of the onboarding experience, please rate how much you agree with the following statements.

1. VComm1 - I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
2. VComm2 - I feel personally attached to my organization
3. VComm3 - I am proud to tell others I work at my organization
4. VComm4 - Working at my organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me
5. VComm5 - I would be happy to work at my organization until I retire
6. VComm6 - I really feel that problems faced by my organization are also my problems

Emotional exhaustion (DV)

- 8 items
- Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*, 498–512.
- 1 (never) to 7 (every day)

While you were part of the onboarding process, how often did you…

1. VEmoEx1 - Feel emotionally drained from work
2. VEmoEx2 - Feel used up at the end of the workday
3. VEmoEx3 - Feel fatigued when you get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job
4. VEmoEx4 - Feel that working all day with people is a strain
5. VEmoEx5 - Feel burned out from your work
6. VEmoEx6 - Feel frustrated by your job
7. VEmoEx7 - Feel like you're working too hard on your job
8. VEmoEx8 - Feel like you're at the end of your rope