

**Is Here My Home? A Control Perspective for Newcomers'  
Organizational Socialization**

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# **Is Here My Home? A Control Perspective for Newcomers'**

## **Organizational Socialization**

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### **Abstract**

Anchored on the “uncertainty reduction by learning” perspective, most research on organizational socialization has emphasized the role of information acquisition in newcomers’ socialization, stressing that the more information newcomers acquire, the more effective the socialization process will be. However, not all of the new information is compatible with the newcomers’ previous experience. The learning approach fails to explain and predict the whole story of organizational socialization because the approach does not substantively address the different natures characterizing the information that newcomers receive in work settings: namely, the compatibility and the incompatibility with the newcomers’ previous experience. As a result, research on the mechanisms of organizational socialization has not sufficiently explained the aspect of newcomers’ adaptation in socialization.

To fill in this void, this dissertation has proposed and tested a model examining the consequences and antecedents of three parallel mechanisms of socialization processes from both the socialization-learning perspective and the control perspective. On top of previous socialization-content mechanisms deriving from the socialization-learning approach, the control perspective explains how newcomers deal with incompatible information during their early organizational experiences by introducing two coping mechanisms: primary control and secondary control. Moreover, this dissertation examines the different effects of learning, primary control, and secondary control on different adaptation outcomes, such as performance, person-organization fit, job stress, and turnover intention. To further investigate certain organizational factors through which the three socialization mechanisms, especially primary and secondary control,

are activated, I have introduced a new concept: organizational secure base. I have argued that an organization's secure base can help newcomers develop a secure attachment to their organization and can, in turn, lead to different usages of the primary and secondary control strategies.

To test the hypothesized relationships in the model, I conducted two studies. In study one, I developed and validated two scales for primary control and secondary control in an organizational context. In study two, I conducted a time-lag study with a sample of 150 newcomers from three organizations. Results of study two support my argument that there are several parallel socialization-process mechanisms, which function together to affect adaptation outcomes. Most of the hypotheses concerning the distinct consequences of each of the three parallel mechanisms were supported. Organizational secure base was also found to be an important organizational factor for newcomers' adaptation. Implications for theory and managerial practices, limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: socialization, primary control, secondary control, P-O fit



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摘要

过去关于新员工组织社会化的文献大都采用“通过学习减小不确定性”的视角来解释新员工的适应过程。该视角强调新员工社会化过程中信息获取的重要性,提出新员工获取的相关信息越多,社会化的结果越好。然而,对于新员工来说,并非所有的信息都是可以立刻与过去的经历相融合的。由于没有能够解决新员工接受和处理的信息存在不同性质的问题,过去的学习视角没有完全解释和预测新员工组织社会化过程的整个机制。

为了弥补文献中的不足,本论文提出一个理论模型解释新员工组织社会化的三个并行机制。这三个机制包括过去文献中的“不确定性减小机制”和新提出的“个人控制机制”。在过去已有机制的基础之外,本文提出新员工可能采用“初级控制”和“次级控制”两种策略来处理接收到的不和谐信息,以完成在组织中的工作初期的适应阶段。本研究用实证方法检验了学习机制、初级控制、次级控制对于员工行为态度结果的不同影响。为了进一步研究影响三种机制,尤其是后两种控制机制的组织因素,本研究引入了一个新的构念:组织的安全基础。作者认为员工感受到的组织安全基础可以帮助员工发展起与组织的安全依附关系,这种安全依附关系进而影响新员工在社会化过程中采用怎样的控制策略。

为了检验本研究提出的理论模型能够在多大程度上解释现实中的现象,作者设计了两项研究。研究一发展了测量组织中员工初级控制和次级控制的量表,并检验了量表的效度。研究二对 150 名新员工的社会化过程进行的追踪调研。研究结果支持本研究提出的观点,即,

几个组织社会化机制的同时存在，以及它们对社会化结果的并行作用。该研究提出的假设大部分得到支持。另外，研究发现组织的安全基础是影响新员工适应的一个重要的组织因素。本文最后讨论了该研究对于理论的贡献和实践意义，以及本研究的不足和未来的研究方向。

关键词：组织社会化，初级控制，次级控制，员工-组织匹配

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, global economic changes have greatly increased competition and uncertainties among firms, resulting in greater pressure on the firms to strive for greater profits. Organizations are pushed to be more flexible and market-oriented in management. In particular, among other types of managements, newcomer management should be mindful of newcomers' potential for professional success and empower them with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that contribute to this success. To achieve success, organizations pay much attention to how they can efficiently "process" their new workforce through growing investments in newcomer orientations and training programs. These organizational practices are also supported by academic research. However, what happens in the actual world shows that these practices could not resolve all of newcomers' uncertainties, frustrations, confusion, or depression, which sometimes might burst out in an extreme way such as the suicide tragedies in Foxcoon in 2010. I assert that on top of organizational practices, a stronger understanding of the mechanism that helps govern newcomers' psychological responses and changes in organizations will help these organizations acquire effective and healthy new workforce. Yet researchers have paid insufficient attention to the psychological changes experienced by newcomers during their first several months. This dissertation reflects my attempt to fill this void by examining newcomers' attitudinal and cognitive responses and changes that take place during organizational socialization.

Organizational socialization is a process by which an individual acquires the attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge she or he needs to participate as an organizational member (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Organizational socialization has been an oft-explored topic because of the socialization's strong and lasting effects on the behaviors and attitudes of employees who remain with an organization as well as because of the socialization's role in organizations' maintenance of their routines and culture (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998).

Basically, there are two main foci in socialization literature, emphasizing the roles of organizational practices and individuals' behaviors, respectively. The first focus is

organizational practices. A number of studies on organizational-socialization tactics support their usefulness in helping with newcomers' socialization. For example, researchers have found that highly institutionalized socialization tactics are helpful in reducing the uncertainty inherent in early work experiences and result in a better adjustment outcome (e.g., Jones, 1986; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Kim et al., 2005). The second focus is newcomers' proactive behaviors, which are also called self-socialization. As one of the earliest researchers who brought forth this idea, Schein (1996) stated, "Socialization and training will fall much more on the individual and will be designed as learning exercises rather than teaching or training programs. Organizational culture will be acquired by self-socialization, observation, mentoring, and coaching" (p. 83). The arguments have gained support from empirical findings. Specifically, newcomers' proactive behaviors can be direct antecedents of adaptation (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996) or can moderate the relationship between organizational-socialization tactics and person-organization fit (e.g., Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005).

With the focus either on organizational practice or on individuals' proactive behaviors, the previous studies on organizational socialization share a similar perspective in explaining socialization mechanisms. The core argument underlying the two foci emphasizes the importance of information acquisition in reducing newcomers' sense of uncertainty. On the assumption that newcomers' major difficulties are their uncertainties about the new environment, this perspective can be categorized as a socialization-learning perspective. In this vein, the major components of socialization are task-related learning, the people associated with the new job, and the context of the new job. This perspective suggests that helping newcomers to acquire more information via various communication channels, such as formal training or social interactions with superiors and peers, will reduce the degree of newcomers' uncertainty and then strengthen adaptation outcomes (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Despite contributing to our knowledge of organizational socialization, the socialization-learning perspective fails to provide a big picture of the socialization process by neglecting newcomers' attitudinal and cognitive changes that occur during the socialization process.

Given that newcomers enter an organization with their own experiences, cognition,

personalities, and expectations, there might be some conflicts between the knowledge, views, and values previously possessed by the newcomers and the firm-specific or the idiosyncratic knowledge, views, and values the newcomers will learn in the organization. Therefore, in addition to uncertainty reduction, newcomers need to deal with frustrations, conflicts, and struggles in order to regain a sense of control. Still, the effects of behavioral and cognitive adaptation on socialization processes have not attracted sufficient attention from researchers in the field. To shed light on some of these effects, my first research question asks how newcomers deal with the individual-environment conflict during their socialization and what the consequences are.

To answer this question, I employ the control perspective to explain newcomers' adaptation processes. From the control perspective, newcomers' adaptation could be considered a process of using behavioral strategy or cognitive strategy to deal with discrepancies between newcomers' own referent criteria and the environment. I describe these two strategies by proposing two constructs: newcomer primary control and newcomer secondary control. As these two strategies share the same goal of decreasing discrepancy between individuals and their respective organization, I hypothesize that the two strategies will have effects on the newcomers' person-organization fit (P-O fit), which refers to the compatibility between individuals and their organization. Moreover, insofar as newcomers must face special environments, the effects of these two strategies on newcomers' adaptation outcomes would not be identical, manifesting themselves in their different effects on equally different forms of P-O fit and other socialization outcomes. Therefore, to provide a broader picture of socialization processes, I propose and test a model involving socialization-content mechanisms derived from the socialization-learning perspective and from two newly proposed coping strategies based on the control perspective.

The second question is whether or not any organizational factors influence newcomers' choice of different strategies for adapting to a given work setting. I argue that organizational factors can influence the newcomers' adaptation strategies for dealing with struggles. To be specific, I claim that organizational secure base may affect newcomers' adaptation strategies. The proposition derives from the

following consideration. Whereas most researchers define “socialization” as a process in which newcomers learn to be an organizational member, I argue that organization is more than a source of information. Covering such early experiences as interpersonal interactions, newcomers’ first several months are a critical period during which they assess the security of the environment and then develop certain relationships with the organization. If they consider the environment secure, newcomers could feel that they can safely and confidently reflect on their previous knowledge, explore their own problems and the new environment, and develop a reliable, positive, and hopeful relationship with the organization. Consequently, an individual’s alertness to discrepancies between the self and the environment would lessen in intensity. Then, the individual might tend to use a less aggressive strategy to deal with the discrepancies. Nonetheless, individuals who consider an environment to be insecure are typically cautious about every change in the environment and take effective steps to prevent the environment from developing in an undesired direction. If the individuals fail, they may withdraw and avoid interactions with the environment. To describe these characteristics of organizational environment and to illuminate the effects of organizational environment on newcomers’ adaptation strategies, I introduce a new concept of secure base, identified more specifically herein as organizational secure base; and to answer the two research questions mentioned above, I used a time-lag research design, obtaining data at two different time points from newcomers who differed from one another regarding their age, organization-based position, and the identity of their direct supervisors.

In sum, this dissertation is devoted to expanding the current literature in five distinct ways. First, it proposes a new perspective to extend our understanding of newcomers’ socialization processes. On top of the previously examined socialization-learning mechanism, the newly proposed control perspective offers an explanation of how newcomers deal with information that leads to incompatibilities between these newcomers and their new environment. Second, by examining the differential effects of each mechanism on the four forms of P-O fit, this dissertation contributes to P-O fit literature by identifying the mechanisms leading to different forms of fit perception in the newcomer context. Third, this dissertation not only introduces the new concept of secure base to explore organizational antecedents that

activate different coping strategies, but also presents preliminary evidence that organizational secure base possibly affects organizational behaviors. Fourth, I have developed and validated measures for three new proposed constructs: primary control, secondary control, and organizational secure base, respectively. In so doing, the dissertation has laid a foundation for the future investigation on this direction. Fifth, the method used in the current study is worthy of note. An important concern in socialization studies is that although they have used many different types of organizations to acquire research samples, newly graduated college students are still far and away the most popular type of sample used (Bauer, Morrison & Callister, 1998). To close the gap in this regard, the current study has used individuals who differ from one another regarding both the level at which they enter their respective organization and the position that they hold therein. In so doing, this study may offer a rigorous conclusion that is more general than conclusions offered by previous research.

I organize this dissertation in the following ways. Chapter 2 offers an overview of the main perspectives and studies in the field of newcomer socialization. Chapter 3, on the basis of the control perspective, develops a theoretical model to explain how newcomers adapt to their new environment and regain a sense of control. In Chapter 4, I present study one, whose function is to develop and validate two new constructs in my theoretical model. Chapter 5 discusses a time-lag field study that I conducted to examine the consequences and antecedents of three parallel mechanisms of socialization processes. Finally, Chapter 6 provides a general discussion of this research, including research findings, interpretations, theoretical contributions, limitations of the current study, and avenues for future research.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

'Organizational socialization' refers to a process of learning the behaviors and attitudes necessary for assuming a role in an organization (Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1968; Van Maanen, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). It has been a topic covered by management researchers for decades because of its lasting effects on both employees and organizations (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998). Specifically, first, research found that early organizational experiences take place in a period during which most employees undergo the most dynamic changes of their tenure in the organization: shortly after their entry into an organization, individuals experience kinds of changes that can violently shift "one from a state of certainty to uncertainty; from knowing to not knowing; from the familiar to the unfamiliar" (Van Maanen, 1977, p. 16).

Newcomers' working attitudes that form during the entry period are highly correlated with the newcomers' attitudes later on (e.g., Adkins, 1995; Morrison, 1993a).

Second, from the organizational view, socialization is an important complement to the selection function of human-resource management. Traditionally, the recruitment and selection process has been considered the best way to find effective members and a viable substitute for socialization (Chatman, 1991). In the attraction-selection-attrition model (ASA model), Schneider (1987) maintained that organizations attract newcomers, and newcomers select organizations on the basis of perceived fit. After the entry, if newcomers and organizations realize that they do not fit with each other well, the unfit members will leave the organization. In this vein, the ASA model rests on the assumption that fit is a static concept. In practice, however, no matter how thorough the selection processes are, there is usually a need for at least some residual adjustment that newcomers need to make in order to experience good fit with their organization. Under these circumstances, socialization plays a significant role in related processes.

In the following section, I will first briefly introduce the two main approaches in the prevailing socialization literature—the uncertainty-reduction approach and the cognitive-adaptation approach. Then, I will introduce how researchers of each



approach conceptualize newcomers' experiences. I will also identify the different research questions and summarize the main arguments and studies under each approach. Finally, this chapter concludes with a discussion pertaining to outcome variables examined in previous literature on newcomer socialization.

## **2.1 Two main approaches**

Saks and Ashforth (1997a)'s review briefly summarizes four perspectives existing in the socialization literature: (1) Van Maanen and Schein (1979)'s model of socialization tactics, (2) uncertainty-reduction theory (URT), (3) social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory, and (4) cognitive and sense-making theory. The summary offers an excellent guideline by which we can organize our current knowledge on organizational socialization; however, it leaves some limitations. First, our general understanding of a perspective or approach is a theoretical explanation of the mechanism leading to a phenomenon. Based on such a criterion, the four categories proposed by Saks and Ashforth (1979a) may not be all identified as independent perspectives. For example, the first perspective "socialization tactics" is more like an organizational factor rather than a perspective. Second, Saks and Ashforth (1979a) claim that there are four approaches to examining organizational socialization, but I argue that the underlying relationships among them are not clear enough to distinguish them from each other. For example, the third perspective "self-efficacy" uses an argument similar to the one used in uncertainty-reduction theory. Based on Saks and Ashforth (1997a)'s work, the present research re-categorizes the prevailing perspectives on socialization into two main streams: the uncertainty-reduction approach and the cognitive-adaptation approach. The major consideration underlying this categorization is that each approach should offer a unique angle from which we can analyze and explain the socialization mechanisms.

## **2.2 Uncertainty-reduction approach**

For many individuals, their first year of organizational life is a very frustrating experience, which is full of stress, anxiety, and disillusionment (Katz, 1985). Most researchers describe the entry process as a period of uncertainty (Feldman & Brett, 1983; Jones, 1986; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Uncertainty is thought to be a function of

(a) the number of possible responses to a stimulus that are available to an individual and (b) their equipotentiality (Berlyne, 1960). Specifically, during the entry period, a number of possible responses to the set of task demands, social demands, and cultural demands confronting newcomers place these individuals in a situation that engenders feelings of high uncertainty. Assuming that newcomers' main problem is their lack of information and subsequent knowledge necessary for understanding the environment, researchers try to answer the questions of *why and how newcomers could acquire sufficient information*. URT offers rigorous answers to these questions.

URT was originally developed in interpersonal-relationship research. It examines the process that strangers, upon meeting, go through to reduce their own uncertainty about each other and to form an idea of whether one likes or dislikes the other (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Socialization researchers have applied URT to organizational settings because they have found that the relationship between newcomers and their organization can be similar to interpersonal and intercultural relationship developments in many ways (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Gudykunst, 1983; Lester, 1987). In an organization context, newcomers' uncertainty would not be relieved until they could understand the role demands, develop job-related abilities, understand task priorities and time allocation, and know whether they are liked and accepted by peers. Lester (1987) suggested that "the ability to generate confident inference, in terms of post hoc explanations and a priori predictions, becomes central to the individuals' interaction with an organization for the first time" (p. 106). With the expectation that the work environment will become more predictable and understandable, newcomers are eager to acquire as much information as possible and to reduce their uncertainty. When newcomers acquire necessary abilities, skills, and knowledge about what the new organization expects from them, their uncertainty will decrease, and then they will become more adept at performing their tasks, more satisfied with their job, and more likely to remain in their organization (Morrison, 1993a, b). This perspective in socialization literature is the aforementioned URT. This perspective—because it emphasizes the substance that an individual learns (or should learn) during socialization—is also referred to as the socialization-content perspective or the learning perspective (e.g., Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Haueter et al., 2003). Main research branches derived from this

perspective include socialization content, organizational socialization tactics, newcomers' networks, self-efficacy, and proactive personality. Among them, socialization content, organizational socialization tactics, and newcomers' networks focus on the effects of contextual factors on newcomers' socialization, and research on self-efficacy and proactive personality stresses the important role of newcomers' own efforts in increasing adjustment. Furthermore, in terms of the research questions to answer, the socialization-content branch serves to identify the kinds of information that newcomers need to acquire, but the other branches aim to investigate the antecedents to this process. In the following section, I will summarize these branches under the uncertainty-reduction approach and will point out the limits of this line of research.

### 2.2.1 Socialization content

Feldman (1981) proposed that newcomers' adjustment includes three important aspects. *Resolution of role demands*, which refers to understanding job tasks, task priorities, and time allocation, increases role clarity. *Task mastery*, which refers to learning to perform the tasks of the new job and gaining confidence in the role, enhances self-efficacy. *Adjustment to one's group*, which refers to newcomers' gradual recognition that they are liked and accepted by peers, improves social acceptance. Similarly, Fisher (1986) proposed that newcomers' adjustment consists of both *task* and *social* transitions. In support of the conceptual argument, Chao et al. (1994) conducted three studies to assess the specific dimensions of learning content during socialization, and developed a measure with six dimensions: performance proficiency, people domain, politics, language domain, organizational goals and values, and organization history. In summary, the studies above highlight that a newcomer needs to acquire multiple aspects of information and knowledge. Offering newcomers more information would help them better adapt to the new environment.

### 2.2.2 Organizational socialization tactics

Organizational socialization tactics are specified as important organizational antecedents to newcomers' socialization outcomes. Studies on organizational socialization tactics advance our knowledge of organizations' role in helping

newcomers acquire systematic and sufficient knowledge. Van Maanen (1978) originally proposed the phrase “tactics of organizational socialization,” referring to the ways in which an individual’s experiences in transition from one role to another are structured for him by others in the organization. The socialization tactics could be “practices” or “non-practices” of the organization. Specifically, the management of an organization might consciously select these tactics, such as requiring all newcomers to attend a formal training session or orientation program before assuming the duties of a particular role. Or management may unconsciously select such tactics as merely following the convention to use the “sink or swim” method of socialization, through which individuals must learn how to perform the new role on their own.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) suggest that organizational practices during newcomers’ entry can fall into six categories: collective-individual, formal-informal, sequential-random, fixed-variable, serial-disjunctive, and investiture-divestiture. With *collective* socialization tactics, newcomers experience common learning experiences as a group, whereas with *individual* tactics, each newcomer is exposed to learning experiences individually. *Formal* tactics segregate newcomers into clearly defined socialization activities such as training classes while the newcomers learn their roles, whereas *informal* tactics involve learning on the job during the activities that may not be clearly defined as socialization activities. *Sequential* tactics provide specific information to newcomers about the sequence of learning activities and experiences, whereas this sequence is unknown in a *random* process. *Fixed* tactics provide information to newcomers about the timing associated with completing each socialization stage or step, whereas this timing is unknown in a more *variable* process. *Serial* tactics provide experienced organizational members as role models or mentors, whereas *disjunctive* tactics do not provide experienced models. *Investiture* tactics provide newcomers positive social support from experienced organizational members, whereas *divestiture* tactics provide more negative social feedback until newcomers adapt. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) further suggest that collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics work better than the opposite ones. These tactics provide systematic and relevant information, as well as explicit information about the sequence and timing of activities that newcomers will go through. Empirical findings also support the assertion that these tactics help to reduce the uncertainty inherent in early work experiences and result in newcomers’

better adjustment outcomes (e.g., Jones, 1986; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Kim et al., 2005).

### 2.2.3 Newcomers' social network

Studies on newcomers' social networks emphasize the role of experienced employees in newcomers' socialization. Newcomers are not socializing independently or separately. Researchers suggest that an important way in which socialization occurs is through the social interactions between newcomers and "insiders," or more experienced members in an organization (Feldman, 1981; Louis, 1990). Echoing this argument, Morrison (2002) conducted a study on the characteristics of newcomers' information networks (size, density, strength, range, and status) and their socialization outcomes. Informational network and friendship network are identified as the socialization mechanisms in the study. Yet the two mechanisms differ from each other regarding their respective functions during newcomers' socialization process.

Informational network offers three types of information (i.e., organization, job, and role information), which facilitate newcomers' acquisition of knowledge about organization, task mastery, and role clarity. As a result, newcomers' acquisition of network-provided information will reduce newcomers' uncertainty. On the other hand, friendship networks provide newcomers social support, a sense of identity, and a sense of belonging (Brass, 1995; Podolny & Baron, 1997), which enhance the newcomers' commitment to the group and then accelerate their social integration into their work settings. Yet, given that Morrison (2002)'s objective was to examine the relationship between the structure of friendship networks and newcomers' perception of social integration, the theoretical argument (i.e., social support and a sense of identity and belonging provided by friendship networks) was not directly tested, leaving a void to be addressed in the future.

### 2.2.4 Self-efficacy

In socialization literature, self-efficacy theory is employed as a perspective to highlight the role that individuals' self-ability beliefs play in the socialization process. Self-efficacy, a key element in Bandura (1977, 1978)'s social-learning theory, refers

to a person's belief in his or her own ability to perform a specific task. Researchers in the field of socialization propose a similar argument and advance the position that newcomers who have high self-efficacy could better master relative skills and knowledge, thereby resulting in better adaptation. Jones' (1986) study illustrates the effect of self-efficacy on newcomers' adaptation. Jones concludes that self-efficacy is a moderator in the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and newcomers' adjustments and so that self-efficacy can set a boundary for previous findings. However, the complex role of self-efficacy in socialization leaves some specific questions for further discussion. For example, it is possible to build up an argument that runs counter to Jones (1986)'s—if a newcomer's self-efficacy is high, he or she may form a stronger belief in previous personal experiences, and this increased strength makes the newcomer more difficult to change. Furthermore, Jones' (1986) study proposes only the roles that newcomers' original self-efficacy plays in socialization: still a blank in the literature are both whether or not newcomers' self-efficacy can develop during socialization processes and what the consequences of these changes are..

#### 2.2.5 Proactivity as the dispositional factor

'Proactivity' refers to a tendency to be more proactive, to behave more confidently, to work actively to control one's environment, and to seek out information (Crant, 2000). Chan and Schmitt (2000)'s study, which incorporates proactive personality in socialization processes, finds that among new doctoral students, there is a positive relationship between proactivity and task mastery, role clarity, and social integration. Kammerlyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003)'s four-wave longitudinal study of newcomers in seven organizations finds that newcomers proactive personality is positively related to higher levels of positive adjustment outcomes, including increased task mastery, group integration, and political knowledge.

In terms of the content of proactive behaviors, information seeking is one of the widely examined proactive behaviors. According to research, if newcomers find that they do not have sufficient information to properly behave as organization members, they may seek out information to resolve this discrepancy (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Moreover, researchers have demonstrated that newcomers can initiate some activities



through which the newcomers can successfully integrate themselves into a new organizational context (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth & Saks, 2000; Morrison, 1993a, 1993b; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Touching on topics outside information-seeking behavior, Ashford and Black (1996) categorize proactive behaviors as seven dimensions: information seeking, feedback seeking, job-change negotiating (i.e., trying to modify one's tasks and others' expectations), positive framing (i.e., attempting to see things in an optimistic way), general socializing (i.e., participating in social events), building a relationship with one's boss, and networking. These proactive behaviors either play the role of a direct antecedent of adaptation (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996) or moderate the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and person-organization fit (e.g., Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005).

Some researchers consider proactive behaviors to be manifestations of a latent dispositional factor, "Proactivity." Grouping these individual behaviors together and labeling the group "proactivity" may facilitate efforts to understand the phenomenon. However, researchers have not theoretically clarified the nature of the construct. Likewise, most research have not clearly defined whether the construct is a type of personality or a behavioral intention. Furthermore, conceptually, there is no consistent theory on the basis of which researchers have developed the multidimensional construct of proactivity. "Information seeking" and "feedback seeking" are about information acquisition. "Job-change negotiating" represents Bell and Staw (1989)'s *behavior control*, which refers to control over one's inputs in the work process. "Positive framing" is traced back to the sense-making perspective, and "building a relationship" is about developing networks (information networks or friendship networks). Empirically, the correlations among dimensions are not clear, ranging from zero to moderate correlation (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996). The relationships between the dimensions and the outcome variables are inconsistent. For example, Ashford and Black (1996)'s empirical study found that among types of newcomers' proactive activities, only "positive framing" affects satisfaction and performance.

In sum, despite its limits, the study of proactive behaviors has been investigating individuals' factors in socialization effectiveness. The main arguments that serve to

explain the function of such personality characteristics rest on uncertainty reduction by learning and the sense-making perspective. Proactive newcomers more actively solve discrepancies between the information that organizations offer and the information sufficient to newcomers' needs; these newcomers also cope with stress by practicing self-management activities and by making sense of the reality of a shock.

#### 2.2.6 Summary of URT uncertainty-reduction theory

Theoretically, URT has greatly advanced our understanding of the socialization. Practically, URT implies the importance of helping newcomers to acquire more information via various communication channels, such as formal training or social interactions that occur with superiors and peers and that can reduce the degree of uncertainty and can positively affect adaptation outcomes (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). The theory also implies the importance of newcomers' proactive learning. However, socialization studies from the URT perspective suffer from two weaknesses. First, only a few such studies directly measure reduced uncertainty. For example, Saks and Ashforth (1997) found that information acquisition (operationalized by the frequency of newcomers' feedback and observation) mediates the relationship between socialization tactics and outcomes. Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) examined the function of six information sources in newcomers' acquisition of information in four content domains (task, role, group, and organization). Chao et al. (1994) developed six domains of necessary socialization areas and found that they were correlated to newcomers' career outcomes.

Second, the prevalence of URT in understanding socialization processes leaves another important part of socialization—adaptation processes—unexamined for a long time. Anchored in the assumption that an expansion of information will definitely alleviate newcomers' feelings of uncertainty, URT emphasizes the importance of knowledge and information acquisition. However, socialization is a process that consists of individual change in behavior, cognition, value, and attitude. Having more information to make a prediction does not necessarily lead to better compatibility between individual characteristics and the environment. In passing, it is worth noting that the cognitive-adaptation approach is another perspective that socialization literature employs to fill this void.



### 2.3 Cognitive-adaptation approach

Different from uncertainty reduction by learning, which emphasizes objective increases in knowledge and information, the cognitive-adaptation approach focuses on the role of changes in newcomers' subjective cognition.

Researchers who adopt the cognitive approach hold that newcomers need to deal with change in all aspects at work, which take place during the shift from old experiences to new experiences. A typical example was Louis (1980)'s summary of the key features of newcomers' entry experience: *change*, *contrast*, and *surprise*. These three aspects characterize the main types of newcomers' early experience in organization. Louis (1980) defines *change* as the objective differences between a new setting and an old setting. The number of elements that are different in the new setting compared with the previous one determines the changes that newcomers have to cope with. Changes are always publicly noted and observable. The second feature of the entry experience is *contrast*, which refers to new perceptions that run counter to one's background of previous experiences. Different from change, contrast is personal and subjective more than it is public and notable, and most of the time, it is not knowable in advance. Finally, *surprise* represents a difference between an individual's anticipations and subsequent experiences in the new setting. Louis (1980) suggests that in order to cope with these situations, newcomers will make certain attributions, take necessary behavioral responses, update their understanding of the new settings, and revise their predictions about future experiences and other anticipations. In contrast to the socialization-content approach, Louis (1980) draws our attention to newcomers' cognitive adaptation. This insightful idea raises a very important question: how would newcomers deal with the changes between an old experience and a new experience? Louis (1980) tried to use the sense-making process to answer this question.

#### *The sense-making process*

The sense-making process explains newcomers' socialization processes as a series of attempts to understand the surprises that the newcomers encounter during socialization (Louis, 1980). According to Louis (1980), the sense-making coping strategy starts from the failure of newcomers' previous cognition map, which is called

“scripts.” Scripts provide the individual with predictions of event sequences and outcomes. However, when predicted outcomes do not occur, the individual’s cognitive consistency is threatened (Festinger, 1957; Abelson et al., 1968). Louis (1980) suggests that the discrepancy between predicted and actual outcomes, or that between anticipations and experience, produces a state of tension. Such a tension drives the individual to return to equilibrium. Newcomers in an organization are a typical group of people who have to experience kinds of differences between their old experiences and those that arise in new settings. When newcomers’ scripts do not work in the new situation, they tend to develop explanations for why the actual outcomes occur and why the predicted outcomes do not. The retrospective explanations help to relieve tension states by restoring equilibrium in a new form. The particular thinking process through which retrospective explanations are produced is called “sense making,” and the explanatory products of sense making are labeled “accounts” (Scott & Lyman, 1968) or “attributions” (Ross, 1977). Accounts and attributions provide reasons for outcomes and discrepancies (Scott & Lyman, 1968, p. 46). Louis (1980) developed a model to conceptualize this process and to illustrate the main inputs that newcomers need to conduct sense making.

When used to shed light on, the sense-making perspective implies that newcomers may develop many different accounts and attributions for their new experience in socialization, which may consequently lead to quite different responsive behaviors or attitudes. Despite the insights into socialization, empirically, almost no study operationalizes the concepts and empirically examines Louis (1980)’s conceptual model. Among the recent studies on this topic, the sense-making perspective is mentioned only as a dimension of proactive behavior (i.e., positive framing) in newcomers’ proactivity study (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Chan & Schmitt, 2000; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). A possible reason is that the constructs in Louis’ (1980) paper are still lacking a more sound theorization and operationalization. Even with these limitations, the sense-making perspective provides socialization literature another important research direction: understanding newcomers’ internal changes and adaptations during the process. As Saks and Ashforth (1997a) suggested, the approach of cognitive processes is obviously lacking in socialization research, and the potential of this perspective is vast. To echo Saks and Ashforth (1997a)’s call, I should note that this dissertation reflects my attempt to

extend the understanding of socialization in this direction.

## 2.4 Outcomes of newcomer socialization

At the heart of organizational socialization is newcomers' adjustment, which includes knowledge, confidence, and motivation for performing a work role, and commitment to the organization and its goals (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Hulin, 1991; Nicholson, 1984). In order to evaluate the quality of socialization processes, researchers have used a number of outcome variables as criterion variables in previous research. Researchers categorize these outcome variables into proximal outcomes, which are more proximal to the process of adjustment, and distal outcomes, which are more global indicators of newcomer adjustment (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). In this section, I will summarize the main outcome variables that researchers in this field have used to evaluate the socialization process.

### 2.4.1 Proximal adjustment outcomes

Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) summarize four primary, salient proximal outcomes that have appeared in previous literature (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1998; Fisher, 1986; Morrison, 1993b, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). They are task mastery, role clarity, group integration, and political knowledge. *Task Mastery* is learning how to perform a job, including acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills that newcomers need to complete expected task behaviors. *Role Clarification* is the elucidation of newcomers' roles in the organization, which includes one's job purpose in the broader organization and the knowledge of performing appropriate behaviors to meet the job purposes. *Group integration* relates to newcomers' perception of approval from coworkers and of inclusion in a group, the two of which can be sources of social support and assistance. *Political knowledge* involves the informal networks of power and interpersonal relationships in an organization.

A review of these proximal outcomes shows that they are very similar to the dimensions of uncertainty content as well as to the socialization content discussed at the beginning of this section, (e.g., Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). In other words, researchers use the proximal outcomes to evaluate how well

a newcomer has acquired necessary information and knowledge.

#### 2.4.2 Distal adjustment outcomes

The distal outcomes examined in previous research include attitudinal outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment), performance outcome (e.g., task performance), and behavioral reactions to the workplace (e.g., work withdrawal and turnover). These distal outcomes are believed to be affected by more proximal adjusting outcomes such as learning and social integration during socialization processes. Most of these outcomes result from the mechanism of uncertainty reduction by learning. If we would like to examine the adaptation part of socialization processes, we may need to further discuss whether these are the most relevant outcomes with which to reflect the mechanisms.

### 2.5 Chapter summary and research gap in previous literature

In the introductory chapter, I have proposed two general questions: What happens during newcomers' early experiences? And how do newcomers develop into effective organizational members? Previous literature on socialization shows that researchers use different ways to describe newcomers' early experiences, and these descriptions lead to different perspectives for examining various socialization processes. In this chapter, I have summarized two main perspectives (i.e., uncertainty reduction by learning and the cognitive-adaptation perspective) used as explanations of newcomers' socialization processes, as well as the widely studied constructs under these perspectives. Finally, I have reviewed the proximal and distal outcomes in socialization literature, and have proposed that many of us in this research field may need to address a greater number of outcomes having greater relevancy if we are to compare the roles of multiple mechanisms rigorously.

The literature review in this chapter has identified some research gaps that merit attention. The gaps have resulted from the following limitations. First, uncertainty reduction by learning emphasizes acquisition of information; however, not all information is effectively assimilated into the newcomers' cognition framework. Previous researchers have asserted that once newcomers master task skills, role definitions, work-group norms, and political knowledge, as well as access information

that sheds light on a given organization's history and culture, the uncertainty will undergo a reduction. Empirically, previous research supports the proposition that there are associations between newcomers' socialization-related learning and better adaptation outcomes (Chao et al., 1994b; Bauer et al., 1998). As a result, the learnt socialization content winds up at the heart of most organizational socialization models. However, this description may not be the whole story to explain the changes that individuals undergo during the process of early socialization. The main reason is that knowledge acquisition is not equal to acceptance and assimilation. Socialization is a process consisting of individual changes in behavior, cognition, value, and attitude. Having more information with which to make predictions does not necessarily lead to better compatibility between individual characteristics and a given environment.

Second, a related question is whether any new mechanism other than uncertainty reduction by learning could explain the adaptation processes of socialization outcomes. Is it the case that multiple socialization mechanisms might coexist during the newcomer-adaptation period? What are the different roles of each mechanism in predicting outcomes? Multiple mechanisms may be manifested in multiple outcomes. Previous studies seldom distinguish their effects on different outcomes. Regarding the answers to the questions above, our knowledge is scarce. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003)'s study may be the only one that explores a similar question, although what they compared has several aspects of socialization content rather than several mechanisms.

To close the research gaps, in the next chapter, I develop a theoretical model, anchored in a new theoretical perspective distinct from but comparable with the previous perspective.

## CHAPTER 3

### THEORY DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

In Chapter 2, I have discussed the limitations of current literature on socialization in the work place. Prior studies placed a significant emphasis on learning but overlooked the role of adaptation, and paid little attention to the task of comparing different mechanisms simultaneously. To fill in these gaps, I will look at adaptation processes from an individual-control perspective. In this chapter, drawing on the control perspective, I propose a multiple-mechanism model to explain the newcomer-adaptation aspect of socialization processes. In addition, I explore the possible antecedents of each mechanism. On the basis of a conceptual framework, I propose thirteen sets of hypotheses. In the following section, I will start with the basic assumptions of my theoretical arguments.

#### 3.1 Assumptions and limitations of existing perspectives

When we look at newcomer phenomena through the existing perspectives in socialization literature, we may find that some questions such as adaptation processes have received no or only scant attention. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) define organizational socialization as the process by which an individual acquires the *attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge* she or he needs to participate as an organizational member. While knowledge acquisition has been widely discussed, behavioral acquisition and attitudinal acquisition remain two important topics scarcely touched on. An important reason for this omission is an old assumption held in previous uncertainty-reduction perspectives—more information will decrease uncertainty and lead to better adaptation outcomes, and knowledge acquisition will lead to attitudinal and behavioral acquisition. This assumption is vulnerable, because newcomers enter the organization with different experiences, cognition, personality, and expectations. It is obvious that some new information may create discrepancies when individuals compare it against their previous cognitive reference systems. A direct result is that newcomers might not be able to assimilate effectively or efficiently all of the new information with which they would have to deal. The literature has referred to this phenomenon variously as reality shock (Hughes, 1958) or surprise (Louis, 1980).

In the current study, I assume that information can fall into one of two categories according to the information's compatibility with newcomers' previous cognitive framework. The first type is *compatible information*, which refers to information that is consistent with a newcomer's values, goals, beliefs, previous experiences, and expectations. The second type is *incompatible information*, which refers to information that contradicts a newcomer's values, goals, beliefs, previous experiences, and topped expectations. According to dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), individuals have a motivational drive to reduce incompatible information to the minimum level by means such as changing one's own attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors or justifying and rationalizing them. For the newcomers, they sometimes modify their behaviors, or perhaps give up some goals and preferred modes of actions. During this process, individuals learn the appropriate behaviors and form their attitude toward work and organization. Therefore, both increases in compatible information and decreases in incompatible information should be important for individuals' adaptation. Unfortunately, socialization literature that focuses on information-acquisition processes may tell only half the story of socialization processes.

The second reason for the omission in the literature is the insufficient attention that researchers pay to the special needs and motivations of newcomers under a stressful circumstance. Facing a new environment, newcomers have two basic needs that emerge into the forefront—a need for certainty and a need for control. A lack of certainty, control, or both is a signal that individuals' other basic needs might be at risk. While prior socialization theories emphasize uncertainty reduction, the literature's discussion regarding individuals' efforts to regain control is insufficient. Sense of certainty is an individual's perception that he or she possesses sufficient information to understand the environment. Sense of control is a psychological construct reflecting an individual's beliefs, at a given point in time, in his or her ability to effect a change on the environment toward a desired direction (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986). In order to effectively interact with the environment, individuals need to first understand the environment, know the possible responses to kinds of situations, and have a channel for receiving consequential feedback from the environment. This process increases individuals' sense of certainty. But acquiring the above information is not the end of the story. Newcomers also need to make sure



that they can craft proper responses that later on garner the newcomers favorable feedback from the environment—a back-and-forth process through which individuals regain their individual sense of control. Bell and Staw (1989) have proposed that achieving certainty gives individuals a degree of control (as compared with uncertainty) but that higher levels of control are attained only when individuals believe that they have gained control over the behaviors demanded of them and over their efforts and outcomes in their settings. Personal perceived control is important for individuals because it can satisfy a basic need to feel competent and masterful (cf. Perlmutter & Monty, 1977; White, 1959). In contrast, lacking control is an unsettling and aversive state, activating individuals' fear response (Whalen, 1998). For newcomers, successfully dealing with incompatible information typically leads to a personal sense of control, because it means that they have been able to take some action and to adapt successfully to the new environment.

In brief, like all individuals who are in new situations, newcomers to an organization are first motivated to undertake a variety of strategies aimed at regaining a sense of certainty and control, all in the service of promoting successful job performance and of creating a compatible situation that gives them more satisfaction (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Katz, 1985). During this process, newcomers need to acquire information and deal with incompatible information. In order to explain how newcomers adapt to a new environment through their efforts to deal with incompatible information and then to establish a sense of control, I will first briefly introduce the control perspective, as well as its applicability to newcomer contexts.

## **3.2 The control perspective**

### **3.2.1 Traditional control theory**

Cybernetic or control theory is a general approach to understanding self-regulating systems that elicit responses to environmental disturbances. Researchers have drawn on this approach in relation to many different situations, from describing the way an organization controls the behavior of its members (e.g., Lawler, 1976) to simulating the regulation of various physiological processes (e.g., Van Sommers, 1974).

Although its central ideas were propounded decades ago (see, for example, Cannon's 1929, 1932, discussion of homeostatic physiological mechanisms), its formal birth is



usually traced to the publication of Wiener's (1948) book, *Cybernetics: Control and communication in the animal and the machine*. The original core idea of control theory could be simply summarized as a "feedback loop." The individual first perceives—or, more specifically, senses—the present conditions in a new environment. The individual then compares that perception against a point-of-reference value. If the individual perceives a discrepancy between the present state and the reference value, the individual will likely perform a behavior, the goal of which is to reduce the discrepancy. Rather than directly diminish the discrepancy, the behavior diminishes the discrepancy by affecting the environment. Such an effect creates a change in feedback from the given environment, leading to a different perception, which in turn that newcomer compares anew with the reference value. This arrangement thus constitutes a closed loop of control, the overall purpose of which is to minimize deviations from the standard of comparison.

Later, researchers extended control theory by proposing that individuals have different strategies to deal with discrepancies between environment-based information and the individual's internal referent standard (Powers, 1973; Campion & Lord, 1982). An individual who senses a discrepancy will, depending on the characteristics of the individual and the situation, make a decision as to whether he or she should try to modify the environment via performance of some behaviors, or whether the referent itself should change. Either way, the result is to maintain congruence between the environmental feedback and the desired referent standard.

Because of its simple and compelling core ideas, control theory, has had a major impact on diverse areas such as engineering (e.g., Dransfield, 1968; Ogata, 1970), applied mathematics (e.g., Berkovitz, 1974; Davis, 1977), economics (e.g., Balakrishnan, 1973; Pindyck, 1973), medicine (e.g., Guyton, 1976), and work-based motivation (e.g., Klein, 1989). However, this breadth of application has led to the charge that the theory is too ubiquitous, leading to a detrimental lack of precision and falsifiability.

Thus, those more precise conceptual frameworks that describe a specific section of a much broader system would facilitate the *rigorous* application of control theory. Primary control and secondary control are two such examples of this narrowed focus. These complementary ideas were developed by psychologists and offer researchers a

useful framework for uncovering important implications concerning newcomers' adaptation phenomena.

### 3.2.2 Primary control vs. secondary control

As we mentioned above, when individuals sense a discrepancy between their own referent standards and the environmental information, they will decide whether to modify the environment via some behaviors or to change their own referent standards. About thirty years ago, three psychology researchers (Rothbaum, Weisz, & Snyder, 1982) proposed two constructs—"primary control and secondary control"—to describe two strategies that individuals might employ in addressing such conflicts and discrepancies. The researchers' original definitions of these constructs are useful to consider. *Primary control* refers to traditional control, which the three psychology researchers defined as a strategy for "changing the world so that it fits the self's need" (Rothbaum et al., 1982, p. 8), or more specifically defined as a strategy where there is a "self as agent, the self's actions or behaviors as the means, and an effected change in the social or physical environment as the outcome" (Skinner, 1996, p. 558). The aim of primary control is to change or affect the external world so that it accommodates the self's needs or interests. In contrast, *secondary control* is defined as "adapting to the world" (Rothbaum et al., 1982, p. 8). The secondary control efforts are directed inward to align the self with existing circumstances.

Primary control has been widely discussed in the traditional literature on control. The purpose of primary control is to decrease the discrepancy (i.e., incompatible information) between individual referent standards and an environment through effects on the environment, hence changing the feedback information. An individual's possession of primary control increases the individual's sense of control through a "true" experience of control, namely, through an experience that teaches an important lesson: the individual has influenced and can influence the environment. Individuals intentionally strive to transform their environment into one that is more compatible with the individuals' goals. Such experiences are sometimes referred to as feelings of efficacy (White, 1959) or an experience of mastery (Harter, 1978). Most of the proactive behaviors discussed in socialization literature belong to this category.

Secondary control is another type of response to the discrepancy between a state desired by an individual and the environmental situation. Rothbaum et Al. (1982) analyzed the previous literature on control, and suggested that people do not always regain a sense of control through predicting, influencing, and controlling their social and physical environments (i.e., primary control); people sometimes flexibly adjust themselves to fit in with existing realities. In the control theories predating the 1980s, almost all researchers in the field linked each adjustment behavior and submission behavior to uncontrollability (e.g., Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Seligman, 1975). This link implies that individuals who perceive themselves to be helpless in a given situation are more likely to manifest inward behaviors such as passivity, withdrawal, compliance, conformity, and depression than are individuals who perceive themselves to be moderately in control of the situation (for reviews, see Lefcourt, 1976, 1980; Phares, 1976; Rothbaum, Wolfer, & Visintainer, 1979). However, Rothbaum et al. (1982) found that sometimes these behaviors might stem from individuals' positive efforts to sustain perceptions of control and compatibility. For example, individuals may adjust expectations to prevent disappointment, align with powerful others, and derive meaning from a frustrating situation. Rothbaum et al. (1982) propose the term "secondary control" to describe this kind of strategy. Since this construct first surfaced, many studies have been conducted on secondary control (e.g., Seginer, Trommsdorff, & Essau, 1993; Wrosch et al., 2000), and these studies have employed diverse samples, especially samples of people who face stress or frustrations, such as parents of high-risk infants (Afflect, Tennen, & Gershman, 1985), older adults (Bailis Chipperfield, & Perry, 2005), people with Parkinson's disease (McQuillen et al., 2003), pregnant women (Morling et al., 2003), homesick children (Thurber & Weisz, 1997), and middle-aged adults (Thompson et al., 1998). The results of these studies have consistently supported the positive function of secondary control strategy in stressful situations.

Because newcomers in organizations also face a stressful circumstance of low control, the above strategies in control literature should strengthen our understanding of newcomers' socialization processes.

### 3.3 New constructs and their definitions

#### 3.3.1 Definitions

In order to conceptualize newcomers' control strategies, I follow Rothbaum et al. (1982)'s original definitions and slightly adapt them so that they reflect, with sufficient clarity, the core of control theory. In my study, I define *newcomers' secondary control (NSC)* as a strategy that newcomers try to cognitively adjust their own referent criteria in order to decrease discrepancy between these criteria and the organizational environment. In contrast, I define *newcomers' primary control (NPC)* as a strategy that newcomers actively engage their environment in order to elevate the levels of their received favorable feedback, an outcome that would appear to decrease discrepancy between the newcomers' referent criteria and the organization situation at hand. There are several points in these definitions I would like to note.

First, my definitions of NPC and NSC concern individuals' response strategies, both of which function to reduce discrepancy between the self and an environment. What differentiates them from each other is that primary control is behavioral strategy functioning to affect an environment whereas secondary control is cognitive strategy functioning to change a self's referent values. "To affect an environment" means making influence on the environment, which in turn offers the individual favorable feedback. The environment itself may or may not be changed during the process. "To change a self's referent values" means a shift of the personal referent value to a different level or nature. The differences between Rothbaum et al. (1982)'s original definitions and my new definitions are also noteworthy. The original definition of 'primary control' emphasizes efforts to change environments, while I define 'primary control' in terms of efforts to affect environments for the purpose of changing the feedback information received by the agent in question. In my definition, the acquisition of greater levels of favorable feedback is the eventual purpose of primary control. Moreover, the original definition of 'secondary control' mentions only that the individual will adjust the self: the definition does not specify what is to be adjusted. My definition of 'newcomers' secondary control' identifies that its purpose lies in adjustments to one's internal referent standards.

Second, environment, referent criteria, and environmental feedback are three

important concepts that I use to define NPC and NSC. *Organizational environment* consists of an aggregation of organizational elements with which employees need to interact at work. For example, this type of environment may include such elements as organizational vision, values, goals, practice, policies, job descriptions, supervisors, and other colleagues. *Referent criteria* are standards against which one can assess environmental feedback. For organizational members, these referent criteria are goals that they are trying to achieve or maintain. A goal can derive from organizational members' background and can center on, for example, the salary or the emotional benefits that the organizational members are pursuing. In other cases, a goal can derive from an organization's demands, which organizational members encounter during their explorations there and which address, for example, the content and the quality of the members' task performance and contextual performance. *Environment feedback* is used as a general term here. It represents all forms of environment-based information that newcomers use to assess environmental situations, which the newcomers can also assess on the basis of personal referent criteria.

### 3.3.2 Dimensionality of NPC and NSC

Researchers have defined and used newcomers' primary-control and secondary-control strategies as two latent constructs manifested by broad constellations of actions (e.g., Rothbaum et al., 1986; Wrosch, Heckhausen, & Lachman, 2000; Hall, 2008). In my study, I follow Rothbaum et al. (1986)'s four-dimensional measure to define the dimensions of NPC and NSC. Rothbaum et al. (1986)'s four dimensions—predictive control, illusory control, vicarious control, and interpretive control—well represent the manifestations of primary-control and secondary-control strategies under four different attributions. Below, I explain each of them in the context of newcomers.

*Predictive control.* Newcomers sometimes attribute their frustration or an unpleasant situation to their own limited efforts or abilities. In this case, *primary predictive control* refers to situations where the newcomers use available resources not only to compensate for their perceived limited efforts or abilities but in turn to meet expected outcomes and to eliminate frustrations, as well. In the case of *secondary predictive control*, newcomers withhold expected active behaviors and

attempt to lower outcome-related expectations in order to promote a result consistent with the newcomers' limited abilities (as perceived by the newcomers themselves). For example, facing a new task during socialization, newcomers high in primary control may learn and practice as much as possible, consult experienced employees, and seek out other types of support until they are reasonably sure of success. In contrast, newcomers high in secondary control may avoid proactive efforts and may try to lower other individuals' expectations about outcomes according to the newcomers' current abilities (as perceived by the newcomers themselves).

*Illusory control.* Newcomers sometimes attribute frustration or an unpleasant situation to illusory factors such as chance. In this case, if newcomers attempt to influence apparently chance-determined outcomes through superstitious behaviors, they are practicing a *primary illusory control* strategy. Newcomers are practicing a *secondary illusory control* strategy if they attempt to adjust their cognition according to, for example, the proposition that people cannot influence chance, the proposition that chance is a property of an individual or an organization, or the proposition that chance is generally fair for everyone. Some points in case would involve newcomers who are assigned to perform a task that they dislike, to work with a supervisor whom they dislike, or to work at a job site that is far from home. Newcomers practicing a primary illusory control strategy may try to change the "bad luck" through some superstitious behaviors, whereas newcomers practicing a secondary illusory control strategy may just adjust their cognition and their expectation regarding their own luck.

*Vicarious control.* Newcomers sometimes attribute the determinant of an event to powerful others. "Powerful" here refers to other parties' ability to dominate resources and to influence others; indeed, the term can refer to any influential characteristics, such as vision, goal, value, and behavior. In this case, newcomers are practicing *primary vicarious control* if they, in seeking to share in powerful others' strengths or to affect related events, attempt to influence or to manipulate the powerful others, to initiate a relationship with them, or to imitate their power or ability. *Secondary vicarious control* refers to a type of situation where newcomers attempt to adjust their own opinions, values, and goals to decrease the discrepancy between powerful others and the self, as well as where newcomers identify with the powerful



others, submerge the self in a sense of self, and psychologically share attractive goals, visions, achievements, and values with the powerful others. For example, a newcomer may not like the types of interaction that characterize his or her relationship with a supervisor, leading to an early sense of frustration on the part of the newcomer. A newcomer who adopts a pronouncedly primary control strategy may harness some “influence tactics” to change the type of interaction preferred by the supervisor. If he or she adopts a set of practices akin to secondary control strategy, the newcomer may adjust his or her cognition about the “should be” type of supervisor-subordinate interaction and may even find advantages in embracing that type of interaction.

*Interpretive control.* Sometimes, newcomers in an organization find that a new frustrating situation is too obscure both to be attributable to any known factors and to stand in comparison with any referent standard. In this regard, *primary interpretive control* concerns newcomers who attempt to uncover the environmental or situational reasons for these problems so that the newcomers would be able to solve or otherwise master the problems in the future. Newcomers attempting to derive a positive understanding of a problem from their internal cognition so as to comprehend the problem fully are involved in *secondary interpretive control*.

In sum, two distinct global strategies—primary control and secondary control—are latent constructs, which are respectively manifested in four specific dimensional strategies (i.e., predictive control, illusory control, vicarious control, and interpretive control). From the above four dimensions, we can more clearly see the similarities and the differences between primary control and secondary control. The common goal of these two strategies is to decrease the discrepancy between individual standards and environmental situations. However, primary control is a behavioral strategy whose focus is exerting influence on an environment in order to elicit superior feedback; secondary control is a cognitive strategy whose focus is on adjusting one’s own internal referent standards. Primary control is outward adjustment, and secondary control is inward adjustment. In light of these different mechanisms and the special environments that newcomers face, the effects of primary and secondary control on socialization outcomes are obviously distinguishable. I will discuss their effects in detail in the next section. As both of the mechanisms are

latent factor constructs, my discussion will emphasize the construct level rather than extend into the dimensional level.

### **3.4 Outcomes of control mechanisms**

#### **3.4.1 Outcomes included in the current study**

As reviewed in Chapter 2, the most widely used outcomes to evaluate socialization processes include proximal outcomes such as task mastery, role clarification, group integration, and political knowledge, as well as distal outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, task performance, and turnover intention. And as I discussed, the proximal outcomes are very similar to the dimensions of socialization content (e.g., Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). They are sometimes used as direct evaluations of how well newcomers have acquired information that they are supposed to learn. The distal outcomes are those variables that may be influenced by complicated factors.

In my study, four forms of person-organization fit (P-O fit) are used as proximal outcomes of control mechanisms. I will discuss the reasons for using P-O fit immediately following this section. Performance and turnover intention serve as distal criteria for assessing various socialization processes from the view of organizations' concern. Prior studies have widely used these criteria as outcome variables of the socialization-learning perspective; therefore, one possible line of research would be to identify whether the new proposed mechanisms have additional power in explaining these two important outcomes. Finally, stress is also used as an outcome variable to evaluate socialization process. A new situation brings each newcomer a different degree of stress. A critical obstacle for newcomers' further socialization in an organization occurs when the newcomers experience adaptation stress resulting from the conflicts between individuals and the organization. Whether or not the adaptation stress would be relieved is an important criterion by which to evaluate newcomers' psychological health during socialization processes. Many people who feel that they have little hope of reducing uncertainty or reasserting control will experience a deterioration of their adaptation stress and are much more likely to develop feelings of helplessness and depression than are people who still have hope in this regard (Janis & Mann, 1977; Wortman & Dintzer, 1978). If their



job stress does not reach moderate levels, newcomers in a workplace would lack motivation (McGrath, 1976). So in addition to P-O fit, I include performance, turnover intention, and job stress as distal outcome variables to assess the consequences of control mechanisms.

### 3.4.2 P-O fit as a result of newcomers' dealing with incompatible information

P-O fit refers to the compatibility between people and organizations (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987). Among the terms relevant to my study, 'perfect-fit perception' means that incompatible information is either non-existent or squelched, insofar as people who have perfect-fit perception will process and diminish any incompatible information that appears in their sights. Although job applicants' and interviewers' decisions help inculcate P-O fit during organization entry, P-O fit is also able to evolve through socialization (Cable & Parsons, 2001). Transforming incompatible information into compatible information could improve P-O fit perception. Thus, P-O fit is obviously a good criterion for assessing the function of control mechanisms in socialization.

Researchers find that P-O fit perception consists of several different aspects, all of which are transformable during socialization. Kristof (1996) conceptualizes P-O fit as two approaches: supplementary fit (measured by values congruence and personality congruence) and need-supply fit (measured by work-environment congruence). Piasentin and Chapman (2006) identify four common definitions of P-O fit: (1) supplementary fit, where an individual possesses characteristics that are similar to existing organizational characteristics; (2) complementary fit, where an individual fills a void or adds something that is missing in the organization; (3) need-supply fit, where an organization fulfills an individual's needs; and (4) demands-abilities fit, where an individual's abilities meet the demands of the organization. Although these definitions should represent distinct ways of perceiving P-O fit theoretically, the dimensions have yet to be precisely defined or empirically tested. Piasentin and Chapman (2006) suggest that future research focus on clearly measuring different characteristics of fit (e.g., values, personality, goals) without confounding these characteristics in the same scale. In the current study, I define these four forms of fit in a more specific way and explain them in detail, as follows.

*Supplementary fit* refers to the similarities between an individual and other people in an organization regarding such characteristics as values, goals, and personalities. To form such a fit perception, an individual first searches for his or her own values and goals; in so doing, the individual ponders such issues as the purpose of work, the function of organizations, and the greatest good for organizations and for individuals. These personal values and goals are developed from an individual's growth experience, and now serve as this person's referent value in the formation of supplemental-fit perception. The feedback information comprises the values and goals held by an organization. After all, organizations convey their values and goals in such different forums as the content of newcomers' orientations, organizational practices, leaders' speeches, and the relationships among colleagues. Moreover, the personalities and the values of long-standing figures in an organization help define the organizational expectations applicable to newcomers. When newcomers receive the above information through whatever venue, they compare it with their own referent criteria and assess the extent of any discrepancy. The result is supplemental-fit perception.

*Complementary fit* refers to such characteristics of an individual as the knowledge, abilities, skills, views, and experiences that complement the characteristics of an organization. In other words, employees treat organizations as either being deficient or requiring a certain type of person in order to be effective. The weakness or need of the environment is offset by the strength of the individuals via their in-role or extra-role behaviors. Newcomers' successful efforts to fill in these voids bring these individuals a feeling that they possess valuable uniqueness, which is manifested by high levels of complementary fit. To form this fit perception, members of an organization must first identify the deficiencies or the needs of the organization, which serve as the referent criteria in a comparison of this type. These individuals also must acquire objective environment-based feedback comprising performance assessments and overall usefulness-to-organization assessments. Newcomers compares this information with the above referent criteria, and complementary-fit perception establishes itself.

Need-supply fit refers to an organization's fulfillment of individual members' needs. Members may have various needs, but in a given situation or stage, only some needs

are identified as salient ones by each individual. To form perceptions of need-supply fit, individuals first need to make clear what they want from work. Comparing these needs with what the organizational environment could actually supply, the individuals assess any discrepancy between needs and supplies: the smaller this discrepancy is, the stronger one's need-supply fit perception would be.

*Demand-ability fit* is the fourth form of P-O fit. It refers to situations where an individual's abilities and energy meet the demands of the organization. Abilities include individuals' skills, knowledge, and other competencies. Energy comprises chiefly time, physiological contributions, and psychological contributions that the person can draw upon to meet job demands. Some abilities, such as skills and knowledge, can grow with use and learning, whereas others, particularly mental and physical energy, decrease with use and must be replenished. Demands refer to quantitative and qualitative requirements placed on the person and can be objective (e.g., assembly-line speed, length of work day) or socially constructed (e.g., group norms, role expectations). Researchers suggest that, in either case, only demands that the person perceives can become a referent standard and elicit stress (French et al., 1982; McGrath, 1976). Thus, the core mechanism underlying demand-ability fit is individuals' cognitive comparisons of known referent job-demand criteria to environmental feedback about whether the individual's abilities can meet those demands.

In sum, these four forms of P-O fit describe four main aspects of compatibility between individuals and their respective organization. All of the forms take shape insofar as organizations' members conduct comparisons between individuals' internal referent criteria and environmental feedback. The differences among the forms lie in the different internal referent criteria that range from ones' values and needs to a given organization's assigned task goals and task roles. We could also consider these referent criteria as different goal levels that individuals try to achieve through their interaction with an organization. Newcomers, in particular, compare these criteria with corresponding feedback from the environment and, in turn, assess different forms of P-O fit. Given that different factors help shape perceptions of P-O fit perceptions, the antecedents of P-O fit may differ from case to case depending on what forms of fit are under discussion. However, few prior studies have joint

examined these four forms of fit. In the following section, I will illustrate how socialization mechanisms influence different forms of fit perception and other outcome variables.

### **3.5 Socialization content, newcomers' primary control (NPC), and newcomers' secondary control (NSC)—three parallel mechanisms in newcomer socialization**

As I have mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, both increases in compatible information and transformations of incompatible information into compatible information contribute to newcomers' adaptations and P-O fit perception. In this sense, uncertainty reduction by learning plays the former role; that is, increase of compatible information through learning. Moreover, primary control and secondary control play the latter role; that is, decrease of incompatible information through coping strategies. Thus, the function of the three parallel mechanisms could be summarized as in Figure 3-5-1.

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Insert Figure 3-5-1 about here  
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#### **3.5.1 Uncertainty reduction by learning**

Uncertainty reduction by learning has been extensively discussed in previous literature (e.g., Lester, 1987; Morrison, 1993a; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Chao, O' Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Haueter et al., 2003; Morrison, 1995). As I have reviewed in Chapter 2, the main argument concerning this mechanism is that reductions in newcomers' uncertainty and anxiety could take hold after newcomers acquire substantive information about their organization, their group within the organization, their own work role, their interpersonal relationships and abilities within the organization, and feedback about their performance. As uncertainty decreases, newcomers become more adept at performing their tasks, more satisfied with their job, and more likely to remain in their organization (Morrison, 1993a). Such learning will ease newcomers' anxiety about any insufficiency in their

ability and knowledge so that they can accomplish their work in the absence of both uncertainty and its derivative, stress. So I present the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 1a. Newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with task performance.*

*Hypothesis 1b. Newcomers' learnt socialization content is negatively related with newcomers' perception of job stress.*

From a control perspective, socialization content offers clear information about organizational goals, history, and visions. These two factors—knowledge and information—have not only the above hypothesized function, but also the important control-mechanism role of making referent standards available to an organization's members. Except for the few cases in which an organization hires newcomers for high-level positions, most newcomers, especially fresh graduates, have limited work experience and even have no clear career plans. These newcomers are highly concerned with building a situational definition of themselves (Katz, 1980). For many years, writers in personality theory have noted the link between socialization and the self-concept, suggesting that the emergence of situational and self-definitions are intertwined (see Hogan, 1976). A developing sense of “who one is” stems from a sense of “where one is” and “what is expected.” For those newcomers who previously lacked clear life plan, well-illustrated organizational values and goals offer a demarcated path forward and help to establish referent criteria of personal values and goals. Naturally, after undergoing such a socialization-learning process, most individuals would perceive little discrepancy between their “personal” values and organization's values. Therefore, newcomers are more likely to perceive high supplemental P-O fit:

*Hypothesis 1c. When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perceptions of supplemental P-O fit.*

Socialization content also includes specific job demands, performance criteria, work methods, and other task-related information. This information helps newcomers to set clear and specific work goals as the referent standards. Moreover, individuals

possessing high levels of task-related information are more likely than those possessing low levels to master or develop the skills necessary for meeting their organization's demands; consequently, newcomers should be able to improve demands-abilities P-O fit through acquiring more information and knowledge. Finally, because socialization could improve P-O fit and decrease stress, it should in total reduce leaving intention owing to the positive relationships between P-O fit and turnover intention and between stress and turnover intention (e.g., Allen, 2006; Wheeler et Al., 2007). Thus, I propose the following hypotheses:

*Hypothesis 1d. When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perceptions of demands-abilities P-O fit.*

*Hypothesis 1e. Newcomers' learnt socialization content is negatively related with newcomers' turnover intention.*

### 3.5.2 Effects of primary & secondary control strategies on P-O fit

#### 3.5.2.1 Assumptions

There are several assumptions underlying my theoretical model. One important assumption is about the rigidity and changeability of factors leading to P-O fit. As organizational members, newcomers face their respective organization's environmental demands, most of which are rigid. These environmental demands include explicit demands such as requirements for individuals' competence and performance, as well as implicit demands such as compliance with established values and norms in the organization. Admittedly, environment and individual characteristics vary from one case to another. For the sake of simplicity, I make the following assumptions about organizational environment according to the most common situations.

First, I assume that organizational goals, values, cultures, institutions, and conventions are generally rigid for newcomers. Except for a few cases in which newcomers receive appointment to high-level positions in an organizational structure, organizational environment for newcomers is very stable, especially in terms of such

historically established factors as organizational goals, values, cultures, institutions, and conventions. Second, I assume that job contracts, being set and agreed upon before newcomers' entry, leave little space for newcomers to negotiate with the organization regarding job demands and benefits, at least in the short term. Third, a rigid organizational environment does not mean that newcomers would be completely unable to shape their work environment. Newcomers could exert some influences on the immediate work environment by improving personal ability, by cooperating widely with others, by seeking information and help, and so on. According to Feldman and Brett (1983), newcomers may make the work environment more supportive and predictable, acquire or regain confidence in their job performance, and affirm or reaffirm their sense of personal control through such strategies as putting in longer hours, developing relevant skills, strengthening work procedures, subtly refining the job's general contours, and getting others to provide task help. On the basis of the above assumptions, I will discuss the relationships between two control strategies and four forms of P-O fit in the next section.

Given the existence of different levels and aspects of goals, we could expect that newcomers deal with discrepancies therein by using primary and secondary control simultaneously. For each discrepancy, a similar mechanism would enable newcomers to perceive information from their environment, compare the information with a referent value, and adopt a strategy best suited for dealing with the discrepancy. To study the effects of primary and secondary control on P-O fit, I used the principle of *ceteris paribus* in developing my hypotheses. When I discuss the effects of one type of control mechanism, I would keep the effect of the other mechanism constant. For example, when discussing the effects of primary control on one outcome variable, I would assume that the newcomer would not change his or her values and needs (i.e., secondary control is constant); likewise, when studying the effects of secondary control on an outcome variable, I would assume that the newcomer would not exert extra efforts to change the environment.

### 3.5.2.2 NPC/ NSC and Supplementary P-O Fit

Supplementary P-O fit refers to similarities between an organization's individual member and other members of the organization regarding such characteristics as



values, goals, and personalities. Upon perceiving value-related differences between themselves and either their organization or other people in the organization, newcomers would likely exhibit low supplementary P-O fit. In this case, the referent criterion is newcomers' own values, and in this regard, environmental feedback offers the newcomers information about organizational values. Perceiving a discrepancy, newcomers have to make a decision as to whether they would try to change their own values and goals or the organization's values and goals.

Newcomers who decide to use primary control would try their best to "correct" the values of other people in the organization. However, as the characteristics of an organization are very difficult to change, there is little room for changes to the values and goals of an organization, even in the case of a newcomer with high primary control. As a result, the current study does not hypothesize any relationship between primary control and supplementary fit.

Newcomers who decide to use secondary control to reduce discrepancies would try to accept the organization's values and goals and would reflect on and adjust their own values and goals. In a more general context, such changes have been described as a deep form of attitudinal change called internalization (Kelman, 1958).

'Internalization' is defined as people's adoption of values, attitudes, or regulatory structures, so that the external regulation of a behavior evolves into an internal regulation and thus no longer requires the presence of an external contingency (Ryan, Connell, & Deci, 1985). Therefore, individuals will become more and more of an "insider" relative to the organization, in effect decreasing original discrepancies between the individual and the organization and thus increasing supplemental P-O fit:

*Hypothesis 2. When original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' secondary control is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perception of their supplemental P-O fit.*

### 3.5.2.3 NPC/ NSC and Complementary P-O Fit

Complementary P-O fit concerns the extent to which such characteristics of an individual as knowledge, abilities, skills, views, and experiences could complement the characteristics of an organization. If newcomers are frustrated by the feeling that



they are ordinary and replaceable members (i.e., that they are of no unique value in the organization), their complementary P-O fit would be low. In this case, the referent criterion is organizational need, which is usually learnt during newcomers' socialization. Environmental feedback offers information about whether the organization treats newcomers as unique and competent when it comes to meeting organizational needs. For example, let us consider a company that plans to expand its market to several new countries in two years. Volunteer employees who can speak the primary languages in these countries and can understand their indigenous cultures would be highly valuable to the company. If a newcomer hopes to be such a highly valued member of the company but lacks related competencies, a discrepancy exists. Newcomers have to decide whether they will either accept as true the assertion *I am not the one who should fill this organizational-needs gap* or exert an effort to improve their own knowledge, skills, and abilities in meeting these needs.

In taking primary control, newcomers would use resources to improve their specialty, create opportunities to play an important role in team work, present their special skills and knowledge, build up relationships with powerful others, and get recognition from them. These proactive efforts could improve the newcomers' effectiveness at work and their importance in the group. They would be more likely to receive positive feedback about their unique value from the environment, which in turn could improve their complementary P-O fit:

*Hypothesis 3. When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' primary control is positively related with improvements in the newcomers' perception of their complementary P-O fit.*

If newcomers take secondary control, they would try to adjust their cognition about their roles in meeting organizational needs. Perhaps the chief adjustment of this kind would be for the newcomers to accept that they are not up to the task of filling in the gap and that they should just fulfill their in-role requirements. An alternative adjustment would be for the newcomers to identify other organizational needs that could serve as the newcomers' new referent criteria. Both approaches would not improve complementary P-O fit in the short term. The former cognition change could help newcomers accept the existence of a discrepancy rather than help them try to reduce it. The latter one would encourage newcomers to find their own unique

role in another niche that addresses organizational needs. Although the newcomers could likely find such a niche, those high in secondary control might encounter the same frustrations and withdraw from the scene. So I would not hypothesize any relationship between secondary control and complementary P-O fit.

#### 3.5.2.4 NPC/ NSC and Need-Supply P-O Fit

Need-supply P-O fit refers to the extent that an organization fulfills individuals' needs. If newcomers perceive that their organization's "supply" cannot satisfy their "need," the resulting discrepancy would cause low need-supply P-O fit. For example, a young insurance agent needs a stable basic salary to ensure his basic living. However, after his entry into his new workplace, he finds that he needs to meet frequently with his customers and that he has to use at least half of his monthly income to pay for the subsequent dinners and transportation. In this case, this newcomer's internal referent criterion centers on his needs that he expects his organization to meet in full. The environmental feedback is what the organization actually supplies. To deal with the discrepancy between need and supply, this agent—and newcomers in general—would have to decide whether they would take some action to get what they want or adjust their needs and expectations.

If newcomers take primary control, they would try to take some actions to increase the organizational supply. These actions might include negotiating with the organization or voicing opinions on important matters. However, newcomers would face considerable frustrations in this process because most important issues would have been discussed and agreed upon contractually prior to the newcomers' entry into the organization. It would be difficult to negotiate for post-entry modifications. Moreover, most exchanges between an employee and an organization take place through long-term exchanges between a supervisor and the subordinate employee. During the socialization period, it would be difficult for a newcomer to change the supplies offered by the organization. So I do not hypothesize any relationship between primary control and need-supply P-O fit.

In contrast, if newcomers adopt a secondary control strategy, they would accept their current situation as it is and go back to adjusting their own referent criteria of needs. Park and Folkman (1997) noted several types of secondary-control changes: for

instance, individuals could change their own perspective on adversity or could enhance their own understanding of events. If newcomers adopt a secondary control strategy during their socialization, they are more willing to try to understand current limitations from the organization's point of view and to adjust their expectations and desires. With these adjustments in place, newcomers would perceive less discrepancy between their needs and the organization's supplies, hence strengthening the need-supply P-O fit:

*Hypothesis 4. When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' secondary control is positively related with improvement in the newcomers' perception of their need-supply P-O fit their need-supply P-O fit.*

### 3.5.2.5 NPC/ NSC and Demand-Ability P-O Fit

Demand-ability P-O fit concerns the extent to which an individual's abilities and energy meet the demands of an organization. Newcomers who perceive a discrepancy between a job demand and their own abilities would experience low demands-abilities P-O fit. In the formation of demand-ability P-O fit, the internal referent criteria are job demands and work goals that newcomers learn from a job description or from senior colleagues. The feedback usually comes from newcomers' supervisors and other colleagues, indicating how well the newcomers accomplish what they are required to do. If the feedback suggests that newcomers are incompetent in accomplishing a job requirement, a discrepancy appears. To deal with the discrepancy, newcomers could either improve their abilities in order to get better feedback or change their cognition about the job demand, essentially redefining or demarcating their role boundaries by themselves so that there is a downward shift in their cognition about the job demand.

If newcomers take primary control, they would not change their referent criterion—the job demand set by the organization. To compensate for their own incompetence, they would make use of resources and work hard to develop the necessary abilities. With these efforts in play, the newcomers would be more likely to gradually meet the job demand in question and to eventually get better feedback, two outcomes that would, in turn, decrease the discrepancy between job demand and ability. Thus, I present the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 5. When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' primary control is positively related with improvements in the newcomers' perception of their demand-ability P-O fit.*

If newcomers take secondary control, they would accept their current limited ability and try to cognitively redefine their work requirement and role boundary so that they might reduce the discrepancy as it exists in the newcomers' cognitions. However, most organizations and supervisors therein try to convey the job demands clearly and to set specific work goal, so newcomers would find it difficult to cognitively adjust these criteria. In the end, newcomers might be able only to accept rather than reduce the discrepancy. Therefore, I expect that secondary control is not helpful in improving newcomers' demand-ability P-O fit.

### 3.5.3 Effects of NPC & NSC on performance and stress

At this point, it is useful to consider the effects of NPC and NSC on performance and stress together in this section because performance and stress are general indicators of adjustment and result from similar mechanisms in newcomer contexts. First, newcomers' performance improvement is an indicator of their relatively smooth adaptation to their novel work setting (Anderson & Thomas's, 1996). Second, newcomers' stress results mainly from their maladjustment to the new tasks (Nelson, 1987), so the stress indicates a simmering problem in the adjustment phase. Although research has found an association between employees' stress and withdrawal behaviors, lower job performance, and occupational morbidity (cf., Jamal, 1984; Levi, 1990), there is almost no study empirically examining the effects of socialization on this important psychological health indicator.

From a control perspective, primary or secondary control strategy comes into play when newcomers sense a discrepancy between their organization's performance-related expectations of the newcomers and actual performance. This discrepancy is also the main source of stress (Nelson, 1987). Successfully coping with the discrepancy may relieve newcomers' stress. To deal with the discrepancy in performance, newcomers could adopt a primary or a secondary control strategy, with the former constituting a behavioral response and the latter constituting a cognitive response.

If newcomers use primary control, they would take actions to improve their own abilities and would seek out resources necessary for enhancing any less-than-satisfactory performance. During this process, the newcomers would have very clear goals. Goal-oriented theory suggests that behaviors with specific challenging goals help strengthen effective behaviors (Locke, 1968, 1970). Individuals with such specific goals are also better at managing their own behavior and controlling individual outcomes (Sorkin & Rook, 2004). With specific goals and well-planned actions, these individuals could get more information, feedback, support, and other resources than would otherwise be the case, thereby increasing the possibility that they might successfully accomplish tasks. Thus, these newcomers would be more likely to improve their task performance.

However, using too much high primary control can negatively affect performance. First, as we have discussed, newcomers are a group of employees who have low actual power in their organization. The newcomers with high primary control insist on their own goals, views, needs, aspirations, and expectations. Studies show that if those in low-control circumstances rely mainly on primary control, they would be very likely to become prime candidates for perceived uncontrollability and helplessness (Rothbaum et al., 1982, Chipperfield et al., 1999), which will in turn hamper their performance. Furthermore, in interpersonal relationships, a partner who relies completely on primary control may be perceived by his/her partners as over-controlling, and conflict may be more likely to result (Shapiro & Shapiro, 1979). Problematic relationships not only lower contextual performance, but also weaken support from other colleagues. Thus, different from the simple linear relationship between primary control and ability-demand fit, where ability is only about personal ability and energy, the relationship between primary control and supervisor-rated performance is highly complicated because it involves cooperation with others. I expect that, in situations where newcomers rely heavily on primary control strategy, their performance will first grow stronger and then grow weaker, and accordingly, job stress will first decrease and then increase.

*Hypothesis 6. The relationship between newcomers' primary control and their task performance has an inverted U-shape.*

*Hypothesis 7. The relationship between newcomers' primary control and their job*

*stress is U-shaped.*

If newcomers take secondary control, they are adopting a cognitive response to performance discrepancy. This strategy may take the form of changes in goal commitment, changes in goal level, or changes in the goal itself (Campion & Lord, 1982; Taylor et al., 1984). Individuals who use secondary control reflect on previous expectations and attributions, thereby enhancing the likelihood that expectations will drop (Taylor et al., 1984). In the organizations that convey performance expectations clearly, it would be difficult for newcomers to cognitively change these criteria. So the current study does not hypothesize any relationship between secondary control and performance. However, newcomers' acceptance of discrepancy could help to relieve stress. Psychology studies consistently find that secondary control could relieve individuals' psychological tension and could help individuals face stressful situations with a positive attitude: these studies' samples cover such varied groupings of people as HIV+ patients (Thompson et al., 1994), college students (Connor-Smith & Compas, 2004), older adults (Heckhausen, 1997), and boys at summer camp (Thurber and Weisz, 1997a). Similarly, I propose the following hypothesis for newcomers, who are also under special pressure during socialization:

*Hypothesis 8. Newcomers' secondary control is negatively related with their work stress.*

#### 3.5.4 Effects of NPC & NSC on turnover intention

As discussed above, primary control—before increasing to a certain level—could improve demand-ability P-O fit, complementary P-O fit, and task performance, in turn decreasing turnover intention (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However, newcomers' overuse of primary control would likely cause complicated consequences. Since users of primary control strategy are aiming for mastery of their environment, overuse of this strategy would be aggressive and sometimes offensive to others. Studies on different groups of people have identified an association between primary control strategy and interpersonal-relationship problems, such as increased depression caused by relationships (Lackovic-Grgin, Grgin, Penezic, & Soric, 2001), alienation and loneliness (Weisz, Rothbaum, & Blackburn, 1984), anxiety (Shapiro & Shapiro, 1979),



and self-blame (Shapiro, Schwartz, & Astin, 1996). Previous studies on interpersonal relationships also offer evidence that overuse of primary control is dysfunctional for mutually satisfying relationships and that individuals using primary control would be more likely than alternative sample members to interrupt and direct a conversation with others (e.g., Burger, 1992; Thompson, Cheek, & Graham, 1998). The above interpersonal problems would prevent newcomers from integrating into a given community within the organization and, hence, could weaken the newcomers' embeddedness in the organization. Thus, I expect that with increases in primary control, turnover intention may first decrease because primary control increases demands-abilities P-O fit, complementary P-O fit and task performance. But upon exceeding the moderate level, primary control would be positively related to turnover intention because of the weakening newcomer-colleague link, which results in low embeddedness and high turnover intention (Mitchell et Al., 2001):

*Hypothesis 9. The relationship between newcomers' primary control and turnover intention has a U-shape.*

According to hypotheses 2, 4, and 8, secondary control strategy may increase both perceptions of supplementary P-O fit and perceptions of need-supply P-O fit while relieving work stress. Previous studies have shown that higher P-O fit decreases members' intention to leave an organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and that stress is highly correlated to this same intention (e.g., Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1998). This evidence implies that secondary control should play a role in decreasing newcomers' intention to leave.

*Hypothesis 10. Newcomers' secondary control is negatively related with their turnover intention.*

Till now, the current study has identified three mechanisms that are theoretically independent from each other. A possible challenge to my proposed model is the issue of whether this model should treat learning content, primary control, and secondary control as parallel paths insofar as the three factors follow a temporal sequence. I argue that these three mechanisms could come into play simultaneously because newcomers would need to receive and process different information at the same time in the new environment. On the one hand, they would need to learn and

acquire new information from the environment, and on the other hand, they would need to store the compatible information and deal with the incompatible information. These three processes are simultaneous and distinguishable, and directly contribute to the adaptation outcomes respectively. So we need to examine them as parallel mechanisms. In order to further understand how these mechanisms are activated, let's consider the possible antecedents to these three mechanisms in the next section.

### **3.6 Exploration of the three mechanisms' antecedents**

#### **3.6.1 Antecedents of the socialization-content process**

Drawing on prior studies, I will first replicate the established findings of the relationship between organizational-socialization tactics and newcomers' uncertainty reduction by learning. Researchers consider organizational socialization tactics to be the most important organizational antecedent for newcomers' adaptation outcomes. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) originally proposed six different socialization tactics to describe organizational socialization tactics, and these tactics later underwent a simplification resulting in Jones (1986)'s single dimension *extent of institutionalization*. High levels of institutionalization refer to organizational practices that present themselves as a systematic set of activities. Firms that use highly institutionalized socialization tactics may help new employees reduce ambiguity by offering them a common set of learning experiences and off-the-job training, rather than force new employees to "sink or swim" on the new job and expose each of them to unique experiences. This whole process helps newcomers better adapt to the new environment by offering them sufficient and systematic information. In my study, I will replicate Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks (2007)'s proposition to substantiate the underlying mechanism—as argued by most researchers—of socialization tactics (i.e., uncertainty reduction by learning). Hypothesis 11 serves to directly test the relationship between socialization tactics and socialization content.

*Hypothesis 11. The extent to which organization-socialization tactics are institutionalized is positively related with newcomers' learnt socialization content.*



### 3.6.2 Organizational factor as an activator of primary and secondary controls

Another goal of the present study is to explore whether organizational factors may shape newcomers' coping strategy during socialization. As discussed above, the purpose of primary and secondary controls is to reduce the discrepancies between individuals and their environment, because the discrepancies threaten one's sense of control in the new environment. Socialization is a process during which newcomers assess their environment and their relationship with the given organization in order to decide how they should cope with the discrepancies between themselves and the environment. Because few study on socialization discuss the early developmental period of employee-organization relationships, studies on interpersonal-relationship development may yield helpful implications.

In psychology, there is a theory describing a period of interpersonal relationships similar to a period in which newcomers' enter into a relationship with their respective organization. Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973, 1988) focuses on the earliest stage of interpersonal-relationship development. The theory was originally developed to describe relationships between infants and their mothers, and was later applied to relationships between adults. In attachment theory, *attachment behavior* refers to individuals' efforts to achieve physical or psychological contact with attachment figures. According to Bowlby (1969, 1980), the natural goal of the attachment behavior is to increase a person's sense of security—a sense that the world is a safe place, that one can rely on others for protection and support, and that one can confidently explore the environment and engage in social and nonsocial tasks and activities without fear of damage.

Some researchers explain attachment behaviors from a control perspective. If individuals perceive that the environment is secure and on the right track, they need not either be terribly sensitive to changes in the environment or strive for a sense of personal control (Main, 1990; Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, & Fleming, 1993). In this case, a sense of environmental security is a substitute for the individual's need for a sense of personal control.

Bowlby (1973, 1988) found that, starting during infancy, repeated interactions between an infant and his or her caregiver(s) give rise to expectations and beliefs

about the self and the attachment figure(s). Individuals who experience attachment figures as available, sensitive, and appropriately responsive develop a positive view of others and the self. They expect others to be available and willing to provide support, and such expectations restore a sense of felt security during times of emotional distress. Moreover, they perceive that the self is worthy of assistance, affection, and love (Bowlby, 1969, 1988). Positive views of the self and others reflect attachment security, and negative views of the self or others reflect insecurity. The attached figure who helps individuals to create a positive view about the world and the self serves as a *secure base* (Bowlby, 1973).

According to Bowlby (1973), a secure base is very important because it shapes the attachment style and determines individuals' choice of particular coping strategies for dealing with stress. With a secure base, the security attachment is easy to form, thus helping the individuals to successfully cope with life adversities. These individuals' typical coping strategies in dealing with distress are acknowledging it, enacting instrumental constructive actions, and turning to others for emotional and instrumental support (Bowlby, 1988; Kobak & Sceery, 1988; Shaver & Hazan, 1993). They are more tolerant of stressful events and allow themselves to access unpleasant emotions without being overwhelmed by the resulting distress. Pistole (1989)'s study on individuals' behaviors in conflicts reveals that secure individuals use relatively constructive strategies that reflect a concern for all the parties' opinions and for maintaining a beleaguered relationship in a given conflict. These strategies are very similar to what we label high "secondary control" and a moderate level of "primary control."

On the opposite end of the spectrum, individuals who cannot perceive a secure base tend to develop insecure attachment styles. Some of these individuals tend to deal with stressful events by directing attention toward distress in a hypervigilant manner, by mentally ruminating on negative thoughts, memories, and affect, and by not trusting their attached figures (Kobak & Sceery, 1988; Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995; Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Some others may deal with a stressful event by restricting their acknowledgement of distress and by adopting what Bowlby (1973) labels "compulsive self-reliance" (Shaver & Hazan, 1993). For example, Pistole (1989) found that insecure individuals reported not only little use of compromise but indeed a

likeliness to oblige a partner during conflict. These strategies are very similar to what we label extremely high “primary control” and extremely low “primary control,” as well as low “secondary control.”

By an analogy, I expect that the development of relationships between newcomers and their organization may go through processes similar to the ones described above, and that newcomers’ attachment style is also shaped by organizational environment. In other words, whether or not an organization can serve as a secure base may determine the strategies that newcomer will adopt in their socialization there. This scenario is easy to understand from a control perspective. Individuals must stay sensitive to any discrepancy between the self and their environment because they must stay secure while living and developing in the environment (Wiener’s, 1948). However, if they know that the whole environment is secure, they will lower their sensitivity and adopt reflective rather than aggressive approaches to dealing with discrepancies that might arise. Studies on therapeutic interventions in cases of abnormal attachment offer some implications for our analysis in this regard. The main idea is that therapists could function as a new secure base where the clients could feel safe to reflect on his or her previous views about interpersonal relationships, explore his or her own problems, and try to develop new views. Once a new attachment style is gradually formed, the clients’ behaviors and coping strategies in periods of stress will change accordingly. Some empirical studies have supported the effectiveness of such processes (e.g., Levy et al., 2006; Travis, Bliwise, Binder, & Horne-Moyer, 2001).

The main characteristics of a secure base are four-fold (Bowlby, 2005): first, the client might observe encouraging therapy results and experience a good relationship with the therapist; second, the length of the therapy might be long enough to imply a lasting relationship; third, there are frequent interactions between therapists and their respective clients; and fourth, the client perceives full acceptance and emotional care from the therapist. Similarly, we expect that an organization serving as a secure base for newcomers should have the following characteristics (reflecting my operationalization of the *organizational secure base*): first, the organization should offer newcomers a hopeful vision; second, newcomers should be able to expect a sufficiently long relationship with their organization—that is, the expected contract length; third, there should be frequent interactions between newcomers and their

leaders, new colleagues, and other experienced employees; and finally, newcomers should be able to perceive that they have received both complete acceptance from the organization and emotional care by other organizational members.

According to research on attachment behaviors, the sense of attachment security enhances well-being, promotes effective support-seeking in times of need, sustains positive views of the self and others, promotes curiosity, openness, and exploration, and fosters interaction goals organized around closeness and interdependence (e.g., Collins & Read, 1994; Mikulincer & Florian, 2001; Shaver & Hazan, 1993). Thus, we expect a similar response from newcomers in an organizational setting. If they perceive an organization as possessing many characteristics typical of the secure base described above, the newcomers will be more likely to develop a secure attachment in their relationship with the organization. With a secure attachment, newcomers would be glad to explore the new environment, learn new knowledge, develop necessary skills, and concentrate on their tasks. They also would tend to accept the current self-organization situation, to deal constructively with the conflict, to trust the organization's decisions and visions, to adjust the self's aspirations for the sake of maintaining a good relationship with the organization, and to rely on the organization and other employees there when facing frustrations. All of these strategies could be summarized as high secondary control and moderate primary control. In contrast, newcomers who perceive an organization to be an insecure base are more likely than their peers to develop an insecure attachment to the organization. With such an insecure attachment, newcomers find it difficult to accept the organization's current situation, to concentrate on their work, and to explore the new environment. These newcomers tend to use aggressive strategies in dealing with conflicts with the organization or with other employees; and in general, they are either over-compliant or over-dominant in organization-based relationships. Finally, they are more likely to withdraw from organizational communities and to leave the organization entirely. Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

*H 12. The extent to which an organization serves as a security base positively influences newcomers' adoption of secondary control strategies.*

*H 13. The relationship between a security base and primary control has a U-shaped curve with its opening on the left. Specifically, the extent to which an*

*organization serves as a security base affects the extent to which newcomers' adoption of primary control strategies is high or low: the stronger the security-base role is, the more likely newcomers will be to adopt a primary control strategy at a moderate level.*

### **3.7 Chapter summary and full theoretical model**

In this chapter, I identify the research gap in socialization literature by first challenging several important assumptions in previous studies. Whereas previous studies have rested on the assumption that “the more information newcomers have, the better off they will be,” I categorize information into compatible information and incompatible information. Given that information has different functions in newcomers' socialization, it is obvious that previous perspectives of “uncertainty reduction by learning” deal only with the aspect of compatible information. In order to explain how newcomers deal with incompatible information, I introduce the idea of control theory and use the control perspective to examine newcomers' adaptation processes. In the current study, I have used primary control and secondary control to describe newcomers' two different strategies in dealing with the discrepancies between individuals and their organization. I propose that, regarding newcomers' socialization processes, primary control and secondary control are two independent mechanisms running parallel with the “uncertainty reduction by learning” mechanism. I compare the conceptual differences among socialization content learning, primary control and secondary control and argue that they manifest themselves in different socialization outcomes. On the basis of the theoretical argument from URT perspective and control perspective, I have proposed a series of hypotheses concerning the influences of these three mechanisms on P-O fit perception, task performance, job-stress perception, and turnover intention. Finally, I explore the possible main antecedents of these three mechanisms and propose an organizational secure base that serves as an important organizational factor activating different coping strategies. Figure 3-7-1 summarizes the 13 hypotheses in a full theoretical model. Appendix A summarizes all hypotheses proposed in this chapter.

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Insert Figure 3-7-1 about here  
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## CHAPTER 4

### STUDY ONE: SCALE DEVELOPMENT

In Chapter 3, I have drawn on secondary control theory to propose two new mechanisms that run parallel with the previous “uncertainty reduction by learning” perspective, and the purpose of this proposal has been to explain the mechanisms underlying newcomers’ socialization processes. Chapter 3 has proposed different antecedents and consequences of the three mechanisms—uncertainty reduction by learning, primary control, and secondary control. To test the newly developed theoretical framework and the hypotheses, it is necessary in the current chapter to develop valid measures for the new constructs in the theory. Thus, there are two primary purposes in study one. The first objective is to develop self-report scales that could easily measure primary control and secondary control at the workplace. The scales will serve to uncover systematic variability in these constructs among individuals in an organizational context. The second objective is to assess the reliability and validity of these scales by examining their internal consistency and their relationships with other theoretically related criteria variables.

#### 4.1 A partial nomological network of NPC and NSC

Study one uses a partial nomological network of NPC and NSC (Figure 4-1-1) to examine the construct validity of the new measures. The network covers the main outcomes of NPC and NSC proposed in my theoretical model. I hypothesize that NPC is positively associated with complementary P-O fit and demand-ability P-O fit. The relationship between primary control and stress is U-shaped. The relationship between primary control and turnover intention is U-shaped. I hypothesize that NSC is positively associated with supplementary P-O fit and need-supply P-O fit, and is negatively associated with stress.

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Insert Figure 4-1-1 about here  
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## 4.2 Development of items for NPC and NSC

I went through 53 studies in various areas summarized in Morling and Evered (2006)'s paper and reviewed how they operationalized secondary control in different contexts. All of these studies paraphrase the original definition of secondary control in Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982)'s paper, with slight changes according to the different research questions. Morling and Evered (2006) have suggested that secondary control should consist of two necessary components: adjusting the self and accepting the environment. These two components are also included in my definition. However, most previous measures emphasize only one of the two components. Only 13 of the 53 studies include both components in their measures. In most studies on a specific context, researchers use several specific questions to measure secondary control, but do not distinguish different dimensions. For example, in Grootenhuis et al. (1996)'s study on Dutch parents of children with cancer, the sample items are "I consider the future of my child to be on the bright side," "The best physicians you can have are working at the hospital," and "If I strongly believe that the illness won't come back, it won't." These measures are enlightening but inapplicable to the newcomers' context.

Among the measures of secondary control in various areas, while most studies employ Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982)'s definition, only Essau and Trommsdorff (1996)'s Primary-Secondary Control Questionnaire (PSCQ) was developed on the basis of Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982)'s original four dimensions. Thus, I used Essau and Trommsdorff (1996)'s scale as a basis on which to develop my measures. I employed both deductive and inductive methods to develop measures for primary and secondary control under an organizational context. The specific steps are as follow.

First, I picked up the items that were applicable to the organizational context and directly adapted them to work-related expressions. For example, I changed the original item "*My failure or hardship helps me learn more about life*" into a new item: "*My frustration or hardship in this organization helps me learn more and grow here.*" Eighteen items were selected in this way.

Second, for those items that were not applicable, I replaced them with work-related



items that had an equivalent function. In order to collect the usable items, I went to a bank in Shenzhen and conducted in-depth interviews with seven newcomers who had been there within the preceding two months and who had been assigned to one of four different departments. At the beginning of each interview, I asked the newcomer, “If you have found anything here different from what you would have expected before or what you learned in school, do you want to change these things or do you accept them and adjust yourself contentedly to these differences?” Three of the interviewees said that they would accept the unexpected situation and would adjust themselves; the other four said that they would try to change the situations but could accept them if no change took place. According to my definitions, the first three newcomers’ strategy falls chiefly into the “secondary control” strategy whereas the remaining four newcomers’ strategy falls chiefly into the “primary control” strategy. Then I asked each of the interviewees in detail about how they would deal with the kinds of conflicts and frustrations that would surface in each of the four different situations (i.e., the four dimensions of primary control and of secondary control). I recorded and coded the content after each interview. Further, I placed the items shared by at least two newcomers into my item pool. The in-depth interview resulted in 29 items. A sample item of primary control is “*If some skills are required in an assignment, I will practice them many times in advance in order to enhance the possibility of success.*” A sample item of secondary control is “*I trust in my supervisors, and it is reasonable to obey their decisions, which typically turn out to be reliable.*” I deleted nine replicated items that had been included in step one, and thus got 20 new items.

The above two steps generated 38 original items in total, including 21 items for secondary control and 17 items for primary control, with between 4 and 6 items for each dimension. They are listed in Appendix 4-2-1.

### **4.3 Participants and procedures**

Participants of study one were 81 final-year students at the “hospitality & tourism management” department in a university of Taiwan. As a necessary part of their program, these students entered different hotels in February of 2009 for their 1-year internship. We conducted this survey when they came back to their university for a meeting in the fourth month of internship (i.e., June 2009). Students ranged in age

from 20 to 26 years old ( $M = 21.04$ ,  $SD = 1.10$ ), and 81% were female.

Questionnaires were administered to students before their meeting in the classroom.

#### **4.4 Construct measures**

To test the constructs in the partial nomological network of primary control and of secondary control, I included four forms of P-O fit, work stress, and turnover intention in the survey. To test the theoretical differences among the established mechanism “uncertainty reduction by learning” and the newly proposed mechanisms of primary control and of secondary control, I have also included the socialization-content scale.

I measured *supplementary P-O fit* and *complementary P-O fit* according to Piasentin and Chapman (2007)’s 9-item scale and 8-item scale. I measured *demand-ability P-O fit* and *need-supply P-O fit* according to Cable and Derue (2002)’s 6-item scale. I measured *work stress* according to House and Rizzo (1972)’s measure. Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979)’s scale served to measure *turnover intention*. Finally, *socialization content learning* was measured according to Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner (1994)’s 7-dimension scale. I invited two graduate students majoring in English to help translate and back-translate all the scales. I compared the translations with one another and conducted the final revision of the translations.

#### **4.5 Statistical procedures**

I conducted all analyses using SPSS, except for the confirmatory factor analysis, which rested on LISREL. In all analyses, participants with missing data were excluded.

Homogeneity of dimensions was determined according to two parameters. First, I investigated internal consistency by computing Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of each dimension. Owing to the relatively small number of items per dimension (i.e., five or six), an alpha coefficient of at least .70 was acceptable (Cortina, 1993). Second, I tested the four-dimensional structure of each construct and the differences between NPC and NSC using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In my theoretical model,

both NPC and NSC consist of four first-order factors, and the measure of each first-order factor rests on four or five items. So that the factor structure remained conceptually clean, no cross-loadings were allowed. The fit indices were examined with the following criteria:  $\chi^2/df$  ratio (good fit  $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$ ; acceptable fit  $2 < \chi^2/df \leq 3$ ), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; good fit  $0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$ ; acceptable fit  $.05 < RMSEA \leq .1$ ) (Steiger, 1990), comparative fit index (CFI; good fit  $.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$ ; acceptable fit  $.90 \leq CFI < .97$ ), and non-normed fit index (NNFI; good fit  $.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$ ; acceptable fit  $.90 \leq CFI < .97$ ).

## 4.6 Results

### 4.6.1 Homogeneity of facets

Both primary control and secondary control are defined here as latent multidimensional constructs with four dimensions. The eight facets for primary control and secondary control exhibited an acceptable-to-high level of homogeneity. As shown in Table 4-6-1, alpha coefficients ranged from .66 to .89, with a median of .81. The results of CFA were marginal. Specifically,  $\chi^2/df = 1.7$  indicated a good fit, but  $RMSEA = .09$ ,  $CFI = .77$ , and  $NNFI = .80$  were all poor fits. I thought that two reasons might explain the unsatisfactory fit. The first reason is the small sample size ( $n = 81$ ), and the other reason concerns the fact that the content of some items might be problematic and, consequently, might be in need of revision before further study could take place.

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Insert Table 4-6-1 about here

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Since the CFA results were not very good, I conducted an exploratory factor analysis on the same data to check which items might be problematic. The items and their factor loadings are reported in Table 4-6-2 and Table 4-6-3. In the Secondary Control Scale, most items were loaded on the proposed factors, except for the one

item loaded on a wrong dimension and the three items loaded on a separate factor. By double-checking through these items, I found that three of them referred to personal faith. Although faith is a source of secondary control, its varied meanings in East Asian culture would differ considerably from the no less varied meanings that faith takes on in the Western world. In order to avoid misunderstanding, I used a more culture-free set of items for substitution in the main study. In the following analysis of the pilot study, I will exclude these three items (SC-v6, in1, in3) from the scale. As for the fourth item, which loaded on a wrong dimension, I temporarily kept it. (In further study, I will revise the content to make it more relevant to the dimensions.) In the Primary Control Scale, four items have cross loadings whose content require further confirmation.

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Insert Table 4-6-2 about here

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Insert Table 4-6-3 about here

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#### 4.6.2 Evidence of construct validity in the preliminary nomological network

As the measurement models needed further refinement, I used SPSS to test the general pattern of the nomological network. I tested hypotheses using internship students' self-reports on the scales of organizational secure bases, socialization content, primary control, secondary control, P-O fit, job stress, and turnover intention.

Table 4-6-4 presents all the correlations among variables. Tables 4-6-5a~c present the regression results for each of the dependant variables. As I hypothesized, socialization content, primary control, and secondary control differ from one another regarding their respective effects on outcomes (after age, sex, and job satisfaction are controlled for). Specifically, socialization content was positively related to all of

four forms of P-O fit ( $.21 < \beta < .59$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Primary control was positively related to complementary P-O fit ( $\beta = .27$ ,  $p < .05$ ), but had no effect on demand-ability P-O fit. Secondary control was positively related to both supplementary P-O fit ( $\beta = .61$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and needs-supplies P-O fit ( $\beta = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ). As for job stress, results are also consistent with what I hypothesized: secondary control was negatively related to job stress ( $\beta = -.25$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, the results are inconsistent with the hypothesized U-shaped relationships between primary control and stress and between primary control and turnover intention. There is also one unexpected result in the supplementary P-O fit. The relationship between socialization content and supplementary P-O fit disappeared when the secondary control was included in the model. This curious result means that the covariance between socialization content and supplementary P-O fit overlapped with the covariance between secondary control and supplementary P-O fit. I will discuss the possible reason for this overlapping in the discussion chapter.

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Insert Table 4-6-4 about here

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Insert Table 4-6-5 a~c about here

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#### **4.7 Chapter summary and scale revision**

In Chapter 4, I developed a preliminary scale to measure primary control and secondary control. I developed the scale according to a mixed method featuring inductive and conductive approaches. On the one hand, I developed the items on the

basis of Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982)'s original four-dimension operationalization for primary control and secondary control, and used Essau and Trommsdorff (1996)'s general measure (Primary-Secondary Control Questionnaire, PSCQ) as a main reference for writing up the items. On the other hand, I collected more organization-relevant items by conducting in-depth interviews of seven new employees.

After generating a 38-item preliminary scale, I conducted a pilot study to validate the scale by examining its internal consistency and its partial nomological network. While results of internal consistency and CFA were marginally acceptable and implied the need for further revision, the nomological network is basically good. So one can reasonably suggest that when the reliability of the measures is enhanced, the relationship pattern in a nomological network should be even better. This relationship means that further revision and further validation are worthy pursuits. Thus, by a careful check of the items' content, I made the following changes on the preliminary scale for further validation:

SC-predictive item 3: Because the old item did not clearly state the content of self-adjustment, I used "*I prepare myself by learning about possible difficulties, failures, and problems before conducting a task*" to replace the old item "*When uncertain about how to conduct my work, I would turn to others for clear explanations in order to avoid mistakes.*" SC-vicarious item 6: Because the old item is about personal faith, whose various meanings differ from those in the West. By consulting the opinions of some interviewed Chinese employees, I determined that the item about faith is not applicable to most people. So I use "*When encountering difficulties, I would feel at ease in sharing the trouble with my superiors and colleagues*" to replace the old item "*When encountering difficulties, I would rely on my faith to share my experience with other people and would feel at peace.*"

SC-interpretive item 1: I use "*The setbacks or sufferings that I have experienced at work have made me more mature and stronger*" to replace the old item "*The setbacks or sufferings that I have experienced at work have helped me strengthen my life beliefs (or my faith).*" The reason for this substitution is the same as the one proposed for SC-vicarious item 6.

SC-interpretive item 3: I use “*In the long run for my job responsibilities, the setbacks that I encounter at work are helpful to me*” to replace the old item “*I believe that the frustrations I encounter are arranged by what I have faith in (e.g., God, Buddha, or Fate).*” The reason for this substitution is the same as the reason for the substitution in SC-vicarious item 6.



## CHAPTER 5

### STUDY TWO: THEORY TESTING

Given that socialization is a process, the current study's line of research has focused on newcomer changes through the adaptation period. Therefore, I conducted a longitudinal study with multiple data sources to test the hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3. The current chapter discusses the sample, procedures, measures, statistical analysis, and the results.

#### 5.1 Sample

Data was collected from three different data sources. The primary operational activities of these organizations comprised insurance and education. All of the newcomers entered their organizations within the period from August to October of 2009. The first sample comprised 42 newcomers of an insurance company in Hong Kong. The second sample comprised 34 university students from mainland China who had graduated from college and had started their job in the fall of 2009. The third sample comprised 90 new staff members from a university in Taiwan. The contact persons in the three data sources were: the head of the HR department of the Hong Kong company, the director of the student career center at the university in mainland China, and the president of the HR department at the university in Taiwan, respectively. With the assistance of these contact persons, I collected data by inviting newcomers to answer questionnaires on the spot or via mailed (email) surveys. A complete set of surveys comprised two rounds of self-reporting and one round of supervisor rating. To ensure that all the data obtained from different

sources were identified in relation to a particular participant, I used a coding scheme for the time-lagged aspect and for effective matching of “focal person”-supervisor data. A total of 280 newcomers participated in Time 1 survey, and the finally matched responses comprised 150 newcomers, or 52.9% of the initial sample. The final sample consisted of 40% male (men = 90, women = 60), the average age was 31 years old (ranging from 18-60, SD = 9.5), and half of the sample were under 27.

To examine whether the sample size was sufficient for the current study, I conducted a power analysis. The power analysis revealed that at the  $p < .05$  level, the sample of 150 respondents exhibited a power level of 79% for detecting a moderate-sized correlation of .20, which is within the recommended acceptable range for power (Cohen, 1977).

## **5.2 Procedure**

Data were collected at two different time points. The first survey was distributed to the participants in their third post-entry month. As I started the data collection during November and December of 2009, the selection criterion of the appropriate respondents was that the newcomers' entry time should have been from August to October of that year. Specifically, their responses to the first questionnaire should have taken place during their third post-entry month. Newcomers' self-reporting helped measure nine variables: organizational socialization tactics, organizational secure base, original P-O fit perception, proactive personality, need for achievement, need for affiliation, socialization content, primary control, and secondary control. The initial sample of the participants consisted of 280 new employees recently hired to one of three organizations. Of the 280 invited newcomers, 248 completed usable first-round surveys (response rate of 88.6%).

The second time point was the sixth post-entry month, which is to say, three months after the first survey. Self-reporting helped measure seven outcome variables, and newcomers' direct supervisors helped rate in-role performance. I invited the newcomers to answer the second survey. At the same time, I invited these newcomers' supervisors to rate the newcomers regarding their recent task performance. For newcomers whose supervisors were on leave, I would invite a senior colleague who would have been sufficiently familiar with the given newcomer's performance to rate it. Of the 248 respondents who had answered the first questionnaire, 166 returned the second survey. Of the 166 respondents, 150 returned the supervisor rating, resulting in an overall response rate of 52.9%. The overall retention rate was acceptable in comparison with other longitudinal studies of socialization (e.g., 29% in Bauer et al., 1998). I performed structural equation modeling analyses on the material pertaining to the 150 individuals who had responded to all three surveys. But I examined hypotheses 11~13 in relation to the 166 individuals who had completed their own two surveys.

As mentioned in the former section, the sample data were collected from three organizations. The current section of this chapter explains the detailed procedures for each of the samplings. For sample one, I acquired a list of newcomers and their supervisors from the HR department of an insurance company, and at a company meeting, I later distributed questionnaires along with envelopes addressed to the researcher's office. All respondents were to seal their own questionnaires in envelopes and were to return them directly to the researcher by mail. All respondents were to complete their questionnaires anonymously, but the questionnaires were coded so that surveys of different times and sources for one newcomer could be matched to one another. For sample two, I acquired a list of

recently graduated students and a list of their emails in the summer of 2009 from the student career center at a university in China's Guangdong Province, and I then sent invitation emails to the students. In order to motivate as many participants as possible to participate, I promised to conduct a lucky draw as an incentive among the respondents who completed all of the three surveys. After receiving the replies expressing an interest in this survey, I sent questionnaires to the respondents by email and also asked them for their supervisor's contact information so that I might send the supervisor a questionnaire in the second-round survey. For sample three, through the help of the HR department at a university in Taiwan, we invited newcomers to join the survey and to answer the questionnaires on the spot. I sent all respondents a set of instructions stating that the survey was only for research purposes and that all personal information would be kept strictly confidential.

Table 5-2-1 summarizes the details of a sample composition.

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Insert Table 5-2-1 about here  
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To assess whether the current study suffered from the threat of non-response bias, I compared the response group to the non-response group in terms of their demographics, personalities, and original P-O fit perception. I used a multivariate general linear model (GLM) procedure to test the null hypothesis of no difference. Simultaneously comparing the two groups with respect to the variables in concern, this analysis indicated no difference in demographic and dispositional factors (Wilks's  $\lambda = .98, p > .10$ ). However, when I included original fit perception as one variable, the results showed a slight difference between the two groups (Wilks's

$\lambda = .94, p = .03$ ). The means of the two groups' original P-O fit perception are 4.5 (response group) and 4.2 (non-response group) on a 6-point scale. Thus, although this study was generally representative of the whole sample in terms of individual characteristics, one cannot rule out all non-response bias. I think the main reason for the possible presence of such bias is that newcomers with very low original fit perception would be most likely to leave their place of employment after six months and would, hence, be relatively likely to drop out of my sample.

### 5.3 Measures

Eighteen variables were measured from new employees' self-reporting and one variable (i.e., supervisor-rated performance) were collected from the employees' supervisors. The response format of all measures was a six-point Likert-type scale (from strongly disagree to strongly agree). The purpose of using an even number in scaling was to help respondents express a positive or negative attitude rather than be neutral. Except for three new constructs, all the variables were measured with established scales. To make sure that our Chinese-version scales were equivalent to the original ones, I invited two graduate students majoring in English to help me translate and back-translate the material for all the constructs of the main study. I compared the translations and did the final revision of the translation. Table 5-5-1 reports the values of Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all constructs. The appendix presents all items from the self-reporting scale and the other-reporting scale.

*Organizational socialization tactics.* Organizational socialization tactics were measured according to the 30-item scales developed by Jones (1986). Although socialization tactics were operationalized as a six-dimension construct, in the present study, I followed Jones (1986)'s suggestion that the six dimensions be combined into

a single one, which was labeled *extent of institutionalization* and which represented the extent to which organizational socialization tactics were well-planned and systematic. This unidimensional measure has been used in most socialization research (e.g., Ashforth et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 1998; Lueke & Svyantek, 2000). I followed this tradition in the field by using *extent of institutionalization* as the measure of organizational socialization tactics. A sample item was “I have been through a set of training experiences that are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job-related skills.”

*Organizational Secure Base.* Organizational secure base was measured according to a 16-item scale developed for this study. I generated 16 items by means of a deductive approach: namely, by writing up items based on the construct’s theoretical structure. As there was no established theory for an organizational secure base, I did not conduct a study to test its nomological network, but did examine its content validity and reliability. I contacted three employees from different firms and explained to them the meaning of organizational secure base. Then I asked them to tick each item that could reflect the organizational environment that I had described. At least two raters ticked each item, so all items remained in place for a pretest that I used to test the reliability of the scale. I conducted the pretest with a sample of 71 Taiwan-based students who were in the midst of their one-year internship in one of several different hotels. I asked these students to evaluate the organizational environment with these 16 items. The scale has a reliability of .82 with the pretest sample.

*Socialization content learning.* In order to cover a more comprehensive swath of socialization content, I followed Kammerlyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003)’s measure, which combines Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner (1994)’s

7-dimensional scale with Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970)'s role-clarity dimension. The reason for creating this one measure is the absence of any difference between Chao et al. (1994) and Rizzo et al. (1970) regarding their perspectives of socialization content: they just focus on different areas of knowledge. Combining them would cover more comprehensive information that newcomers need to learn during socialization. Moreover, Kammerlyer-Mueller et al. (2003)'s study empirically supports the validity of the combined scales. The instruction was "Please express the extent to which you have learnt the content of each item." A sample item was "I understand the way to successfully perform my job in an efficient manner."

*Newcomer primary control and Newcomer secondary control.* Primary control and secondary control were measured according to the scale of NPC and NSC in the Workplace (NPCSC-W) developed in Chapter 4. There were 17 items for four dimensions of primary control and 21 items for four dimensions of secondary control: thus, there were 38 original items in total, with between 4 and 6 items for each dimension. A sample item for measuring primary control was "I try to stay on the same page with the important people in this organization in order to maximize my influence on others." A sample item for measuring secondary control was "I would like to follow my current supervisors, as most of their decisions are reasonable and reliable."

*P-O fit.* Supplementary P-O fit (Similarity) and Complementary P-O fit (complementarity) were measured in the current study according to Piasentin and Chapman (2007)'s 9-item scale and 8-item scale, respectively. Two sample items were "The underlying philosophy of this organization reflects what I value in a company" (for supplemental P-O fit) and "I feel that I am important to this company because I have skills and abilities that substantially differ from those of my



in employees' socialization, attitude forming, and role commitment (Acker & Van Houten, 1974).

Second, original P-O fit perception was controlled in order to examine the change of P-O fit perception during socialization. I used Saks and Ashforth (1997)'s 4-item scale to measure the newcomers' general P-O fit perception at an early post-entry stage.

Third, proactive personality, need for achievement, and need for belongingness are identified as main dispositional factors that respectively affect the three mechanisms of socialization. To distinguish the organizational effects on socialization mechanisms from one another, I controlled for these three personalities. Specifically, proactive personality functions as a stable behavioral tendency of individuals that might affect the process of uncertainty reduction by learning (Ashford & Black, 1996). Previous research has found that people with a strong proactive personality tend to seek information and feedback from a new environment, to learn new things, and to try to deal with new problems, all of which help to resolve the insufficient information offered by an organization or formal channels therein (e.g., Miller & Jablin, 1991; Ashford & Black, 1996). In addition, Morling and Evered (2006) reviewed related studies and proposed that desire for control and for achievement or need for belongingness or for positive relationships were two main personality features affecting preferred primary and secondary control strategies. Individuals high in desire for control and for achievement tend to use primary control in various settings, while those high in need for belongingness and for positive relationships are more likely to use secondary control. Thus, the three personalities were controlled in the current research.

co-workers” (for complementary P-O fit). Demand-ability P-O fit and need-supply P-O fit were measured according to Cable and Derue (2002)’s 6-item scale. Two sample items were “There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job ” (for need-supply P-O fit) and “My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job” (for demand-ability P-O fit).

*Supervisor-rated performance.* I used a 6-item scale to measure supervisor-rated performance. The performance scale was developed by Williams (1988), and the Chinese version was validated in Law, Wong, Wang, and Wang (2000). The scale asked the responding supervisor to rate, from low to high on a 6-point scale, the focal person’s performance in terms of work enthusiasm, quality, efficiency, concentration, and other aspects. A sample item for supervisor-rated performance was “She or he works fast with high efficiency.”

*Job stress and turnover intention.* Job stress was measured according to House and Rizzo (1972)’s 7-item scale. A sample item for job stress was “I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.” Turnover intention was measure using Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979)’s 3-item scale. A sample item for turnover intention was “Very probably, I may look for a new job in the coming year.”

*Control variable.* Control variables in the current study covered demographics, original P-O fit, and personalities (i.e., proactive personality, need for achievement, and need for belongingness). First, age and sex were included as control variables. As some newcomers in my sample were not fresh graduates, there was some variance in age. Controlling for age was also an indirect way to control newcomers’ work experience, which was found to be a confounding factor in newcomers’ socialization (Adkins, 1995). Sex was included because gender difference has been found to exist

Proactive personality was measured according to Bateman and Crant (1993)'s scale. As the original 17-item scale was too long, I selected eight items that consistently showed high loadings ( $\lambda > .55$ ) in all of the three samples reported in Bateman and Crant (1993)'s paper. Need for achievement and need for affiliation were measured according to scales (i.e., the Achievement Scale and the Affiliation Scale) from the Personality Research Form (PRF; Jackson, 1967, 1984). The PRF was constructed as a measure of most of the traits laid out by Murray (1938). It is a comprehensive listing of human psychological needs with excellent psychometric properties and has been widely used in basic and applied research.

#### **5.4 Analysis method**

In order to test the proposed model, I conducted analysis through the following steps. The quality of measures was examined. Specifically, I initially investigated the internal consistency of all measures by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Alpha coefficients are reported in Table 5-5-1. Then, I tested the hypothesized dimensional structure of each construct and the distinctiveness among constructs from the same source and the same time point using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). To keep the factor structure conceptually clean, I allowed for no cross-loadings. The fit indices were examined according to the following criteria:  $\chi^2/df$  ratio (good fit  $0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2$ ; acceptable fit  $2 < \chi^2/df \leq 3$ ), root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; good fit  $0 \leq RMSEA \leq .05$ ; acceptable fit  $.05 < RMSEA \leq .1$ ) (Steiger, 1990), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; good fit  $0 \leq SRMR \leq .05$ ; acceptable fit  $.05 < SRMR \leq .08$ ), comparative fit index (CFI; good fit  $.97 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$ ; acceptable fit  $.90 \leq CFI < .97$ ), and non-normed fit index (NNFI; good fit  $.97 \leq NNFI \leq 1.00$ ; acceptable fit  $.90 \leq NNFI < .97$ ).

Second, SPSS and structural equation modeling (SEM) with LISREL served to examine the hypothesized model. I conducted the confirmatory factor analysis by using LISREL, and tested the full model by using both hierarchical regression in SPSS and the structural equation model in LISREL. The advantage of hierarchical regression is to examine the incremental contribution of each independent variable in predicting the dependent variable. The advantage of SEM is that it offers a simultaneous test of an entire model with multiple independent variables and thus enables assessment of the extent to which the model is consistent with the data (Byrne, 1994). Given that the research purpose had been to examine the parallel mechanisms simultaneously, I tested the hypothesized model with SEM. In all analyses, participants with missing data were excluded.

Among the constructs, only primary control and secondary control were defined as latent multidimensional constructs. Law, Wong, and Mobley (1998) argued that a multidimensional construct is a latent model if it is a higher-level construct that underlies its dimensions. For latent multidimensional constructs, the dimensions are simply different forms manifested by the constructs. For these two constructs, I averaged items into dimensions, and treated the dimensions as separate indicators of their corresponding construct in my SEM analyses.

As for the structural model estimation, considering the ratio of necessary sample size over the number of variables in my model, I averaged the items into single indicators for all constructs except primary and secondary control. To adjust for measurement error when using a single indicator for a latent variable, I fixed the loading of the variable on its respective factor at one and fixed the variance of the measurement error at one minus the reliability.

Finally, after testing the outcomes and antecedents of NPC and NSC, I decided to conduct a follow-up analysis to explore whether NPC and NSC might mediate the relationship between the proposed antecedents and outcomes. This test was purely statistical exploration whose purpose was to identify implications for further study. The mediation relationship was tested according to Baron and Kenny (1986)'s three-step method.

## 5.5 Results

There were three different data sources in my sample. Although in each data source, respondents came from a different branch or department, which had independent socialization practices and environments, there was still a possibility of non-independence (that is, effects related to the whole group or university rather than to an individual's perception of the branch or department). A one-way analysis of variance indicated no systematic differences in either organizational socialization tactics or in the organizational secure base that were attributable to differences among groups or universities rather than to differences among individuals' perceptions. That is, between-group variance was not greater than within-group variance (for socialization tactics,  $F=2.90$ ,  $p=.06$ ; for secure base,  $F=1.39$ ,  $p=.25$ ); the numbers supported my conceptualization of the model at the individual level, and hence, I proceeded to analyze my model by using hierarchical regression analyses and SEM. Table 5-5-1 presents means, standard deviations, reliability coefficients, and intercorrelations for all variables measured in this study. The observed variance on all measured variables was adequate. First, my sample supported some relationships

that prior studies had supported and that include the influences of proactive personality, of organizational socialization tactics, and of socialization content on socialization outcomes. Second, primary control and secondary control, which were the focus of this study, were positively correlated with some socialization outcomes, indicating their potential roles in socialization. Finally, the correlations between an organizational secure base and all outcome variables offered strong preliminary support for the notion that it might be an important contextual factor in influencing newcomers' socialization.

Since several constructs were conceptually related and could be expected to be associated in a substantive way, I conducted additional analyses to confirm the distinctiveness among the constructs. Results are summarized in Table 5-5-2. First, I performed CFAs for the five main variables measured in the first time point. These variables were organizational socialization tactics, the organizational secure base, socialization content, primary control, and secondary control. As all of them were multidimensional constructs, I aggregated items into dimensions and treated the dimensions as the indicators of each construct. This five-factor model was compared with two four-factor models, and I combined socialization tactics with a secure base in CFA model 1a, and I combined primary control and secondary control in CFA model 1b. The results support the assertion that organizational socialization tactics and organizational secure base were two distinct constructs, as well as the assertion that primary control and secondary control were two distinct constructs. Next, I conducted similar analyses for seven socialization outcome variables: supplemental P-O fit, complementary P-O fit, demand-ability P-O fit, need-supply P-O fit, job stress, and turnover intention. This six-factor model was also compared with a three-factor model, which combined four forms of P-O fit into one factor.

The results of these findings support the assertion that the four forms of P-O fit perceptions are distinctive.

### 5.5.1 Testing three parallel mechanisms

To test the hypotheses concerning three parallel mechanisms and the socialization outcomes, I conducted a series of hierarchical regression analyses. Tables 5-5-3 and 5-5-4 report the results of regression analyses for Hypotheses 1a~1c, 2a~2f, and 3a~3c. Specifically, Table 5-5-3 reports the results for four forms of P-O fit as outcome variables, and Table 5-5-4 reports the results for job stress, turnover intention, and supervisor-rated performance as outcome variables. In the regression, variables were entered in a hierarchical order, with demographic variables and original P-O fit entered first as controlling variables, the established socialization content variable entered in the second step, and primary control, square of primary control, and secondary control in the final step. I included square of primary control in the equation to test the hypothesized quadratic relationship between primary control and stress and between primary control and turnover intention.

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Insert Table 5-5-3 about here

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Insert Table 5-5-4 about here

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Hypotheses 1a~1c concern the effects of uncertainty reduction by learning (i.e., socialization content). Results of model 2 and model 14 show that socialization



content was only positively related to supplemental P-O fit (Hypothesis 1c,  $\beta = .19, p < .01$ ) and negatively related to stress (Hypothesis 1b,  $\beta = -.25, p < .01$ ) - not to other outcomes. Hypotheses 1b and 1c were supported, while 1a, 1d, and 1e were not supported. Hypotheses 2~10 involved the function of primary and secondary control. Results of model 6 and model 18 showed that primary control was positively related to complementary P-O fit (Hypothesis 3,  $\beta = .27, p < .01$ ). The square of primary control was found to be positively related to turnover intention in model 18 (Hypothesis 9,  $\beta = .21, p < .05$ ) and negatively related to supervisor-rated performance in model 21 (Hypothesis 6,  $\beta = -.20, p < .05$ ). The significant quadratic term of primary control indicated a U-shaped curve relationship between primary control and turnover intention and between primary control and supervisor-rated performance. Models 12 and 15 showed that secondary control made a unique contribution to increasing newcomers' need-supply P-O fit (Hypothesis 4,  $\beta = .30, p < .05$ ) and to decreasing job stress (Hypothesis 8,  $\beta = -.33, p < .05$ ). However, the influence of secondary control on other outcome variables (Hypotheses 2 and 10) were not supported.

### 5.5.2 Testing antecedents of the three mechanisms

The second purpose of this study has been to explore the antecedents of these parallel mechanisms. In Hypotheses 11 through 13, I proposed that organizational socialization and an organizational secure base might respectively activate three paths in the socialization process. To test the proposed organizational predictors, I conducted multiple regressions with socialization content, primary control, and secondary control as outcome variables. Variables were entered in a hierarchical order, with demographic variables and three personality measures entered first as

control variables, and socialization tactics and secure base in the second step. In order to test the U-shaped relationship with an opening to the left, I computed the square of primary control and treated the quadratic term as a dependent variable. Table 5-5-5 presents my tests on antecedents of the three mechanisms.

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Insert Table 5-5-5 about here  
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Organizational socialization tactics had a stronger influence than what I had hypothesized. Supporting Hypothesis 11, model 26 (see Table 5-5-5) showed that socialization tactics had a strong influence on socialization content ( $\beta = .41, p < .01$ ). However, in addition, socialization tactics were also positively associated with primary control (model 29,  $\beta = .26, p < .05$ ) and secondary control (model 35,  $\beta = .45, p < .01$ ), which was an unexpected finding. Hypothesis 12 regarded the positive relationship between secure base and secondary control, which was also supported in model 36 ( $\beta = .17, p < .05$ ). Finally, in model 33 of Table 5-5-5, where I regressed organizational secure base on the square term of primary control, the negative coefficient ( $\beta = -.29, p < .01$ ) indicated that there was a left U-shaped relationship between organizational secure base and primary control. That is, increases in the degree of a secure base create a situation where primary control tends to gravitate toward a moderate level; likewise, decreases in the degree of a secure base create a situation where primary control tends to be either extremely high or extremely low. Hypothesis 13 is supported. I conducted a path analysis in SEM. As the outcome variables are highly correlated, I allowed for estimating paths among them. Path analysis generated a generally similar pattern of relationship. The

whole model exhibited a good fit ( $\chi^2 = 53.1$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $\chi^2/df$  ratio =  $53.1/26 = 2.04$ ; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .05; CFI = .97, NNFI = .91). However, as reported in Figure 5-5-1, the estimation results were not completely consistent with those in the regression. A possible reason is that regression and SEM use different estimation methods (i.e., OLS and ML), and a small sample size would create differences in two estimation results.

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Insert Figure 5-5-1 about here  
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### 5.5.3 Follow-up analyses for mediations

Since the current study's hypotheses have had some support from the above analysis, I conducted a follow-up study to test for possible mediation that exists between various factors; by undertaking this test, I might be able to offer some clues for future study. My hypothesized relationships suggest several possible mediation relationships: (1) Socialization content might mediate the linear relationships between organizational socialization tactics and (a) newcomers' supplemental P-O fit, (b) newcomers' demands-abilities P-O fit, (c) newcomers' in-role performance, (d) newcomers' job stress, and (e) newcomers' turnover intention. (2) Primary control might mediate the linear relationships between organizational secure base and (a) newcomers' complementary P-O fit and (b) newcomers' demands-abilities P-O fit. (3) The square of primary control might mediate the linear relationship between organizational secure base and (a) newcomers' in-role performance and (b) newcomers' turnover intention. (4) Secondary control might mediate the linear

relationships between secure base and (a) newcomers' supplemental P-O fit, (b) newcomers' needs-supplies P-O fit, (c) newcomers' job stress, (d) newcomers' turnover intention, and (e) newcomers' supervisor-rated performance. However, the premise of mediation effect is the existence of a relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. My results regarding correlations among variables (Table 5-5-1) show that organizational secure base was correlated with supplemental P-O fit, need-supply P-O fit, job stress, turnover intention, and supervisor-rated performance, while organizational socialization tactics was correlated with supplemental P-O fit and needs-supplies P-O fit. So the follow-up analyses were conducted on the basis of the above relationships.

To test mediation, I used Baron and Kenny (1986)'s three-step approach. Table 5-5-6 presents the corresponding results, and three main findings were as follow: first, primary control fully mediated the relationship between socialization tactics and supplemental P-O fit; second, secondary control partially mediated the relationship between secure base and need-supply P-O fit, as well as the relationship between secure base and job stress; third, the square of primary control partially mediated the relationship between secure base and turnover intention. Sobel's (1982) test of indirect effects indicates further whether or not the estimate linking the independent variable to the dependent variable drops significantly once the mediating variable has been introduced. However, the results in the current study were all very marginal ( $p < .10$ ), thus indicating that the relationships between organizational factors and socialization outcomes might work through a variety of mechanisms.

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Insert Table 5-5-5 about here  
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## 5.6 Chapter summary

In this chapter, I have reported the procedures and the results of a longitudinal study. Results show that, when original P-O fit was controlled for, socialization content was positively associated with supplemental P-O fit improvement, and secondary control affected improvements in need-supply P-O fit. Regarding stress, socialization content and secondary control could release job stress. The relationship between primary control and task performance exhibited an inverted U-shape; the relationship between primary control and turnover intention was U-shaped.

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes the main results, discusses the supported and unexpected findings, and highlights the major contributions and implications of this study. It winds up with the limitations of the current study and suggestions for future research.

#### 6.1 Research purposes and findings

To illuminate the socialization processes by which newcomers develop into effective organizational members, I employed a personal-control perspective from psychology literature and developed a theoretical model to explain adaptation mechanisms. The model emphasizes that on top of socialization content which is the dominant perspective in socialization literature, we should explain newcomers' adaptation processes by considering the strategies that individuals use to attain a sense of control in conflict. I specified two strategies: primary control and secondary control. With primary control, a person tries to change the environment; with secondary control, a person tries to accept the environment and to change him- or herself.

The application of the control perspective in this dissertation aims to fill in the voids resulting from the prevailing socialization literature. These vanguard researchers in the field of socialization have found that organizational practices play important roles in orientation and training, and that newcomers' proactivity plays equally important roles in information acquisition and network development. The common explanation of these findings is that newcomers could learn more about their new environment and decrease uncertainty. However, newcomers not only passively or

actively seek information, but also need to process the information and deal with conflicts between their previous cognition framework and the new changes. Though researchers have proposed the roles of such cognitive and attitudinal adaptation (e.g., Louis, 1980), only a few socialization studies have echoed the call for research to focus on newcomer's adaptation process. The call seems even more important if we specially take into account the different natures of information with which newcomers must contend. When information is categorized into compatible and incompatible information, it is obvious that newcomers' efforts to deal with the incompatible information can contribute facilitate these newcomers' adaptation. Thus, the hypothesized model proposed in the current study reflects an attempt to close the aforementioned gap in the literature.

Based on the new proposed mechanism, this dissertation's second goal is to explore organizational factors that activate different paths. I proposed a new construct—secure base—to describe a kind of organizational environment that newcomers perceive as secure. Organizational secure base might be a potential organizational factor that helps newcomers to adopt an optimal set of strategies, say, a combination of moderate primary control and high secondary control.

To achieve the research purposes herein, I conducted two studies. In study one, I developed and validated the measures of primary control and secondary control in the workplace. This process resulted in two new scales: A 17-item scale to measure primary control and a 20-item scale to measure secondary control in the workplace. In study two, I tested the hypothesized relationships with a time-lagged research design. Results show that primary control and secondary control were related to different socialization outcomes, and that secure base was an important organizational factor in newcomers' socialization. I'll discuss the main findings and some



unexpected findings in the following section.

### 6.1.1 Three parallel mechanisms in socialization processes

Basically, the results of the two studies show a generally similar pattern wherein socialization content, primary control, and secondary control worked together during socialization processes and respectively affected different outcomes of socialization. The first group of outcome variables is four forms of P-O fit. As discussed in chapter three, we knew very little about how socialization might help establish P-O fit. To fill this research void, I controlled for newcomers' demographic variables and their original P-O fit to test whether P-O fit might change during socialization. As expected, though original P-O fit was strongly correlated with later fit perception, socialization processes had some influence on the improvement of fit perception after a six-month time lag. Specifically, socialization content was positively associated with supplemental P-O fit. This finding supports the assertion that socialization content helps newcomers not only to reduce uncertainty but also to develop a perception of the self as an organizational "insider." Such a sense of identity might develop while the newcomers feel that they are growing more and more *in line with* the organization's culture.

However, an unexpected but consistent finding surfaced in the pilot study and the main study. The relationship between socialization content and supplemental P-O fit disappeared when secondary control came under simultaneous examination.

Although socialization content and secondary control are two parallel mechanisms in my model, the above results may be interpreted as suggestive of two possible underlying reasons. First, socialization content may be one reason for activating a secondary control strategy. The second possible reason is that secondary control

may be a nearer construct to outcomes than socialization content.

As hypothesized, primary control was positively associated with improvement of complementary P-O fit. This result supports the assertion, which I made in the model, that primary control can have psychological consequences for fit perception. Individuals high in primary control generally take action to improve their knowledge, abilities, and skills—the longer-term goal being to exert effective influence on the environment and to meet the organization's needs; if successful in this endeavor, the individuals would expect to receive positive feedback and to perceive improved complementary P-O fit. Another interesting finding in regards to the relationship between primary control and demand-ability P-O fit is that the data pointed to a U-shaped relationship rather than the hypothesized linear relationship. A possible explanation for the U-shaped relationship may be that individuals with very high primary control—because of their over-aggressive behaviors—are more likely than other individuals to receive some negative feedback from colleagues and supervisors. One possible explanation for this negative feedback is that such newcomers would be failing to meet the organization's demands.

Third, as hypothesized, secondary control was positively associated with needs-supplies P-O fit. This result supports my argument that secondary control helps to internalize an organization's view and goal. Newcomers are more likely to understand and sympathize with an organization's situation when the organization is in development. Thus, the newcomers' perception of a discrepancy between personal need and organizational offerings would diminish.

This study used the second group of criteria variables to evaluate newcomers' job stress, supervisor-rated performance, and turnover intention. Results show that

secondary control played an important role in decreasing job stress. This finding is consistent with my hypothesis and indeed echoes previous psychology-literature findings about other groups of people facing high pressure. This overall consistency implies that secondary control is an effective way for newcomers to release the stress of facing a new environment. Regarding supervisor-rated performance, the current study has shown that only primary control was an effective predictor. The negative coefficient of the quadratic term of primary control indicates that a moderate level of primary control was meaningful for newcomers' performance, but that either extremely high or extremely low levels of primary control might do harm to performance. Regarding turnover intention, findings show that secondary control was negatively associated with turnover intention, while the relationship between primary control and turnover intention was an inverted U-shaped relationship. These findings indicate that newcomers with high secondary control and moderate primary control were most likely to remain in the organization after the socialization period. This evidence further supports my hypotheses.

#### 6.1.2 Organizational antecedents of three parallel mechanisms

Given that what I have sought to examine is organizations' influences on socialization processes, I controlled for newcomers' demographics, original P-O fit, and three main personalities that respectively affect three socialization mechanisms. Results show that socialization tactics constituted a strong predictor for all paths. Organizational secure base, as hypothesized, was positively related to secondary control and was negatively related to the square of primary control. These findings mean that when secure base is high, newcomers tend to seek strong levels of secondary control strategy and moderate levels of primary control strategy; when secure base is low, newcomers tend to de-emphasize secondary control strategy and to engage in either

excessively high or excessively low uses of primary control strategy. The latter case suggests that newcomers either use aggressive means to get what they want or—when they find their goals impossible to achieve but do not want to leave—just stay in their organization while exerting minimum effort and adopting an attitude of indifference.

### 6.1.3 Follow-up analysis on mediation effects of three parallel mechanisms

This study's follow-up analysis on mediation effects of three parallel mechanisms offers some implications for future research and for organizations. Specifically, socialization tactics increased supplemental P-O fit through primary control. It was a little bit surprising that socialization content was not found to be a mediator between socialization tactics and socialization outcomes, which was the widely accepted argument in socialization literature. Findings partially supported my conjectures about the possible mediating role of primary and secondary control in the relationship between secure base and socialization outcomes. Specifically, secure base increased need-supply P-O fit partially through increases in secondary control. The negative relationship between secure base and job stress was also partially mediated by secondary control. Finally, secure base decreased turnover intention in relation to the square of primary control. The left U-shaped relationship between secure base and primary control means that when the level of secure base is high, primary control tends to be moderate. Moreover, the U-shaped relationship between primary control and turnover intention indicates that when primary control tends to be mid-level, turnover intention will be at its lowest level. Another interesting finding is the strong effect that organizational secure base had on socialization outcomes. Almost all of the important outcome variables such as supplemental P-O fit, need-supply P-O fit, job stress, turnover intention, and supervisor-rated performance were affected by perceived secure base early on in newcomers' experiences in organization. These

results suggest that this dissertation's new concept of secure base might be a meaningful variable for our understanding of how organizations could help with newcomers' adaptation.

## **6.2 Theoretical contributions**

This dissertation contributes to literature in four regards that I would like to discuss. First, I have proposed a new perspective—the control perspective—to extend our understanding of newcomers' socialization processes. While it has been widely admitted that socialization includes two important parts (learning and adaptation), most of the previous research has focused only on learning. Behind this previous research is an assumption that more learning necessarily leads to better outcomes. However, this assumption is doubtful as long as we put the following fact into consideration. Newcomers do not enter an organization as blank slates. Instead, they bring with them their previous cognition, a history of experiences and a unique set of memories, expectations, and goals that guide how they should behave at work and interact with others. Thus, most newcomers have to deal with huge amounts of new information that may not be compatible with the newcomers, themselves. I argue that during their socialization processes, newcomers must not only decrease uncertainty by learning, but also regain a sense of control by coping with the conflicts that arise between the self and the new environment. From this perspective, primary and secondary control are theorized to be newcomers' two coping strategies for dealing with compatible and incompatible information during socialization. The two coping strategies differ from each other regarding their respective underlying motivations and their respective socialization outcomes. Empirically, the findings of the dissertation complement the traditional perspective of socialization. Specifically, the control perspective sheds more light than ever on socialization processes by

highlighting the adaptation mechanisms. Furthermore, while previous research has argued that higher levels of proactive behavior result in better outcomes of newcomers' socialization, I found that both proactive behaviors and adaptive behaviors are potential facilitators of socialization. The supportive effects of adaptive behaviors on socialization differ from the supportive effects of proactive behaviors on socialization. To be more specific, proactive personality is a stable individual trait, while primary and secondary control are strategies determined by both personality and situational factors.

Second, this study extends the consequences of socialization mechanisms to different forms of P-O fit, a topic that has been a void in the socialization research. Since socialization is a comprehensive adjustment of a person, the dissertation stresses the necessity of multiple assessing criteria and proposes four scientifically validated forms of P-O fit: supplemental P-O fit, complementary P-O fit, need-supply P-O fit, and demand-ability P-O fit. The dissertation's rigorous clarification of socialization mechanisms' distinct effects on the four forms of P-O fit has helped confirm the existence of multiple mechanisms of socialization process.

Third, this dissertation contributes to socialization research by exploring the possible antecedents of socialization mechanisms. Addressing the steps that organizations could take to help with newcomers' socialization, previous studies have emphasized the role of organizational socialization tactics. In this dissertation, anchored in the control perspective, I propose the concept of organizational secure base and characterize it as another important organizational environmental factor. Secure base serves to describe an organizational environment that facilitates the development of a psychologically secure relationship between newcomers and the organization. I argue that newcomers' early experience of interaction with an organization may affect

whether they can form a secure attachment with the organization—an attachment that might, on the basis of newcomers' coping strategies, deeply affect newcomers' socialization. Drawing on hypothesized relationships, I conjectured that organizational secure base might affect socialization outcomes through primary and secondary control. The empirical results, despite providing no stable support for these conjectures, offer strong evidence that organizational secure base directly affected almost all of the socialization outcomes. The empirical results support this dissertation's assertion that socialization processes are not only a series of systematic practices, but also processes in the development of newcomer-organization relationships. During these processes, the nature of the organizational environment would play an important role in shaping the relationship, and organizational secure base is a possible construct for characterizing such an environment.

### **6.3 Limitations and future studies**

This dissertation has several weaknesses that should be noted. First, I collected independent variables (socialization tactics and secure base) and process variables (socialization learning content, primary control, and secondary control) at the same time point. Doing so can cause common method variance. Yet, theoretically, any secure base that newcomers perceive should be immediately reflected in their behaviors or coping strategies, so it is reasonable to collect information at the same time point. Although it would not be a problem in testing a mediation relationship, common method variance might affect the results stemming from tests on the relationship between an independent variable and a process variable. If possible, a time-lag study design would be preferable to the approach taken here, chiefly as a way to address this problem.

The second issue concerns newcomers who became “dropouts” in this dissertation’s sample, insofar as the response rate and possible sample bias combine to pose another problem: restriction of range. Although this dissertation has investigated how newcomers adapt to a new environment, it would have been better to include the newcomers who had left our sample; in this way, the research would have avoided a restriction of range. Furthermore, this dissertation would have been stronger had it collected and coded, if possible, information on these *absent* newcomers’ reasons for leaving. These reasons, when treated as a dependent variable, might have clarified how adaptive processes affect newcomers’ early departure from an organization.

This study treats organizational secure base as a psychological concept: namely, as newcomers’ perception of their organizational environment. In future studies, researchers may explore specific practices or elements constituting such an environment in order to identify further practical implications that this concept can have for other researchers and for organizations. For example, newcomers’ networks in an organization may constitute an important factor that helps to develop a secure base environment. For example, Morrison has found that newcomers’ networks affect the newcomers’ adaptation outcomes (Morrison, 2002).

Besides addressing the above problems, there are several directions in which future studies may push their investigations. This dissertation has shown that, as two coping strategies, primary control and secondary control are meaningful in explaining newcomers’ adaptations. So it would be meaningful to identify and examine other possible factors that activate these coping strategies and to determine whether such coping strategies would remain a stable general strategy that newcomers may use in the future.



Second, there is a special group of newcomers: they are low in both primary control and secondary control. Such a status is similar to what the literature has labeled 'helplessness'. The current study did not examine this group of newcomers separately, but several studies on helplessness in psychological literature have identified possible implications stemming from these newcomers. Future studies can zero in on the reasons for these newcomers' apparent helplessness.

Some interesting findings of this study offer implications for future research. For example, secondary control was found to function much as a mediator would in the relationship between socialization content and some outcome variables such as stress. This issue is worthy of further examination, regarding in particular whether some aspects of socialization content may affect newcomers' adoption of certain coping strategies.

#### **6.4 Practical implications**

The exploratory part of this dissertation offers some potential practical implications. The results indicate that newcomers may adopt different strategies to deal with the frustrations and conflicts that arise during socialization processes. Organizations may affect newcomers' preferences for available kinds of strategies. In this same vein, consider an organization that offers its newcomers an environment in which to develop a secure attachment with the organization: this type of offering is associated with positive socialization outcomes several months into the newcomers' stay, specifically in terms of fit perception, task performance, and low job stress and turnover intention. On the basis of these findings, I suggest that organizations pay attention to not just traditional socialization tactics such as training and orientation, but organizational efforts to build a supportive environment and a healthy relationship

with newcomers, as well. Such an environment would be characterized by many positive traits, of which four are worthy of note here: first, newcomers would likely be treated as members intending to remain in the organization for the long haul; second, they could have unparalleled opportunities to interact with their supervisors and senior colleagues frequently; third, they would be in a stronger position to perceive emotional care and full acceptance from other members in the organization; and last but not least, they would be shown a hopeful and attractive vision of the organization's future. An organization can develop such an environment in formal or informal ways, as circumstances and preferences dictate.

## **6.5 Concluding thoughts**

A general outcome of the current study is that it brings to the fore two new insights pertinent to socialization literature. One is about newcomers' coping strategies, and the other is about organizational environments supportive of newcomers' adaptation. I propose two strategies that newcomers may adopt to deal with the conflicts and frustrations that arise during socialization and that, in turn, affect the newcomers' adaptation. I have demonstrated that the two strategies are reasonable and useful explanations of socialization process on top of socialization literature's traditional perspectives. First, for newcomers, a moderate level of primary control is best suited for their adaptation. A moderate level of primary control strategy can effectively help newcomers acquire highly useful resources. However, the strategy, when operating at excessively high or excessively low levels, can have negative effects that are all too obvious. Second, secondary control strategy helps newcomers both relieve stress during socialization and improve their perception of fit in the organization. Finally, organizational secure base was found to be an important organizational environment that can facilitate newcomers' adaptation. Further

research on these directions would be meaningful and interesting.

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**TABLE 4-6-1 Alpha Internal Consistency of 8 facets of the Primary-Secondary Control in the internship students<sup>a</sup>**

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	No. of items	Alpha
<b>Primary Control (n=77)</b>		
PC-Predictive	5	.86
PC-Illusionary	4	.89
PC-Vicarious	4	.77
PC-Interpretive	4	.73
<b>Secondary Control (n=77)</b>		
SC-Predictive	5	.66
SC-Illusionary	5	.81
SC-Vicarious	5	.85
SC-Interpretive	3	.80

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<sup>a</sup> N=77

**TABLE 4-6-2 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Primary Control <sup>a</sup>**

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
PC_P1	<b>.804</b>			
PC_P2	<b>.784</b>			
PC_P3	<b>.831</b>			
PC_P4	<b>.703</b>		<i>.459</i>	
PC_P5	<b>.684</b>		<i>.457</i>	
PC_I1		<b>.779</b>		
PC_I2		<b>.833</b>		
PC_I3		<b>.874</b>		
PC_I4		<b>.866</b>		
PC_V1			<b>.698</b>	
PC_V2			<b>.766</b>	
PC_V3			<b>.848</b>	
PC_V4 *		<i>.516</i>	<b>.437</b>	
PC_IN1 *	<i>.436</i>		<i>.556</i>	
PC_IN2 *	<i>.698</i>			<b>.489</b>
PC_IN3				<b>.807</b>
PC_IN4				<b>.784</b>

<sup>a</sup> N=77;

Note: (1) Principle component analysis with varimax rotation

(2) Items with \* are revised after pilot study

(3) Factor loadings lower than .40 are not reported in the table

**TABLE 4-6-3 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Secondary Control <sup>a</sup>**

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
SC_P1	<b>.715</b>				
SC_P2	<b>.765</b>				
SC_P3 *					<i>.756</i>
SC_P4	<b>.737</b>				
SC_P5	<b>.684</b>				
SC_I1		<b>.812</b>			
SC_I2		<b>.792</b>			
SC_I3		<b>.645</b>			
SC_I4		<b>.706</b>			
SC_I5		<b>.688</b>			
SC_V1			<b>.820</b>		
SC_V2			<b>.832</b>		
SC_V3			<b>.792</b>		
SC_V4			<b>.587</b>		
SC_V5			<b>.632</b>		<i>.488</i>
SC_V6 *				<i>.889</i>	
SC_IN1 *				<i>.644</i>	
SC_IN2					<b>.826</b>
SC_IN3 *				<i>.827</i>	
SC_IN4					<b>.659</b>
SC_IN5			<i>.445</i>		<b>.598</b>

<sup>a</sup> N=77;

Note: (1) Principle component analysis with varimax rotation

(2) Items with \* are revised after pilot study

(3) Factor loadings lower than .40 are not reported in the table



**TABLE 4-6-4 Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Alphas and Correlations among Measures of Study One**

Variable <sup>a</sup>	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Gender	1.81	.39	--											
2. Age	21.01	1.10	-.37**	--										
3. Job Satisfaction	3.94	1.56	-.15	-.04	(.70) <sup>b</sup>									
4. Socialization content learning	4.84	.52	-.25**	-.01	.39**	(.94)								
5. Primary control	4.04	.72	.01	.03	.26**	.16	(.85)							
6. Secondary control	4.42	.54	-.21	-.01	.26**	.59**	.14	(.86)						
7. Supplemental fit	4.03	.75	-.14	.12	.48**	.47**	.30**	.65**	(.81)					
8. Complementary fit	3.95	.95	-.15	.17	.15	.36**	.28**	.43**	.54**	(.93)				
9. Demand-ability fit	4.47	.87	-.13	.11	.43**	.58**	.17	.35**	.56**	.62**	(.89)			
10. Need-supply fit	4.07	1.15	-.24**	.09	.70**	.60**	-.05	.52**	.63**	.39**	.63**	(.89)		
11. Job stress	3.32	1.18	.07	.11	-.38**	-.32**	.26	-.03	-.28	-.09	-.35**	-.43**	(.90)	
12. Turnover intention	3.10	1.33	.13	-.01	-.66**	-.34**	.06	-.21	-.34	-.03	-.23**	-.60**	.52**	(.80)

<sup>a</sup>  $n = 77$ . Internal reliabilities (alpha coefficients) for the overall constructs are given in parentheses on the diagonal.

\*  $p \leq .05$  (two tailed), \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

<sup>b</sup> reliability of single-item job satisfaction was estimated by Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997)'s meta-analysis

**TABLE 4-6-5a Results of hierarchical regression to test the preliminary nomological network of Primary-Secondary control (1) <sup>a</sup>**

<b>Independent variable</b>	<b>Supplementary P-O Fit (Similarity)</b>				<b>Complementary P-O Fit (Complementarity)</b>			
<i>Control Variable</i>								
Age	.13	.13	.12	.17	.12	.13	.11	.14
Gender	.06	.23	.11	.17	-.02	.07	-.03	.07
Job Satisfaction	.52**	.38**	.37**	.38**	.12	-.06	-.10	-.09
<i>Independent Variables</i>								
Socialization content		.33**	.33**	-.04		.42**	.42**	.24*
Primary Control			.06	.01			.15	.27*
Secondary Control				.61**				.30*
Total R <sup>2</sup>	.28	.36	.36	.59	.03	.17	.19	.24
Change in R <sup>2</sup>		.08**	.01	.22**		.14**	.02	.06*

<sup>a</sup> n=77,

<sup>†</sup> p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

**TABLE 4-6-5b Results of hierarchical regression to test the preliminary nomological network of Primary-Secondary control (2) <sup>a</sup>**

<b>Independent variable</b>	<b>Demand-Ability P-O Fit</b>				<b>Need-Supply P-O Fit</b>			
<i>Control Variable</i>								
Age	.12	.12	.13	.13	.04	.04	.07	.10
Gender	.04	.15	.16	.16	-.14	-.07	-.02	.01
Job Satisfaction	.43**	.18	.20	.20*	.70**	.55**	.62**	.63**
<i>Independent Variables</i>								
Socialization content		.57**	.57**	.59**		.36**	.37**	.21**
Primary Control			-.06	-.05			-.28**	-.31**
Secondary Control				-.03				.28**
Total R <sup>2</sup>	.19	.44	.44	.44	.53	.63	.70	.75
Change in R <sup>2</sup>		.25**	.00	.01		.10**	.07**	.05**

<sup>a</sup> n=77,

<sup>†</sup> p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

**TABLE 4-6-5c Results of hierarchical regression to test the preliminary nomological network of Primary-Secondary control (3)**

Independent variable	Job Stress				Turnover Intention			
<i>Control Variable</i>								
Age	.05	.04	.01	.01	-.01	-.01	-.05	-.05
Gender	.00	.04	-.11	-.11	.06	.05	-.01	-.02
Job Satisfaction	-.35**	-.27*	-.38**	-.39**	-.74**	-.72**	-.78**	-.83
<i>Independent Variables</i>								
Socialization content		-.20	-.33*	-.32*		-.05	-.06	-.04
Primary Control			.45**	.42**			.28**	.20*
Secondary Control			-.25*	-.25*			-.01	.03
Square of primary control				-.06				-.15
Total R <sup>2</sup>	.12	.15	.37	.38	.56	.56	.63	.64
Change in R <sup>2</sup>		.03	.22**	.01		.01	.07**	.01

<sup>a</sup> n=77,

<sup>†</sup>  $p < .1$ , \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$

**TABLE 5-2-1 Sample composition**

	Time 1	Time 2 Self-report	Time 2 Supervisor	Matched Sample
Insurance Company in Hong Kong	83	42	30	30
Graduates in Mainland China	43	34	30	30
New staff at a University in Taiwan	97	90	88	88

**TABLE 5-5-1 Means, Standard Deviations, Internal Consistency Alphas, and Correlations<sup>a</sup> among Measures**

Variable <sup>b</sup>	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Sex	1.60	.49	----																	
2. Age	31.47	9.52	-.12	---																
3. Original general P-O fit	4.50	.78	-.10	.27**	(.82)															
4. Proactive personality	4.53	.62	-.12	.21**	.33**	(.82)														
5. Need for achievement	4.58	.65	-.05	.22**	.32**	.65**	(.81)													
6. Need for affiliation	4.48	.68	-.11	.10	.15*	.43**	.40**	(.84)												
7. Organizational secure base	4.80	.66	.03	.14	.47**	.42**	.43**	.39**	(.91)											
8. Organizational socialization tactics	4.24	.58	-.17*	.09	.16*	.32**	.27**	.23**	.26**	(.86)										
9. Socialization content learning	4.55	.64	-.03	.03	.20**	.29**	.18**	.12	.29**	.46**	(.96)									
10. Primary control	4.01	.56	-.10	-.01	.14	.25**	.09	.14	.12	.30**	.58**	(.82)								
11. Secondary control	4.60	.55	-.06	-.01	.21**	.20**	.12	.08	.29**	.47**	.75**	.63**	(.92)							
12. Supplemental fit	4.12	.58	-.11	.20**	.41**	.16*	.11	.23**	.31**	.24**	.28**	.21**	.27**	(.82)						
13. Complementary fit	3.80	.76	-.14	.08	.25**	.23**	.13	.11	.06	.09	.12	.24**	.09	.46**	(.89)					
14. Demand-ability fit	4.38	.74	-.11	.27**	.36**	.10	-.01	.16*	.13	.06	.12	.15	.12	.63**	.52**	(.86)				
15. Need-supply fit	4.28	.75	-.12	.14	.38**	.26**	.19*	.23**	.37**	.19*	.21**	.19*	.30**	.63**	.26**	.48**	(.73)			
16. Supervisor-rated performance	4.96	.76	.13	.06	.26**	.05	.03	.09	.23**	-.11	.04	.10	.03	.30**	.21*	.27**	.19*	(.94)		
17. Job stress	2.69	1.09	-.03	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.02	-.02	-.28**	-.13	-.27**	-.22**	-.36**	-.22**	.11	-.18*	-.31**	-.05	(.92)	
18. Turnover intention	2.63	1.20	.13	-.14	-.31**	-.19*	-.09	-.05	-.31**	-.07	-.04	.04	-.09	-.41**	.01	-.32**	-.53**	-.27**	.41**	(.81)

<sup>a</sup>  $n = 150-166$ . Internal reliabilities (alpha coefficients) for the overall constructs are given in parentheses on the diagonal.

\*  $p \leq .05$  (two tailed)

\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

**TABLE 5-5-2 Summary of Model Fit Indexes<sup>a</sup>**

Model Test	$\chi^2$	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI	NNFI	SRMR	RMSEA
<b>1. CFA Model 1 (time 1, five variables, five-factor model)</b>	<b>552.28</b>	<b>265</b>	---	<b>.92</b>	<b>.91</b>	<b>.07</b>	<b>.07</b>
2. CFA Model 1a (time 1, five variables, four-factor model, with socialization tactics and secure base combined into one factor)	785.21	269	232.93**	.85	.83	.09	.11
3. CFA Model 1b (time 1, five variables, four-factor model, with primary control and secondary control combined into one factor)	692.94	270	140.66**	.88	.86	.10	.09
<b>4. CFA Model 2 (time 2, six variables, six-factor model)</b>	<b>428.13</b>	<b>209</b>	---	<b>.96</b>	<b>.96</b>	<b>.07</b>	<b>.08</b>
5. CFA Model 2a (time 2, six variables, three-factor model, with four forms of P-O fit combined into one factor)	816.58	224	388.45**	.90	.88	.11	.15

<sup>a</sup> n=150, \*\* p<.0001

TABLE 5-5-3 Results of Regression Analyses for four forms of P-O fit<sup>a</sup>

Variables <sup>b</sup>	Supplemental P-O Fit												
	M 1	M 2	M 3	M 4	M 5	M 6	M 7	M 8	M 9	M 10	M 11	M 12	
<i>Control variables</i>													
Sex	-.10	-.10	-.08	-.12	-.11	-.09	-.05	-.05	-.04	-.09	-.08	-.07	
Age	.14	.14	.15	-.01	-.03	-.02	.19*	.20**	.20**	.02	.01	.03	
Original general P-O fit	.33**	.29**	.27**	.26**	.21*	.21*	.29**	.29**	.28**	.35**	.30**	.27**	
<i>Independent Variables (controlled)</i>													
Socialization content		.19**	.04		.05	-.01		.04	-.02		.10	-.13	
Proactive personality		-.02	-.01		.16*	.12		-.05	-.07		.12	.14	
<i>Independent Variables</i>													
Primary control			.16 <sup>†</sup>			.27**			.12			.03	
Square of primary control			-.07			.01			-.14 <sup>†</sup>			-.01	
Secondary control			.06			-.11			-.05			.30*	
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>	.17	.21	.24	.08	.11	.16	.16	.16	.19	.14**	.17	.22	
<b>Change in R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>		.04*	.03		.03 <sup>†</sup>	.04*		.00	.03		.03 <sup>†</sup>	.04*	

<sup>a</sup> n=166,

<sup>†</sup> p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

**TABLE 5-5-4 Results of Regression Analyses for Stress, Turnover intention, and Performance<sup>a</sup>**

Variables <sup>b</sup>	Stress							Turnover Intention			Supervisor-rated Performance <sup>b</sup>		
	M 13	M 14	M 15	M 16	M 17	M 18	M 19	M 20	M 21				
<i>Control variables</i>													
Sex	-0.05	-0.05	-0.06	.12	.11	.12	.16*	.16*	.16*	.16*			
Age	-0.06	-0.06	-0.08	-0.04	-0.02	-0.01	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03			
Original general P-O fit	-0.01	.03	.07	-.27**	-.24**	-.20*	.32**	.33**	.31**				
<i>Independent Variables (controlled)</i>													
Socialization content		-.25**	.02		.06	.15		.03	.00				
Proactive personality		.02	.01		-.13	-.16		-.06	-.08				
<i>Independent Variables</i>													
Primary control			-.03			.19*			.05				
Square of primary control			-.04			.21*			-.20*				
Secondary control			-.33**			-.18			-.07				
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>	.01	.07	.12	.10	.11	.17	.11	.12	.15				
<b>Change in R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>		<b>.06**</b>	<b>.05*</b>		.01	<b>.06*</b>		.01	.03				

<sup>a</sup> n=166, † p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

<sup>b</sup> For supervisor-rated performance, n=150.

**TABLE 5-5-5 Results of Regression Analyses for Three Socialization Mechanisms<sup>a</sup>**

Variables <sup>b</sup>	Socialization content						Primary Control						Square of Primary Control						Secondary Control																			
	M 25	M 26	M 27	M 28	M 29	M 30	M 31	M 32	M 33	M 34	M 35	M 36	M 37	M 38	M 39	M 40	M 41	M 42	M 43	M 44	M 45	M 46	M 47	M 48	M 49	M 50												
<i>Control variables</i>																																						
Sex	.02	.07	.05	-.08	-.06	-.05	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.03	.01		
Age	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.07	-.07	-.07	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.03
Proactive personality	.27**	.19*	.18	.32**	.27*	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10	-.08	.16	.27*	-.10	-.10
Need for achievement	.01	-.06	-.08	-.14	-.16	-.16	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03	.07	-.02	-.08	.03	.03
Need for affiliation	.02	-.03	-.06	.05	.19	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08	-.01	.02	.02	-.08	-.08
Original P-O fit	.10	.10	.06	.06	.06	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18	-.08	.07	.07	-.18	-.18
<i>Independent Variables</i>																																						
Organizational socialization tactics		.41**	.40**		.26*	.26*		.26*	.04		.02		.02	.04		.45**	.45**		.45**	.04		.45**	.45**		.45**	.04		.45**	.45**		.45**	.45**		.45**	.45**		.45**	
Organizational secure base			.13		-.01	-.01		-.01	-.29**					-.29**					-.29**								-.29**											
<b>Total R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>	.08	.23	.24	.09	.15	.15	.07	.07	.12	.06	.24	.06	.06	.12	.06	.24	.06	.06	.12	.06	.24	.06	.06	.12	.06	.24	.06	.06	.12	.06	.24	.06	.06	.12	.06	.24	.06	
<b>Change in R<sup>2</sup> (%)</b>		.14**	.01		.06**	.06**		.06**	.05**		.18**	.18**		.05**		.18**	.18**		.05**		.18**	.18**		.05**		.18**	.18**		.05**		.18**	.18**		.05**		.18**		

<sup>a</sup> n=166,

<sup>†</sup> p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

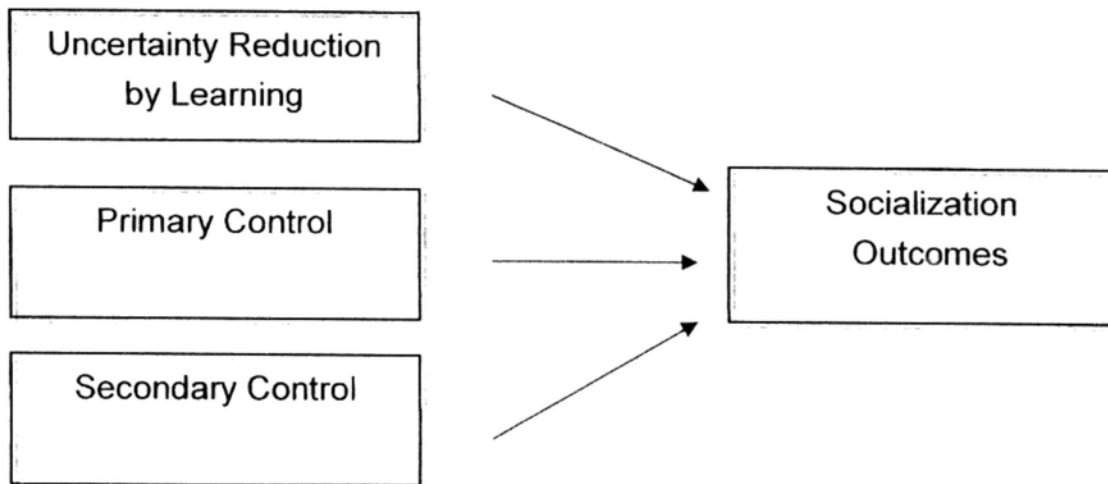


TABLE 5-5-6 Follow-up Analysis: Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Mediation<sup>a</sup>

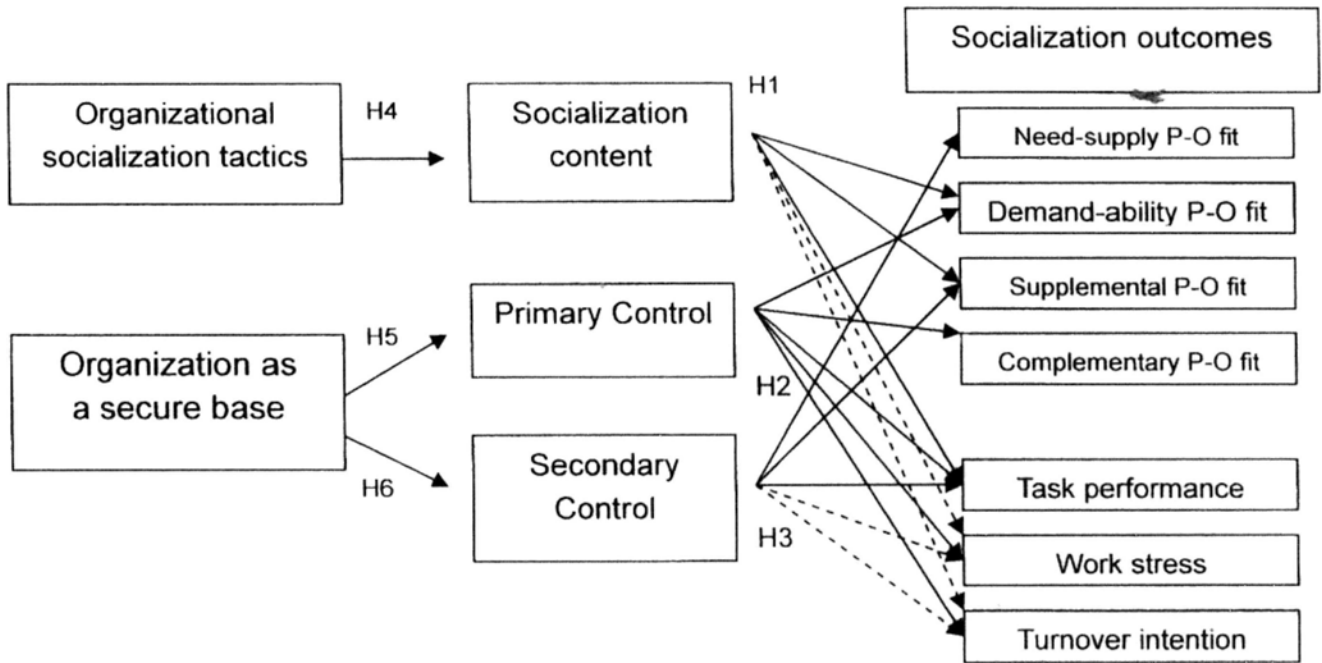
Variables <sup>b</sup>	Supplemental		Needs-supplies		Job Stress	Turnover Intention	Supervisor-rated Performance <sup>b</sup>								
	P-O Fit	P-O Fit	P-O Fit	P-O Fit											
<i>Control variables</i>															
Sex	-.12	-.10	-.09	-.10	-.03	.11	.14	.16	.12	.13					
Age	.14	.14 <sup>†</sup>	.15*	.04	-.07	-.06	-.05	-.04	-.02	-.02					
Original P-O fit	.32**	.27**	.25**	.35**	.13	-.27**	-.17*	-.16	.31**	.24*	.23*				
<i>Independent Variables</i>															
Organizational socialization tactics	.15*	.07		.10	.03	.06	.04	-.01	-.16*	-.17					
Organizational secure base	.07	.06		.23**	.21*	-.26**	-.23*	-.18*	.20*	.15					
<i>Mediators</i>															
Socialization content		.01		-.15		.04		.14		-.01					
Primary control		.18*		.05		-.02		.18 <sup>†</sup>		.05					
Secondary control		.05		.26*		-.34**		-.15		-.14					
Square of primary control								.19*		.00					
Total R <sup>2</sup> (%)	.17	.20	.24	.15	.20	.24	.01	.07	.15	.10	.14	.19	.11	.16	.18
Change in R <sup>2</sup> (%)		.03*	.04*		.05*	.04*		.06	.08		.04*	.05*		.05*	.02

<sup>a</sup> n=166, <sup>†</sup> p < .1, \* p < .05, \*\* p < .01

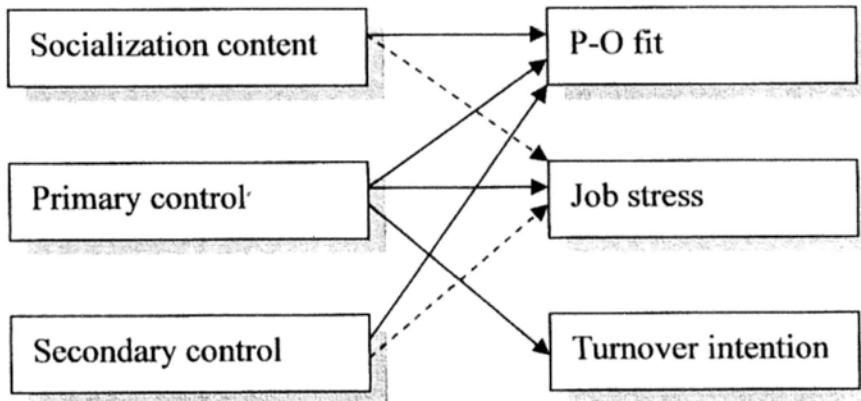
<sup>b</sup> For supervisor-rated performance, n=150



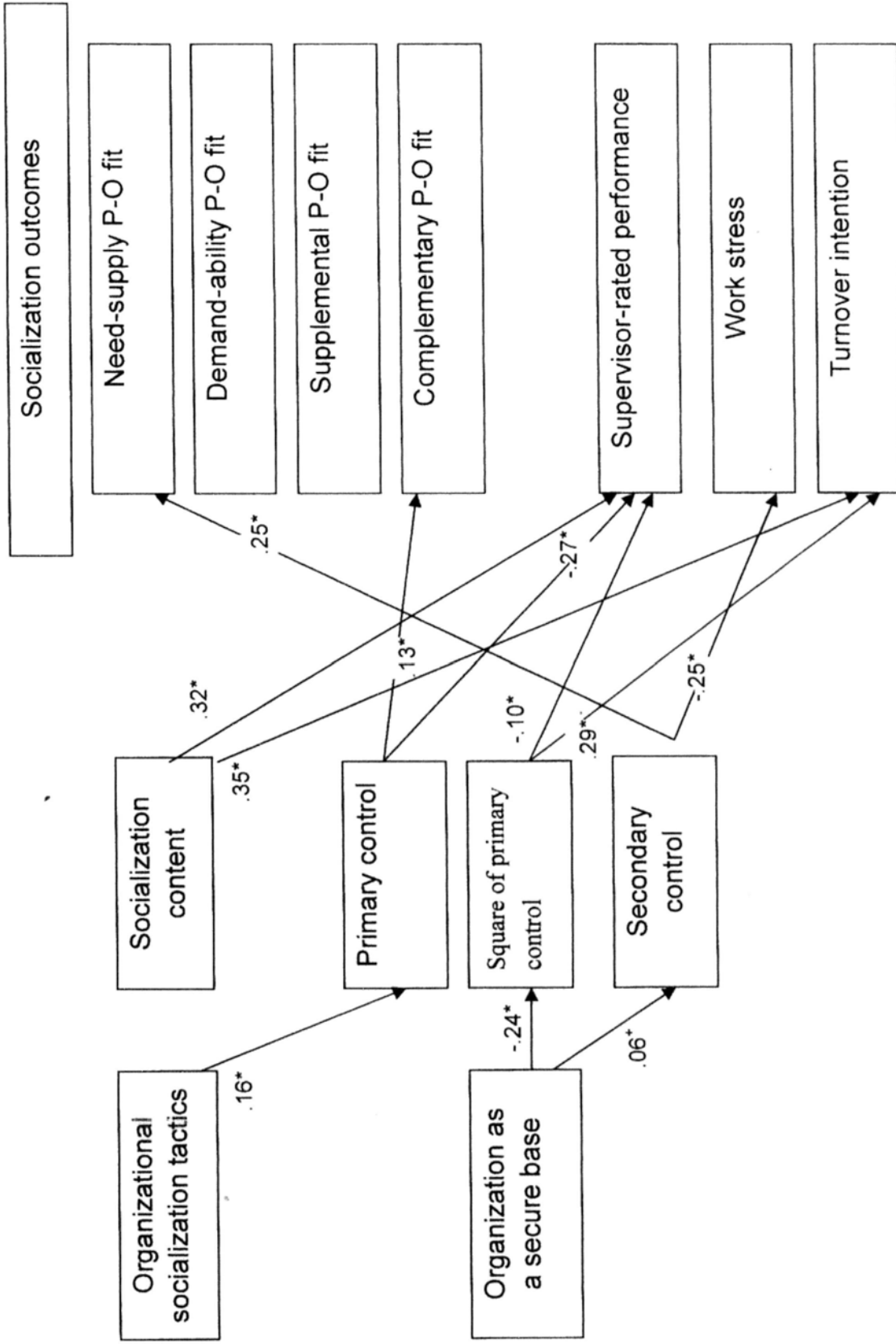
**FIGURE 3-5-1 A Conceptual Model of Three Parallel Mechanisms in Newcomer Socialization**



**FIGURE 3-7-1 Full Theoretical Model of Newcomer Socialization Process**



**FIGURE 4-2-1 Preliminary nomological network of primary control and secondary control**



**FIGURE 5-5-1 Results of Structural Equation Model Analysis<sup>a,b,c</sup>**

a. n=150 b. This diagram does not show the measurement model of primary control and secondary control

b. Original P-O fit was modeled as a control variable but is not shown on this diagram

c. Note: \* p ≤ .05 (two-tailed), \*\* p < .01 (two-tailed)

## APPENDIX A

### List of Hypotheses

#### Socialization content (uncertainty reduction by learning) → outcomes

- Hypothesis 1a* Newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with task performance.
- Hypothesis 1b* Newcomers' learnt socialization content is negatively related with newcomers' perception of job stress. \*
- Hypothesis 1c* When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perceptions of supplemental P-O fit. \*
- Hypothesis 1d* When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' learnt socialization content is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perceptions of demands-abilities P-O fit.
- Hypothesis 1e* Newcomers' learnt socialization content is negatively related with newcomers' turnover intention.

#### Primary control → outcomes

- Hypothesis 3* When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' primary control is positively related with improvements in the newcomers' perception of their complementary P-O fit. \*
- Hypothesis 5* When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' primary control is positively related with improvements in the newcomers' perception of their demand-ability P-O fit..
- Hypothesis 6* The relationship between newcomers' primary control and their task performance has an inverted U-shape.. \*
- Hypothesis 7* The relationship between newcomers' primary control and their job stress is U-shaped.
- Hypothesis 9* The relationship between newcomers' primary control and turnover intention has a U-shape. \*

#### Secondary ontrol → outcomes

- Hypothesis 2* When original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' secondary control is positively related with improvements in newcomers' perception of their supplemental P-O fit..
- Hypothesis 4* When the original P-O fit is controlled, newcomers' secondary control is positively related with improvement in the newcomers' perception of their need-supply P-O fit their need-supply P-O fit. \*
- Hypothesis 8* Newcomers' secondary control is negatively related with their work stress. \*
- Hypothesis 10* Newcomers' secondary control is negatively related with their turnover intention.

#### Antecedents → Socialization content, Primary control, and secondary control

- Hypothesis 11* The extent to which organization socialization tactics have been institutionalized is positively related with newcomers' learnt socialization content. \*
- Hypothesis 12* The extent to which an organization serves as a security base positively influences newcomers' adoption of secondary control strategies.. \*

*Hypothesis 13 The relationship between a security base and primary control has a U-shaped curve with its opening on the left. Specifically, the extent to which an organization serves as a security base affects the extent to which newcomers' adoption of primary control strategies is high or low: the stronger the security-base role is, the more likely newcomers will be to adopt a primary control strategy at a moderate level.\**

(Note: hypotheses with "\*" are supported in this study)

## Appendix B Original Primary and Secondary Control Scale in Pilot Study

### **Primary Control (PC)**

#### **PC-Predictive**

完成每項任務前，我會細心核查並佈置各項環境條件，以爭取成功。

和一個同事合作前，我希望可以深入瞭解他，以確保與他合作是可以成功的。

如果一項工作需要某些技能，我會在正式做前多練習，以增加成功的可能性。

假如參加一項洽談，我會儘量事先與有關部門或負責人溝通好細節，以保證洽談的成功。

當我不確定應該怎樣進行工作時，我會想辦法瞭解清楚，以達成最佳結果。

#### **PC-Illusionary**

做重要的工作時，我會穿上曾給我帶來幸運的衣服（或鞋子、領帶、飾品等）。

出差時，我喜歡帶著“平安符”一類的東西。

如果可以選擇，在工作中我會常常使用我的幸運數位或幸運日。

我喜歡用一些我的幸運物作飾品，這樣有可能會增加我在工作中成功的機會。

#### **PC-Vicarious**

我努力與組織裏的重要人物保持一致，這樣能借他們的優勢來影響其他人/事。

I make careful arrangement of the circumstance and conditions of each task to assure a success.

I wish to have a deep understanding of my colleague before working together, in order to make sure our successful cooperation.

If some skills are required in an assignment, I will practice them many times in advance, in order to enhance the possibility of success.

Before participating in a business meeting, I will thoroughly communicate with relevant departments or persons in advance, in order to ensure its success.

When I am unsure about how to conduct my work, I would look for a clear guidance, to ensure an optimum performance.

When carrying out important tasks, I will put on the clothes (shoes, neckties, decorations) that have brought me good luck before.

When on a business trip, I will bring with a talisman or sort of things.

If possible, I will use my lucky number or luck date at the work.

Decorating my office with my lucky charm or lucky stone, I believe it would give me more chances to become successful in the work.

I try to keep consistent with the important figures in this organization, in order

在這個組織裏，爲了獲得提升，我不得不取悅我的上級們。  
我努力和組織裏的重要人物交朋友，這樣其他人對待我的態度也會比較好。  
遇到困難時，我求助於超自然的力量，這會幫助我解決問題。

### **PC-Interpretive**

一次失敗後我會查清原因，下次努力排除這些影響。

當有同事對我態度不好時，我一定會瞭解清楚原因，以便知道如何回應他/她。  
如果遭受組織一些不公平的對待，我會問清原因，並以適當方式投訴。  
我不能接受一些不明原因的誤解和衝突。

### **Secondary Control (SC)**

#### **SC-Predictive**

對於一項我非常沒把握的任務，我會提前告知我的主管，或者申請調換任務  
在瞭解清楚其他部門的工作規範和習慣前，我不會匆忙開始新的合作  
當不確定應該怎樣做時，我會向主管或有關人員瞭解清楚再做，以避免失誤

to assure my influences on others.

In order to get promoted in the company, I would please my superiors.  
I make friends with those important figures in the company intentionally, attempting to win wider acceptance among the colleagues.

Encountered with the problems, I would turn to the supernatural forces, which would help me to resolve problems.

I try to find out all the reasons to a failure, and try to avoid those factors next time.

If some colleagues are hostile to me, I must make clear the reasons in order to know how to response to him/her.

If involved in some unfair treatment in organization, I will ask for the reasons and make complaints in an appropriate way.

I cannot bear those misunderstandings and conflicts without any acceptable reasons.

When I am assigned a task of little certainty to succeed, I will inform my superiors in advance or apply for other task instead.

I will not hurry to start new cooperation with other teams without a clear understanding of their working norms and habits

When I am not certain how to conduct my work, I would turn to others for



如果在該組織做一項自己失敗過多次的任務，我不會投入太多，免得太大失望  
我在組織裏可以避免接受我不大可能成功的任務，免得太受挫

### **SC-Illusionary**

現在看來，實習以來因為運氣問題遇到的不順心，我已經能用平常心對待了

我不需要擔心未來在這裏的工作，因為註定發生的事情總會發生的

在該組織的工作會有什麼樣的成績的確有一部分是運氣因素 \*\*

從長期來看，每個人的好運、壞運應該是大致相當的

我在工作中學會了坦然接受好運和壞運的交替來臨

### **SC- Vicarious**

我相信無論該組織現在表現如何，它的本質是好的，也是有希望的

我願意服從我現在的主管，因為他/她的決策通常是合理和可靠的

我很願意和這個組織裏的重要人物交朋友，能成為他們的朋友是一件樂事。

該組織裏的重要人物把我當作朋友時，我會很自信，並覺得自己是有價值的

我相信當我調整自己觀念與組織一致時，工作會更有意義。

clear explanations in order to avoid misbehaviors.

When on a task in which I have experienced many failures, I will not involve too much to avoid disappointment.

I will avoid taking the risky task, in order to avoid disappointment.

Looking back the time since my entry of this organization, I can peacefully accept all the setbacks that are attributed to bad luck.

I do not worry about the future in this organization, and just take everything as it comes.

Luck is a factor that influences my performance in this organization.

In the long term, everyone has simply the same ups and turns.

I have learnt to peacefully accept interchange of the ups and downs in work.

No matter how the organization performs at present, I believe it is good and hopeful in nature.

I would like to follow my current supervisors, as most of his/her decisions are reasonable and reliable

I like to make friends with the important figures in this company, as it is a pleasure to be their friends.

I feel self-confident and important, when treated as a friend by one of the important figures in the company.

I believe that if I adjust my own value to the company, my work would be more meaningful.

遇到困難時，我會依靠信仰交托我的困難，心裏就會感到平安 \*\*

### **SC-Interpretive**

實習以來所遇到的挫折和痛苦幫助我更堅定了我生命中的信念（或信仰）

在實習單位我所犯的錯誤和失敗幫助了我在組織中更成長

我認為我遇到的那些挫折是我所信仰的神(或佛，或天命)所安排的 \*\*

我認為我遇到的那些挫折和不愉快的經歷幫助我更認識自己和瞭解他人

當組織安排我面對一些不確定的環境時，我認為是一次寶貴的學習經驗

When encountered with difficulties, I would rely on my faith to share the difficulty, and feel peaceful.

The setbacks or sufferings in the work have helped me strengthen the belief (or faith) of my life.

My frustration or hardship after entry help me grow in this organization

I believe the frustrations I encounter are arranged by what I have faith in. (e.g., God, Buddha, or Fate)

The setback and the unpleasant experiences have helped me have a better understanding of myself and others.

When assigned to deal with some uncertain situations, I regard it as a precious opportunity of learning experience.

**Note:** Three items with “\*\*” are revised into the following items in main study:

SC-Illusionary 3 I believe that our team is a luckier team.

SC-Vicarious 6 When encountered with difficulties, I would feel at ease to share the trouble with my superiors and the colleagues.

SC-Interpretive 3 In the long run for my job responsibilities, the setback in my work is helpful to me.

## APPENDIX C Questionnaires

### Questionnaire 1: Time One self-report ("ABC" is represent the name of the firm)

#### 2009~2010 ABC Newcomer Adaptation Survey

(中文版)

親愛的 ABC New Agent,

您好！

非常感謝您的合作！初到一個新的工作環境，是既興奮又充滿挑戰的。作為來自香港中文大學的研究者，我們希望能夠瞭解新 agent 如何可以更好的適應新的工作環境，以及公司可以在哪些方面協助新 agent 更好的適應。我們希望你們能夠一起參與到這項有意義的研究中，並且願意完成整個研究過程。為了最好的瞭解新 agent 適應的過程，我們需要收集三輪資料。這是第一次調研，目的是瞭解您來到 ABC 並與現在的直屬經理同事開始合作的早期經驗和工作感受。之後的兩次將分別在您進入 ABC 後的第三個月和第六個月。

您提供的所有資訊，調研組都將嚴格保密。在我們向公司彙報時，將只彙報所有 agent 的回答全部放在一起所做的統計分析結果。如果您個人感興趣，我們也樂意向您提供調研結果作為參考。為了讓最後的結果真實有效，能夠幫助發現現存的問題，並提供改善建議，希望您能夠填寫自己的真實感受。如果您有任何問題或顧慮，請隨時與我們聯繫，我們的郵箱地址是 [jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk](mailto:jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk)

再次感謝您的合作！

您的 e-mail 地址 \_\_\_\_\_ (ABC email) \_\_\_\_\_ (個人)

您的個人 Agent 編號 \_\_\_\_\_

您的移動電話號碼 (或其他聯繫方式) \_\_\_\_\_

(郵箱地址和 Agent 編號僅用來接收以後的兩次調查通知，並對一次調查進行匹配，請您填寫同一個郵箱。

謝謝！)

請根據您對公司、直屬經理、團隊成員的感受在各陳述的右邊選擇您對該陳述同意的程度。	非常不同意	比較不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	比較同意	非常同意
S1. 公司把我們視為將會長期在這裏工作的 agent，並以這樣的態度安排新 agent 培訓。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S2. 據我瞭解，這個公司辭退 agent 時非常謹慎。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S3. 公司希望我們可以把這裏當作一個長期的“家”。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S4. 如果沒有特殊情況，我和目前的直屬經理應該會長期共事。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S5. 公司未來發展方向對於我個人來說越來越有吸引力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S6. 到這裏後學到的東西大大開闊了我的眼界。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S7. 我的直屬經理對團隊發展方向的計畫很讓人振奮。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S8. 到目前為止，我覺得我的直屬經理絕大多數時候都能做出正確的決定。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S9. 我有機會與我的直屬經理就工作上的事情做頻繁的交流。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S10. 當我需要時，可以從我的直屬經理那裏尋求到幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S11. 我有機會與我的團隊成員就工作上的事情做頻繁的交流。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S12. 當我需要時，可以從我的團隊成員那裏尋求到幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S13. 即使我的直屬經理批評我的錯誤，他/她對我總是完全接受的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S14. 我的直屬經理會時常關心我情感上的需要，並給予支援。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S15. 一般情況下，即使我不小心冒犯我的團隊同事，他們也不會排斥我。	1	2	3	4	5	6
S16. 我的團隊同事會時常關心我情感上的需要，並給予支援。	1	2	3	4	5	6

請根據您自己的感受在各陳述右邊選擇您對該陳述同意的程度。	非常不同意	比較不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	比較同意	非常同意
OF1. 我目前的知識、技術和能力能滿足公司對我的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
OF2. 這份工作可以滿足我目前各方面的需要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
OF3. 這個公司能滿足我目前各方面的需要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
OF4. 這份職業使得我可以做我喜歡的那類工作	1	2	3	4	5	6

	非常不同意	比較不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	比較同意	非常同意
請根據您對自己的認識在各陳述的右邊選擇您對該陳述同意的程度。						
PP1. 無論置身什麼場合，我都主動促進環境變化。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP2. 沒有什麼可以比看到把我的想法變成現實更讓我興奮的事了。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP3. 如果看到我不喜歡的現象，我會改變它。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP4. 無論有多困難，只要我認定的事，我一定會努力實現。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP5. 我堅持捍衛我的觀點，不惜反駁他人意見。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP6. 我善於尋找把握機會。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP7. 我一直在尋找解決問題的更佳方式。	1	2	3	4	5	6
PP8. 如果我認定某個想法，我將不畏任何阻礙完成它。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC1. 人們應當更加認真地完成工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC2. 我喜歡承擔有難度的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC3. 在我的工作領域內，我一直努力做到最好才滿足。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC4. 不論是否關乎生計，我都會一樣努力地工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC5. 我的目標是至少比別人做得好一點。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC6. 我經常制定很難實現的目標。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC7. 小時候，我曾花很長時間爭取自己想得到的東西。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAC8. 我並不介意別人玩樂時候我在工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF1. 我選擇可以與人分享的活動作為愛好。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF2. 我會刻意去認識朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF3. 人們都覺得我非常隨和。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF4. 我十分享受社交生活。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF5. 我花大量時間走親訪友。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF6. 我廣交朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF7. 我完全信賴我的朋友。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NAF8. 我盡我所能多和朋友們在一起。	1	2	3	4	5	6

	非常不同意	比較不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	比較同意	非常同意
下面問題描述了組織可能為新 agent 適應提供的幫助。請認真閱讀每一個問題，然後根據您自己的經歷在右邊選擇您對該陳述同意的程度。						
CI1. 入職以來，我和其他新 agent 共同參加了大量與工作有關的培訓活動。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CI2. 在熟悉工作要求的過程中，其他新 agent 對我很有幫助。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CI3. 公司安排所有的新 agent 經過了基本相同的學習過程。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CI4. 我所參加的大部分培訓都是和其他新 agent 分開進行的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CI5. 所有的新 agent 有一種“在同一條船上”的感受。	1	2	3	4	5	6

F11 公司安排我參加了一系列幫助新 agent 深入瞭解工作相關技能的培訓活動。	1	2	3	4	5	6
F12 在培訓過程中，公司一般會把我們和其他資深的 agents 分開。	1	2	3	4	5	6
F13 在深入瞭解部門流程和工作方法之前，公司沒有要求我開始正式履行工作職責。	1	2	3	4	5	6
F14 我的大部分工作知識是在自己不斷地試錯摸索中獲得的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
F15 我清楚我在這個公司裏已經摸到了竅門。	1	2	3	4	5	6
ID1 這裏讓我感覺我的技能對這個組織很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
ID2 周圍大多數同事都給予了我他們個人的支持。	1	2	3	4	5	6
ID3 我需要改變我的態度和價值觀才能在這個公司中被他人接受。	1	2	3	4	5	6
ID4 我的同事付出很多額外的努力來幫助我適應這裏。	1	2	3	4	5	6
ID5 我覺得這裏資深的 agents 和我保持一定距離，直至我達到他們的期望。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SR1 在這個公司裏，角色與角色的銜接，以及工作與工作的連接都有清晰的模式。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SR2 培訓過程的每個階段是逐步開展的，與新 agent 在工作進程中獲得新知識的進度匹配。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SR3 在這個公司裏，角色之間或職能之間的變動在履歷記錄中是非常明確的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SR4 這個公司沒有安排新 agent 經過一個程式清楚的學習過程。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SR5 公司裏的晉升途徑是清晰明確的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SD1 這個公司裏資深的 agents 把指導和訓練新 agent 作為自己工作職責的一部分。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SD2 通過觀察那些資深的 agents，我清楚地瞭解到我自己的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SD3 我從資深的 agents 那裏得到的關於如何做好工作的指導非常少	1	2	3	4	5	6
SD4 除非我自己主動，否則其他 agents 很少會同我接觸。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SD5 我需要獨自摸索自己在這個公司中的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
FV1 通過觀察前人的經驗，我可以預測我在這個公司未來的晉升途徑。	1	2	3	4	5	6
FV2 我很清楚新 agent 進入公司後的整個培訓過程將要經歷哪些不同步驟及其時間表。	1	2	3	4	5	6
FV3 我的工作進程將按一個固定的時間表進行，直屬經理都已經和我清楚溝通過了。	1	2	3	4	5	6
FV4 在這個公司中，我幾乎不知道什麼時候會被安排新的培訓。	1	2	3	4	5	6
FV5 關於我在這個公司裏將來可能會遇到什麼事情的資訊大都來自非正式的小道消息，而不是公司中的常規管道。	1	2	3	4	5	6

	完全不瞭解	基本不瞭解	有點不瞭解	有點瞭解	基本瞭解	完全瞭解
1. 我所在的部門/工作團隊的歷史。	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 組織內部的習慣、風俗、儀式等。	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 組織內長期保持的一些傳統。	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 我所在的部門/工作團隊的背景	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 組織的發展歷史	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. 我所擔任的工作中的特別術語和辭彙	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 組織中大家都使用的一些隱語和行話	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 組織裏常使用的一些簡稱和縮寫	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 我自己的業務中的特殊辭彙和行話	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 我自己的業務中的簡稱和縮寫	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 組織中到底是什麼規則在“真正運作”	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 組織中哪些是最有影響力的人是誰	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 組織裏的權力分配	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 我需要做到哪些事才會有較好的工作職務	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 組織裏其他人行為背後的動機	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. 組織中哪些是對於我完成工作最重要的人	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. 我的同事們是否能成為我的好朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. 其他同事的聚會不會排擠我	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. 同事們是否把我視為和他們“一夥兒”的	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. 其他同事的非正式的聚會不會排擠我	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. 我在組織中是否受歡迎	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. 同事是否喜歡我	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. 我可以成為我們組織的代言人	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. 組織的目標和我個人的目標一致 *	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. 我在價值觀上與組織很匹配*	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. 我認同組織告訴我們的那些價值觀	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. 我完全清楚組織的目標	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. 如果要找出能夠代表組織價值觀的員工，我可以算是其中之一*	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. 我贊同組織所訂的目標	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. 我明瞭我從事的這份工作所需的主要技巧	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. 我明瞭有效地完成我目前的工作的方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. 我明瞭成功完成我工作中各項任務的方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. 我明瞭我這份工作所需要的技巧和能力	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. 我明瞭我這份工作中具體職責的知識	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. 我明瞭我有多少職權。	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. 我明瞭我工作中清晰的、有計劃的目標	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. 我明瞭我的工作職責	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. 我明瞭應如何分配我的工作時間	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. 我明瞭組織和部門對我的期望	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. 我明瞭關於我每天具體應該完成的事項	1	2	3	4	5	6



當你面對工作中一些不確定、難以理解、矛盾的資訊時，或是遇到挫折和困難時，下面的各項敘述在多大程度上能代表你的想法和做法呢？請在相應數字上畫圈。	完全不同意	基本不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	基本同意	完全同意
SC1.對於一項我非常沒把握的任務，我會提前告知主管，或者申請調換任務	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC2.在瞭解清楚其他部門的工作規範和習慣前，我不會匆忙開始新的合作	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC3.當不確定應該怎樣做時，我可以向主管或有關人員瞭解清楚再做，以免失誤	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC4.如果做一項失敗過多次的任務，我不會期望太高，免得有太大失望	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC5.可能的話，我儘量避免接受不大可能成功的任務，免得太受挫	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC6.工作以來因為運氣問題遇到的不順心，我已經能用平常心對待了	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC7.我不擔心未來在這裏的工作，因為註定發生的事情總會發生的	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC8.我相信我所在的團隊是一個幸運的團隊。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC9.從長期來看，每個人的好運、壞運應該是大致相當的	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC10. 我在工作中學會了坦然接受好運和壞運的交替來臨	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC11. 我相信無論該組織現在表現如何，它的本質是好的，也是有希望的	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC12. 我願意服從我現在的主管，因為他/她的決策通常是合理和可靠的	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC13. 我很願意和這個組織裏的重要人物交朋友，能成為他們的朋友是一件樂事	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC14. 該組織裏的重要人物把我當作朋友時，我會很自信，並覺得自己是有價值的	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC15. 我相信當我調整自己觀念與組織一致時，工作會更有意義。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC16. 遇到挫折時，我很願意與我的上司和同事分享我的困難和顧慮	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC17. 工作以來所遇到的挫折和困難幫助我更堅定了我生命中的信念（或信仰）	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC18. 在工作單位我所犯的錯誤和失敗幫助了我在組織中更成長	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC19. 從長期的職業發展來看，工作以來遇到的那些挫折對我很有幫助	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC20. 我認爲我遇到的那些挫折和不愉快的經歷幫助我更多認識自己和瞭解他人	1	2	3	4	5	6
SC21. 當組織安排我面對一些不確定的環境時，我認爲是一次寶貴的學習經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC1.完成每項任務前，我會細心核查並佈置各項環境條件，以爭取成功	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC2.和新同事合作前，我希望可以深入瞭解他/她，以確保與他/她合作是可以成功的	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC3.如果一項工作需要某些技能，我會在正式做前多練習，以增加成功的可能性	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC4.進行一項合作前我會儘量事先與有關部門或負責人溝通好細節，以保證合作成功	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC5.當我不確定應該怎樣做時，我會向主管和同事瞭解清楚，以達成最佳結果	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC6.在做重要的工作時，我會穿上曾給我帶來幸運的衣服（或鞋子、領帶、飾品等）	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC7.出差時，我喜歡帶著“平安符”一類的東西	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC8.如果可以選擇，在工作中我會常常使用我的幸運數位或幸運日	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC9.我喜歡用一些我的幸運物作飾品，這樣有可能會增加我在工作中成功的機會	1	2	3	4	5	6



PC10.	我努力與組織裏的重要人物保持一致，這樣能借他們的優勢來影響其他人/事	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC11.	在這個組織裏，爲了獲得提升，我會儘量取悅我的主管們	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC12.	我努力和組織裏的重要人物交朋友，這樣其他人對待我的態度也會比較好	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC13.	遇到困難時，我求助於超自然的力量，這會幫助我解決問題	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC14.	一次失敗後我會查清原因，下次努力排除這些影響	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC15.	當有同事對我態度不好時，我一定會瞭解清楚原因，以便知道如何回應他/她	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC16.	如果遭受組織一些不公平的對待，我會問清原因，並以適當方式投訴	1	2	3	4	5	6
PC17.	我不能接受一些不明原因的誤解和衝突	1	2	3	4	5	6

個人資訊

( 您提供的以下資訊可以幫助我們瞭解整個公司的總體情況，請如實填寫，謝謝 )

- 您的性別\_\_\_\_\_ 1. 男 2. 女
- 您的年齡\_\_\_\_\_
- 您畢業後第一份工作開始的時間\_\_\_\_\_年\_\_\_\_\_月
- 您此次與 A 公司簽約的時間 2009 年\_\_\_\_\_月

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*問卷結束。再次感謝您的合作！*

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## Questionnaire 2: Time Two Self-report

### 2009~2010 ABC Newcomer Adaptation Survey

親愛的 ABC New Agent,

您好！

非常感謝您在第一次調研中的合作！

這份問卷為第二份調研，希望進一步瞭解您進入 ABC 工作幾個月後的適應情況。您提供的所有資訊，調研組都將嚴格保密。在我們向公司彙報時，將只彙報所有 agents 的回答全部放在一起所做的統計分析結果。如果您個人感興趣，我們也樂意向您提供調研結果作為參考。為了讓最後的結果真實有效，能夠幫助發現現存的問題，並提供改善建議，希望您能夠填寫自己的真實感受。如果您有任何問題或顧慮，請隨時與我們聯繫，我們的郵箱地址是 [jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk](mailto:jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk)。

再次感謝您的合作！

您的 e-mail 地址 \_\_\_\_\_ (ABC email) \_\_\_\_\_ (個人)

您的個人 Agent 編號 \_\_\_\_\_

您的移動電話號碼（或其他聯繫方式）\_\_\_\_\_

（郵箱地址和 Agent 編號僅用來對兩次調查進行匹配，請您填寫同一個郵箱。謝謝！）

	非常不同意	比較不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	比較同意	非常同意
請根據您目前在這個組織中的感受選擇您對該陳述同意的程度。						
SFT1. 這個公司運營背後的哲學正是我最看重的一家公司應該具備的特質。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT2. 我的個性和我周圍的同事相近。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT3. 我和這個公司裏的其他同事有很多共同的地方。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT4. 我個人的價值觀讓我在這裏顯得比較另類，因為與公司強調的價值觀不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT5. 我個人的價值觀和我周圍的同事不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT6. 我的個性特徵與這個公司的特徵或“形象”很匹配。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT7. 我的技能正是這個公司在員工中尋找的那些技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6
SFT8. 我個人的價值觀讓我在這個公司中區別於其他員工。	1	2	3	4	5	6

SFT9. 我的能力水準與我的同事們相當。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT1. 我覺得自己在公司是比較重要的，因為我有與我的同事不同的技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT2. 同事有時需要依賴於我，因為我有一些他們沒有的能力。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT3. 同事在做重要的決策時，有時會諮詢我，因為我看問題的視角會與他們不同。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT4. 我感覺自己在這個組織中是比較突出的。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT5. 我的知識、技能為組織提供了一些其他員工不能提供的東西。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT6. 我覺得我是讓這個組織正常運作的力量中不可取代的一部分。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT7. 雖然我的個性和其他同事不同，看起來我們能夠彼此互補呢。	1	2	3	4	5	6
CFT8. 組織裏的其他員工大都能夠欣賞我和“主流員工”不同的地方。	1	2	3	4	5	6
DAFT1. 我目前的知識、技術和能力能滿足公司對我的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
DAFT2. 我目前的工作經驗能滿足公司對我的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5	6
DAFT3. 我的人際交往能力足以與現在的同事順利合作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
DAFT5. 目前我的學習能力足以應付公司給我的新任務。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NSFT1. 公司能滿足我目前各方面的需要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NSFT2. 這份工作在很大程度上是我喜歡做的那種工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NSFT3. 在這個公司裏工作，我不需要耗費過多精力考慮基本的生活需要。	1	2	3	4	5	6
NSFT4. 在這個公司裏從事目前的工作可以激發我的熱情。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST1 我工作上的問題已經讓我晚上失眠。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST2 由於工作上的原因，我已經感到煩躁和心神不安。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST3 我在很大的壓力下工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST4 我的工作直接影響了我的健康。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST5 如果做另一份工作，我的健康狀況可能會得到改善。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST6 我常常“把工作帶回家”，因為我在做其他事情時時常會想到它。	1	2	3	4	5	6
JST7 我在參加工作上的會議之前常會覺得緊張。	1	2	3	4	5	6
TI1 我常想到辭職。	1	2	3	4	5	6
TI2 我很可能在明年會尋找新的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
TI3 如果能自由選擇，我仍然喜歡留在這個組織工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sat 總得來說，我對我的工作很滿意。	1	2	3	4	5	6

\*\*\*\*\*問卷到此結束。再次感謝您的支持！\*\*\*\*\*

### Questionnaire 3: Supervisor Rating

#### 2009~2010 ABC Newcomer Adaptation Survey

尊敬的 ABC Manager,

您好！

非常感謝您的合作！這份調研旨在瞭解 ABC 的 new agent 工作幾個月後的適應情況，為公司提供相關資訊以幫助以後的新 agent 更好地適應。我們作為獨立的研究機構與 ABC 合作進行這項調研。在這份問卷中，我們需要請您對這位新 agent 入職以來的表現進行評價。您提供的所有資訊，調研組都將嚴格保密，不會作為新 agent 在公司的任何記錄。在我們向公司彙報時，將只彙報全部新 agent 的資訊放在一起所做的統計分析結果。如果您個人感興趣，我們也樂意向您提供調研結果作為參考。為了讓最後的結果真實有效，幫助發現現存的問題，並提供改善建議，希望您能夠填寫真實的觀察和感受。如果您有任何問題或顧慮，請隨時與我們聯繫，我們的郵箱地址是 [jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk](mailto:jiangyan@baf.cuhk.edu.hk)。

再次感謝您的合作！

您評價的 **New Agent** 編號 \_\_\_\_\_

您評價的 **New Agent** 姓名 \_\_\_\_\_

	完全不同意	基本不同意	有點不同意	有點同意	基本同意	完全同意
IRP1. 他/她有很大的工作興趣和熱忱	1	2	3	4	5	6
IRP2. 他/她工作的持久力強，從不懈怠	1	2	3	4	5	6
IRP3. 他/她工作很專心，凡事都全力以赴	1	2	3	4	5	6
IRP4. 他/她的工作品質很高，錯誤很少	1	2	3	4	5	6
IRP5. 他/她的工作效率很高，速度很快	1	2	3	4	5	6
IRP6. 他/她的整體的工作表現很好	1	2	3	4	5	6

\*\*\*\*\*問卷到此結束。再次感謝您的支持！\*\*\*\*\*