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The Role of Socialization Factors and Social Capital in Newcomer Socialization Outcomes in UAE Organizations

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جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة
United Arab Emirates University

United Arab Emirates University

College of Business and Economics

THE ROLE OF SOCIALIZATION FACTORS AND SOCIAL
CAPITAL IN NEWCOMER SOCIALIZATION OUTCOMES IN UAE
ORGANIZATIONS

Yasmin Juma Sabt AlMehairi

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctorate of Business Administration

Under the Supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan

April 2019

Declaration of Original Work

I, Yasmin Juma Sabt AlMehairi, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this dissertation titled "*The Role of Socialization Factors and Social Capital in Newcomer Socialization Outcomes in UAE Organizations*", hereby, solemnly declare that this dissertation is the result of original research and has been entirely composed by me under the able guidance and supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan, in the College of Business and Economics at UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied upon or included in my dissertation have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this dissertation.

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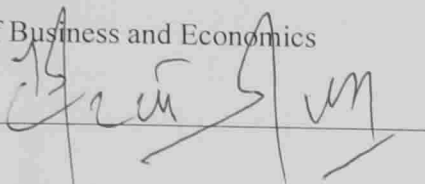
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Abstract

The process through which new employees acquire the knowledge, skills, and values important for becoming active organizational members is called organizational socialization. Scholars of organizational socialization believe that newcomers can learn about their organizational roles and achieve successful socialization by interacting with more experienced members in the organization.

This study explores the relationship between socialization factors in the organizational context and newcomer socialization outcomes, and how social capital impacts this relationship. We analyze how effective the socialization process is in building a social network. We develop an integrated social capital model of the organizational socialization process that throws light on how socialization processes, namely orientation programs, institutionalized tactics (social tactics), and social networks (their status, size, density, range, and ties strength) affect newcomer socialization outcomes, both proximal outcome (role clarity and social integration) and distal outcome (turnover intention and job satisfaction). The model also examines the moderating role of proactive personality between organizational socialization factors and short-term socialization outcomes.

The study sample consists of 154 newcomers from different occupations and sectors (governmental, private, and semi-governmental) in the UAE, specifically from Dubai and Abu Dhabi. Within a two-wave time-lagged research design, the participants were required to complete two questionnaires in the first 16 weeks of joining their organization. Most of the participants had spent less than one year in the organization.

Structural equation modeling indicates that social network played a partial role in newcomer socialization outcomes. The practical and theoretical implications of our findings are also discussed.

Keywords: Organizational socialization, social capital, social network, orientation program, institutionalized tactics, social tactics, proactive personality, socialization outcome (proximal and distal).

Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

دور عوامل التنشئة الاجتماعية ورأس المال الاجتماعي في تحقيق نتائج التنشئة الاجتماعية للموظفين الجدد في المؤسسات القائمة في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

ملخص

يُشار إلى العملية التي يكتسب من خلالها الموظفون الجدد المعرفة، والمهارات والقيم الضرورية ليصبحوا أعضاء فاعلين في المؤسسات بعملية التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية. وفي هذا الإطار، يعتقد المتخصصون في مجال التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية أنّ الموظفين الجدد يستطيعون معرفة المزيد عن أدوارهم المؤسسية وتحقيق التنشئة الاجتماعية من خلال بناء علاقات اجتماعية ناجحة مع الأفراد الأكثر خبرةً منهم داخل المؤسسة.

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على العلاقة القائمة بين عوامل التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية ونتائج التنشئة الاجتماعية التي يحققها الموظفون الجدد من جهة، ومدى تأثير رأس المال الاجتماعي على تلك العلاقة من جهة أخرى. ولتوضيح ذلك، ننظر في مدى فعالية عملية التنشئة الاجتماعية في بناء العلاقات الاجتماعية. وبناءً عليه، قمنا بإعداد نموذج رأس مال اجتماعي متكامل لعملية التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية وهو يسلط الضوء على مدى تأثير عوامل التنشئة الاجتماعية، لا سيما البرنامج التعريفي، والتكتيكات ذات الطابع المؤسسي (التكتيكات الاجتماعية)، وشبكة العلاقات الاجتماعية (حجمها، فعاليتها، وتيرتها، روابطها المتينة) على نتائج التنشئة الاجتماعية التي يحققها الموظفون الجدد: النتائج القريبة المتمثلة بوضوح الأدوار والاندماج الاجتماعي، والنتائج البعيدة المتمثلة بالرضا الوظيفي ونية الاستقالة من العمل. بالإضافة إلى ما سبق، ينظر النموذج كذلك في دور الوسيط الذي تلعبه الشخصية الاستباقية بين عوامل التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية ومدى تكيف الموظفين الجدد.

وقد شملت هذه الدراسة عينة من 154 موظفاً جديداً يؤدون وظائف مختلفة في قطاعات متنوعة (القطاع الحكومي، والقطاع الخاص والقطاع شبه الحكومي) في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة، لا سيما في إمارتي دبي وأبوظبي، حيث طُلب من المشاركين تعبئة استبيانين خلال الأسابيع الستة عشرة الأولى من تاريخ انضمامهم إلى المؤسسة، وذلك باستخدام نموذجين من البحث في فترات زمنية مختلفة. تجدر الإشارة هنا إلى أنّ معظم المشاركين في تلك الدراسة كانوا قد انضموا إلى المؤسسة منذ أقلّ من سنة.

وباختصار، أشارت نتائج نماذج المعادلات الهيكلية (SEM) إلى أنّ شبكة العلاقات الاجتماعية تلعب دوراً جزئياً في نتائج التنشئة الاجتماعية التي يحققها الموظفون الجدد. كذلك، تسلط هذه الأطروحة الضوء على الآثار الإدارية والنظرية لنتائج هذا البحث.

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: التنشئة الاجتماعية المؤسسية، رأس المال الاجتماعي، شبكة العلاقات الاجتماعية، البرنامج التعريفي، التكتيكات ذات الطابع المؤسسي، التكتيكات الاجتماعية، الشخصية الاستباقية، تكيف الموظفين الجدد، النتائج القريبة والبعيدة.

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Last but not the least, my parents, cousins and friends deserve a special mention, for their unending encouragement and for standing by me throughout my doctoral journey.

Dedication

To my beloved parents, who have always believed in me, sometimes even more than I believed in myself; my extended family and friends Hayfa Bu Hazzaa, Hadil Hani and Eman Almansoori for being the wind beneath my wings and strengthening my resolve in making my big academic dream a successful reality. Also to my team at work and to my team leader, Nuha AlNuimi.

Last but not the least, to my role model, Her Excellency Dr. Maryam Matar for inspiring me to complete my study and obtain my doctoral qualification.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Overview

Organizational socialization is the process through which a newcomer in an organization acquires the attitudes, behavior, and knowledge necessary to be an active organizational member (Fisher, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Elaborating the concept further, Van Maanen and Schein called it a process of “learning the ropes” (1977, p.3) within a new organization, whereby newcomers move from being organizational outsiders to insiders while adjusting to their new job roles.

1.2 The Organizational Socialization Process and its Impact on Socialization Outcomes

Previous studies have found that the initial experiences of newcomers to an organization are very important, as unpleasant experiences while starting out in a job lead to low productivity, disengagement, and sometimes exit (Louis, 1980). It has been empirically demonstrated that organizational socialization has a positive influence on employees’ commitment, job satisfaction, organizational fit, role clarity, performance, task mastery, compatibility with the organization, and adoption of the organizational culture, with the potential to prevent employees from quitting (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Jones, 1986; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b).

In today’s fast and competitive work environment, socialization programs need to give support to newcomers that goes beyond providing information (Rollag, Parise, & Cross, 2005). The performance and survival of organizations are critically dependent on strategies for recruiting, developing, and retaining talented workers (Schramm, 2012). It has been observed by Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, and Song

(2013) that individuals experience decreased job satisfaction during their first year of employment (Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009). This creates a need for structured socialization to reduce turnover while increasing the chances of meeting the performance goals of new employees within the first year. Organizations can make sure they “get it right” from the start by welcoming newcomers through an effective socialization process (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014, p. 440).

1.3 Problem Statement in the Context of the UAE

Changing jobs within the adult workforce is an increasingly common transition. Research indicates that many new employees quit their jobs within the first six months (Boswell et al., 2009; Slaughter & Zickar, 2006). Within this period, an organization will have spent a considerable amount of money per employee on recruitment, selection, and training but will not yet have benefited greatly from the employee’s productivity (Bauer & Green, 1998; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008; Wanberg, 2012).

In the context of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), where we conducted our study, Gulf News reported that staff turnover is higher than the global average, with 56% of employees looking to change their job in the next 12 months (Nair, 2017), which is considered the socialization period. Of these employees, 2% were new joiners in their first employment (Hays, 2018). The cost of replacing a single employee in the UAE is AED 15,180 (US\$ 4,125) according to the Hays GCC 2016 Salary & Employment Report (Khalife, 2016). This results in the loss of organizational profitability, productivity, and human and social capital (Ballinger, Craig, Cross, & Gray, 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

1.4 Research Gap: How the Socialization Process Impacts Socialization Outcomes

Organizational socialization has been an important topic of discussion within the corporate world and academia for over 40 years (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). How new employees are treated by an organization in the first few months of working there is a very important matter, because it sends the employees clear signals as to what is expected of them and how well they fit into the organization (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Chen, 2005). Thus, socialization practices in organizations, or “people-processing” tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977), determine employees’ response and adjustment to their new environment (Jones, 1986). Similar adjustment indicators have been studied by various socialization researchers in different ways. Saks and Ashforth’s (1997) model of organizational socialization (see Appendix 1) proposed information seeking and socialization tactics as antecedents of socialization outcome. They categorized socialization outcomes into two groups: proximal (role clarity, task mastery, self-efficacy, skill acquisition, personal change, and social integration) and distal (lower stress, higher job satisfaction, lower absenteeism and turnover, higher performance, and better organizational citizenship behavior).

Both proximal and distal outcomes bring about successful socialization (Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer et al., 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Adjustment failure can lead to reduced performance, negative job attitudes, and turnover intention (Bauer et al., 2007). Each organizational socialization factor plays an important role in specific proximal and distal outcomes, but because of conflicting findings and because no individual study has taken account of the full set of outcomes, the nature of these relationships remains unclear (Bauer et al., 2007).

1.5 Socialization Factors

According to Saks and Ashforth (1997), socialization factors can be categorized into three groups: (1) organizational factors, which cover socialization tactics, orientation programs, training, and mentoring programs; (2) group socialization factors, which include group-level social support, socialization tactics, and social learning processes as part of social cognitive theory (e.g., instruction, reinforcement, observation, and negotiation); and (3) individual socialization factors, which include newcomer proactivity in various forms (e.g., relationship-building, information-seeking, and self-management) see appendix 1 multi-level process model of organizational socialization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). This study will focus on organizational socialization factors, specifically socialization tactics (institutionalized social tactics), orientation programs, and the individual factor of proactive personality, which is used as a moderator.

1.6 Role of Social Capital

The effectiveness of organizational socialization is determined by the quality of the relationships that new employees form with existing members of the organization (Korte, 2010). The relations among the members of such social groups yield a value defined as social capital (Bourdieu, 2011; Burt, 2000; Coleman, 1988). The concept of social capital describes how social resources are integral to social relationship structures, and it explains how desired outcomes (e.g., high performance) can be achieved by individuals through access to and mobilization of social capital (Lin, 1999). According to some researchers, subsequent outcomes of organizational socialization can be affected by initial interactions, which makes it important to measure behaviors, interactions, and attitudes immediately after joining an

organization to determine how the effects cascade over time (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Korte, 2010). The interactionist perspective referred to by Reichers (1987) and Jones (1986), emphasized the interplay between organizational insiders and newcomers during the entry period; these researchers focused on the importance of social interactions between these key segments. Fang, Duffy, and Shaw (2011) discussed the important role of social capital in newcomer adjustment, establishing a theoretical model according to which socialization outcomes can be achieved through socialization factors and social networks. The implications of social networks have not been addressed in the literature on socialization, although research suggests that newcomers might be very dependent on network relationships for learning and integration (Hatmaker & Park, 2014).

Empirical studies have indicated the importance of taking social exchange interactions into account in research into newcomer organizational socialization; despite this, there has been little research on the importance of social exchange relationships or their characteristics during organizational socialization (Fang et al., 2011; Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Boudrias, 2014; Morrison, 2002b). The present study aims to fill this gap.

1.7 Dynamic Aspects of Socialization and Social Networks

The final point to highlight here is that the time factor is crucial for an insider attempting to build relationships and to adjust within an organization. Socialization involves change and evolution over time as a dynamic process (Fisher, 1986). Hence, it is important to measure how the processes play out over time with each individual, in addition to the newcomers' initial status. In most socialization studies, the constructs

of interest have been measured once only at different times within a longitudinal research design.

It remains uncertain how socialization processes play out in relation to one another (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). There has been no clear mention in the socialization literature regarding what time lags would be appropriate for measurement, about the intervals for particular changes (Wanberg, 2012; Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994), or about how data is best collected to assess socialization outcomes and processes (Saks, 1997a). While tracking socialization effects, researchers have taken into account various time intervals (e.g., three months, six months, nine months, or one year) and a three-month interval is the most common (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Jokisaari et al., 2013).

Many scholars have recently examined aspects of newcomer socialization (e.g., Boswell et al., 2009; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013); however, there is little information on how quickly newcomers can adjust to their jobs and organizations (Choi, 2014). The same applied to social networks literature as Fang, McAllister, & and Duffy (2017) stated, there is no definitive guidance on capturing newcomer social network patterns, and empirical research on such networks has been very limited in scope (except Fang et al., 2017; Jokisaari, 2013; Morrison, 2002b).

To sum up, in organizational socialization literature, scholars have considered many antecedents of newcomer adjustment, such as role clarity and social integration, with a focus on socialization factors (e.g., organizational socialization tactics and orientation programs), aspects of newcomer behavior (e.g., proactivity), and the roles played by insiders (e.g., coworkers or supervisors). However, the role of social networks in facilitating newcomer socialization has been given relatively little

attention throughout the literature (Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002b), and our study aims to fill this gap.

1.8 Research Questions

On the basis of this overview, and in an attempt to address the gaps in the literature, our study poses the following research questions:

- (1) Do organizational socialization factors (institutionalized (social tactics) & orientation programs) impact newcomer socialization outcomes?
- (2) How do organizational socialization factors impact newcomer socialization outcomes through social networks?
- (3) Does proactive personality strengthen the relationship between socialization factors and socialization outcomes?

1.9 Contribution of the Study

- (1) The study advances knowledge of socialization by integrating the socialization literature with the social network literature to examine the socialization antecedents to social network development and socialization outcomes.
- (2) The study is the first to examine the newcomer socialization process in the Arab context, in which societal and cultural values are very different from those of the West in regard to newcomer adjustment and social network development.
- (3) In addition to the private sector in Abu Dhabi and Dubai in the UAE, the study covers the relatively unexplored public sector (governmental and semi-governmental) in that context, thereby adding to the literatures on socialization, social networks, and public management.

- (4) The study measures employee social network data using time-lag egocentric methods for three types of sector (public, private, and semi-public), addressing the lack of studies on new employee egocentric networks in the process of socialization within the literature of public management, management, and organizations (Hatmaker & Park, 2014; Hatmaker, Park, & Rethemeyer, 2011; Morrison, 2002b).
- (5) The study contributes to the literature on proactive personality, as our findings shed light on the important role played by individuals (in terms of proactive personality) in the organizational socialization process.

1.10 Structure of the Thesis

In Chapter 2, we review and analyze the literature on organizational socialization and social capital, and then we present the proposed model. Chapter 3 presents the methods and research design of the present study, and Chapter 4 describes the data analysis and findings, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 explains the practical and theoretical implications for human resource management in the Arab context, concluding with the limitations of the study and directions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews previous research on newcomer socialization in the context of conceptualizing organizational socialization and social capital and analyzing the role of social capital in newcomer socialization outcomes. On the basis of this discussion, the theoretical framework and hypotheses for the present study are developed.

2.2 Conceptualization of Organizational Socialization

Organizational socialization is the process through which newcomers in an organization acquire the attitudes, behavior, and knowledge necessary to carry out different roles in that organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983) reported that Schein (1988) referred to the socialization process as learning the ropes, which means that a newcomer is shown how the organization works and is taught about their role in the organization. Organizational socialization occurs when employees take on new roles or responsibilities within or across organizations (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977), experiencing new jobs, organizations, and cultures (Bauer & Green, 1998). The purpose of organizational socialization is to teach new members in an organization the social skills and knowledge vital for integrating seamlessly into the organization (Morrison, 1993a). Organizational socialization helps bring out the best in newcomers, allowing them to integrate and understand their responsibilities and roles. This conceptualization further suggests that newcomers in an organization adjust to new circumstances in similar ways, despite great variation in the type of adjustment results achieved (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977).

In this regard, an interesting study by Chao et al. (1994) identified and examined different contents of socialization learned by newcomers during the organizational socialization process. Building on the existing socialization literature, they proposed that socialization has six main dimensions: performance proficiency, people, language, organizational goals/values, politics, and history. Performance proficiency is the extent to which an individual or newcomer masters the knowledge, skills, and abilities required for the job. Politics refers to how successfully individuals gather information, formally and informally, for work relationships and in regard to the organization's power structures. Language is how well the individual knows the profession's formal technical language and the informal acronyms, slang, and jargon of the organization. The people dimension involves the individual in establishing satisfying and successful work-related relationships with organizational members. Organizational goals and values consist of the individual's understanding of the goals of their work group and organization. Lastly, history refers to how well individuals know the traditions, customs, myths, and rituals that constitute the organization's culture. Collectively, these six dimensions constitute an overview of the concept of socialization within the socialization framework.

2.3 Definition of Newcomer

Before delving into the details of organizational socialization, it is necessary to define the term newcomer, which will be used extensively throughout the study. Newcomers are a group of individuals inside an organization who stand out from old and experienced members in how they think and act (Rollag, 2004). According to Xiao (2016), organizational newcomers are employees who have been hired recently and

are in the process of being socialized within their job roles, groups, and the organization in general.

Irico and Fuller (2016) defined newcomers as young people in the 18–35 age group. Newcomer is a label or status given to people who are new entrants in an organization and can be distinguished from experienced members. In an organizational set-up, identifying who is new and who is not simplifies information search, as newer people are rarely familiar with company traditions, procedures, and resources. This identification also allows organizations to target their orientation and training programs to the right people (Rollag, 2004).

As defined by Tracey, Sturman, and Tews (2007), newcomers are those who have been employed by an organization for fewer than six months. In order to segregate organizational members into newcomers and old-timers, researchers have typically used tenure (measured in months or years) as the yardstick (Rollag, 2004). The transition from newcomer to insider takes time and effort. Therefore, effective socialization can take place only after the completion of a certain period of tenure in the organization. Members who have been in the organization for longer have had more opportunity to observe, accept, and adopt the norms and values of the organization, and are therefore seen as more socialized than members with a lesser tenure (Chao et al., 1994).

Lacking experience in an organization, newcomers observe, question, and mimic old members, who in turn mentor, teach, and motivate newcomers (Rollag, 2004). It is only when newcomers can demonstrate in-depth knowledge of organizational routines, norms, and values that are they accepted by their coworkers as full organizational members (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Although the period of entry is a time of great

opportunity, all types of newcomer, from fresh graduates in their first full-time position to senior executives moving to a new organization, have to face complex challenges during this period (Bauer et al., 1998).

To sum up, in this section we have explained what the term newcomer is taken to mean in the socialization literature, as this term is central to the present study. In the next section, the importance of organizational socialization will be explained.

2.4 Importance of Organizational Socialization

As mentioned in Section 2.2, organizational socialization is the process through which a newcomer acquires the behavior, attitude, and knowledge necessary to be a participating organizational member (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). In socialization, an organization seeks to influence and shape its members, and an employee attempts to find acceptance within the organization (Fisher, 1982). Understanding the socialization process that occurs when employees join an organization is important for several reasons.

First, it has been observed that ineffective socialization in an organization can prove extremely costly (Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer et al., 1998; Louis et al., 1983; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). When employees quit soon after their initial training, the organization receives little return on its investment and must begin the recruitment and selection process again (Bauer et al., 1998; Black & Ashford, 1995; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). This applies in the UAE context as in others. As stated above, the cost of replacing a single employee in the UAE is AED 15,180 (US\$ 4,125), which impacts the productivity of the organization concerned, and HR departments face a serious challenge in retaining employees (Khalife, 2016). This is where the importance of

socialization process comes in. Organizations that accelerate the transition of newcomers into their new roles effectively can start benefiting from them sooner (Perrot, Bauer, Abonneau, Campoy, Erdogan, & Liden, 2014). Neglecting the newcomer socialization process could lead to job dissatisfaction (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007), disengagement (Saks & Gruman, 2011), and turnover (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

Another reason why organizational socialization is important is that the behaviors and attitudes of employees are greatly impacted by the socialization process (Slaughter & Zickar, 2006). When candidates join an organization, they have already formed their first impressions about it during the recruitment phase. After joining, as they continue to encounter, engage, and establish relationships with others in the team, they make adjustments to their initial impressions about the organization and those within it (Wanberg, 2012, p.179). According to Kammeyer-Mueller, Livingston, and Liao (2011), a newcomer's relationship with their team is very important, because it determines whether the newcomer will have positive or negative organizational behaviors. The socialization outcome is also impacted greatly by failure to change negative behaviors and attitudes in the initial phase (Staunton, 2017).

The third reason why it is important to understand and study socialization is to observe how organizations spread and maintain their culture (Korte & Lin, 2013; Louis, 1980). Effective socialization means that newcomers can more easily understand and embrace the organization's culture, values, and norms within a defined framework (Bauer et al., 1998). Socialization is the means by which new employees learn about organizational politics and power dynamics, which are part of the organization's culture (Bauer et al.,

1998). This reflects the need for newcomers not only to learn about power but also to acquire it, in order to succeed in their careers (Bauer et al., 1998).

Finally, organizational socialization can prove to be a competitive advantage, as it is one way, perhaps even the primary way, to ensure that new employees have the knowledge and skills necessary to add value to the organization (Yozgat & Güngörmez, 2015). Therefore, it can be inferred that organizational socialization leads to positive organizational outcomes by providing knowledge and skills to employees and valuable human capital to the organization (Saks & Gruman, 2011). This results in high job satisfaction and productivity and low turnover, thus improving the organization's performance dramatically (Yozgat & Güngörmez, 2015).

To sum up, the integration of personal and organizational interests reflects successful organizational socialization, which depends primarily on the harmony between the individual and his/her job and organization in terms of knowledge, skills, social abilities, and job demands.

2.5 Foundations of Organizational Socialization

Over three decades ago, Fisher (1982) stated that "There is a great importance to understand organizational socialization better." Empirical testing was at that time lacking in the socialization literature, making it methodologically weak and improperly understood (Feldman, 1976; Fisher, 1982), although there has been a lot of research in recent years at both the empirical and theoretical levels.

Saks & Ashforth (1997a) have summed up the four theoretical perspectives developed over three decades that form a multi-level process in the model of organizational socialization: (1) Van Maanen and Schein's (1977) model of socialization tactics; (2)

the uncertainty reduction theory; (3) the social cognitive theory; and the (4) cognitive and sense-making theory. In our study, we shall focus on Van Maanen and Schein's (1977) model of socialization tactics, which highlights organizational antecedents for newcomer adjustment. We start with an overview of socialization tactics.

2.6 Van Maanen and Schein's Model of Socialization Tactics

Schein and Van Maanen (1977) identified six tactics used in organizational socialization: context tactics, which can be (1) formal vs. informal, and (2) collective vs. individual; content tactics, which can be (3) fixed vs. variable and (4) sequential vs. random; and social tactics, which can be (5) serial vs. disjunctive and (6) investiture vs. divestiture (see Appendix 2). 'Classification of Socialization Tactics Dimensions' adopted from Bauer et al., (2007), Jones (1986) and Van Maanen and Schein's (1977) study.

Organizations can, and primarily do, influence the learning process through specific socialization tactics. According to Van Maanen and Schein (1977), newcomers respond to their roles differently because socialization tactics are used by organizations to shape the information newcomers receive; this offers a theoretical explanation of how methods influence socialization outcomes. They added that organizational incumbents could encourage newcomers to respond to and interpret situations in a predictable manner by withholding or offering information in particular ways (Jones, 1986).

2.6.1 Definitions of Socialization Tactics

Each of the socialization tactics in the model can be defined in detail. The first tactic is formal and informal socialization. In a formal tactic, a newcomer is isolated from

regular organization members for a particular time to make them learn new behaviors and attitudes in order to fit into the organization. The main aim of formal socialization is to ensure that newcomers develop the required behavior and learn everything that is needed for their new role. In contrast, informal socialization involves leaving newcomers to learn without any help (Allen & Meyer, 1990) and using their own sources, such as coworkers, mentors, supervisors, written materials, experimentation, and personal observations. The core focus of this tactic is to ensure that newcomers learn and develop every action required for the new role (Epstein, 1983).

The second tactic is collective vs. individual socialization. In collective socialization, instead of handling each newcomer individually, all newcomers are grouped together and made to go through common experiences. This is to ensure that newcomers have the same experiences, which will help them to come up with common responses to various situations in their new organizations (Epstein, 1983). In individual socialization, newcomers are exposed to learning experiences individually, not as part of any group. Collective socialization helps in role adaptation, where new recruits accept the requirements of their roles and tasks. On the contrary, individual socialization helps newcomers develop different and innovative approaches to their roles (Jones, 1986).

The third tactic is sequential vs. random socialization. In sequential socialization, a newcomer has to go through a planned sequence of steps to take on the new job role. This is a systematic way of introducing a newcomer to a new job role, where he/she is provided with all the necessary information regarding their role and required attitudes in the new organization (Epstein, 1983). In random socialization, newcomers are not informed of the experiences they will go through (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

The fourth tactic is fixed vs. variable socialization. In fixed socialization, a newcomer is provided with a timetable to follow as part of the new role requirements, while in variable socialization, there is no time certainty regarding how newcomers can make the transition from insider to outsider. The fifth tactic is investiture vs. divestiture socialization, which takes into account the identity and personal characteristics of the newcomer. Lastly, serial vs. disjunctive socialization tactics are where newcomers are provided with role models to inspire the learning process (Jones, 1986).

Jones (1986) looked at organizational socialization tactics from a different viewpoint from that of Van Maanen and Schein, grouping socialization tactics as institutionalized or individualized. Institutionalized socialization included investiture, serial, fixed, sequential, collective, and formal tactics, whereas individualized socialization included individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics.

To illustrate this further, Jones grouped socialization tactics into three categories or domains according to context. First, he claimed that collective and formal tactics are more relatable when newcomers are socialized. Second, he characterized sequential and fixed tactics in terms of the information offered through socialization. Finally, he regarded investiture and serial tactics as addressing the social aspects of socialization. According to this approach, institutionalized socialization tactics, as opposed to individualized socialization tactics, are a multidimensional construct involving structured socialization experiences and subsuming context practices (collective and formal), content practices (sequential and fixed), and social practices (serial and investiture) (Bauer et al., 2007; Jones, 1986). Our focus of study will be institutionalized tactics, specifically social tactics, which will be elaborated on in the following section.

Socialization tactics play a positive and significant role in newcomer adjustment by reducing the uncertainty involved in joining a new organization as a result of which individuals might become uncomfortable and look for ways to reduce the uncertainty as soon as possible (Jones, 1986). According to Jones, information is provided using collective, sequential, formal, serial, fixed, and investiture tactics to reduce the uncertainty associated with newcomers, encouraging them to accept preset roles passively. On the other hand, informal, individual, variable, random, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics encourage newcomers to challenge the rules and initiate their own approaches to their roles (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Through information gained from social interactions with superiors and peers, uncertainty is reduced and the newcomer can feel socially integrated within the organization (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). With the reduction in uncertainty, newcomers master task performance, understand their roles better, enjoy greater job satisfaction, and are more likely to remain in the organization (Morrison, 1993b), which is both a proximal and a distal outcome.

While the concept of socialization tactics defined by Van Maanen and Schein (1977), as explained above, has dominated the literature on organizational socialization, newcomer proactivity during socialization provides another perspective. According to Yozgat and Güngörmez (2015), an approach that started during the 1990s, known as the 'proactive' approach, argued that newcomers facilitated and shaped their own socialization and that self-initiated behaviors helped newcomers to occupy their new roles (Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2006). By being proactive, newcomers learn new skills through positive framing, information-seeking, and relationship-building (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), which helps them to gain knowledge and social resources for their work roles (Ashforth et al., 2007b; Gruman et al., 2006;

Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Proactive newcomers have a better understanding of their work environment, and they feel part of their organization (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993a) and more committed to it. Later in this study, we shall review the literature addressing newcomer proactivity during socialization, also examining whether, as a moderator, highly proactive personality leads to better newcomer adjustment than less proactive personality.

Before we move forward, we need to understand the socialization process and highlight the important role of social capital (network) in that process and in newcomer adjustment. We will then go on to shed light on the role of the socialization agent in this domain (Wanberg, 2012).

2.7 Process of Socialization

The main concern of socialization researchers is not just learning domains and outcomes but also the processes through which socialization occurs. Before 1986, several scholars had proposed stage models documenting the sequence and timing of changes that take place when newcomers start socializing with insiders. However, these models attracted little support, because they focused on the sequence during socialization without paying attention to how these changes occur. The various stage models were quite similar in their structures, despite differences in terminology and proposed timings. On the basis of these models, scholars have suggested that there are three distinct phases within the socialization process (Bauer et al., 1998).

The first stage is anticipatory socialization (Feldman, 1976; Louis, 1980), when newcomers prepare to enter an organization. Then follows accommodation (Feldman, 1976), a stage when newcomers start settling in by mastering their jobs, developing

relationships with coworkers, and learning how the organization operates. The final stage of socialization, role management (Feldman, 1976) or adaptation (Louis, 1980), is when newcomers become completely integrated as active members of the organization. After completing this final stage, newcomers develop their own organizational identity and adopt the values and behaviors of the organization culture seamlessly.

Fisher (1986) characterized socialization as a process of change that contains five types of learning: preliminary learning, where newcomers realize the importance of learning and identify sources to learn from; learning about the organization; learning to function in a workgroup; learning to do the job; and personal learning, where newcomers discover and learn about themselves.

In summary, stage models offer insights into the socialization process and into the challenges faced by newcomers and their organizations.

2.8 Role of Social Capital in Newcomer Socialization

As stated earlier, socialization tactics and newcomer proactivity are the key factors for successful socialization. According to several scholars, social interactions between newcomers and socialization agents or more experienced members of the new organization are an important way in which socialization occurs (Feldman, 1981; Louis et al., 1983; Reichers, 1987). Building on this insight, multiple empirical studies have found that the socialization process is differentially impacted by newcomers' interactions and relationships with a variety of social agents (Gruman et al., 2006; Wanberg, 2012). The literature on socialization considers that it is the responsibility of the newcomer to learn to fit in (Ashforth et al., 2007b; Korte, 2009; Saks et al.,

2007). However, the ability of newcomers to successfully integrate into the organization is also influenced by social relations and network ties, as described by proponents of the concept of social capital. For example, welcome activities initiated by the organization offer newcomers opportunities to establish relationships and interact with a wide range of social agents. According to Klein and Polin (2012), informal interactions may be insufficient to provide newcomers with everything needed for adjustment. Therefore, welcome activities can be an effective way to expand newcomers' potential resources in terms of agents who can provide essential social capital.

Social capital is an integral factor for individuals and organizations, and it affects the integration of new members into a group during newcomer socialization (Korte & Lin, 2013; Morrison, 2002b). As learning is a key factor in newcomer socialization, cognition helps understand how social relations and network ties affect newcomers' learning during the socialization process (Korte & Lin, 2013). The informal relationships newcomers form with coworkers, supervisors, and mentors (Korte & Lin, 2013; Louis, 1980) can facilitate socialization by serving as a source of information, advice, social support, stress reduction, and role behavior instruction (Korte & Lin, 2013; Louis et al., 1983; Reichers, 1987).

It has been acknowledged that a high level of activity related to social capital creates knowledge and exchange and promotes efficient teamwork while reducing dismissals (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). This transfer of knowledge also adds to innovation performance (Battistella & Nonino, 2012) and the growth of the organization (Rollag, 2004).

2.9 Conceptualization of Social Capital

The concept of social capital refers to benefits derived from relationships, as opposed to human capital (an individual's skills, ability, intelligence, personality, etc.) or financial capital (money) (Adler & Kwon, 2002). Social capital reflects the creation of value in response to an individual's investment in social ties to gain access to useful resources in a group or network (Lin, 2001). According to Nonino (2013), social capital is a network of ties associated with a cost (in terms of time invested) in relation to creation and maintenance and a value in terms of accumulated relationships and contacts. In such circumstances, accumulating social capital requires a strategy to maximize opportunities with correct investment and without network decay.

Brass (2011) viewed social capital from two perspectives. The first focused on individuals and how they might gain benefits or acquire social capital by accessing and controlling resources exchanged through relationships with others. This approach has been supported by studies that suggest that an actor (an individual, a group, or an organization) benefits from his position in the network. From a perspective of self-interest, individuals assume that they can deploy this social capital (Coleman, 1988; Lin, 2001) and profit from opportunities as a return on their investment. The second perspective focused on the collective, assessing how groups of actors collectively build relationships that benefit the group. This approach was supported by Coleman's (1988) reference to social capital as norms and sanctions, trust, and mutual obligations resulting from closed networks, including a high number of interconnections between members of a group and connected alter egos.

Social capital by definition includes concepts such as trust, relationships, networks, and various other resources that are intrinsically group-related (Adler & Kwon, 2002;

Lin, 2001; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998; Portes, 1998). Researchers have used the concept of social capital from the firm's knowledge-based perspective (Bourdieu, 2011; Coleman, 1988) to explain the creation and sharing of organizational knowledge (e.g., Adler & Kwon, 2002; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). This view regards the organization as a social collectivity and knowledge-creating entity in which individuals take the initiative to mobilize resources and contribute to collective goals.

Tracing the history of the development of social capital, according to Lin (2017), Bourdieu (2011) was among the first to explore the concept and was recognized by his peers as one of the major contributors to this subject (Putnam, 1995). (See Appendix 3 for the scholars involved in the development of social capital theory.)

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) defined social capital as *“the sum of actual and potential resources embedded within, available through and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit”* p.243. Their work formed the foundation of social capital in the management literature. However, within this, organizational social capital reflects the nature of social relations within the firm brought about by the collective goals and the shared trust of members, thereby facilitating successful collective action and creating value to enhance the capabilities of the firm through better knowledge creation and sharing (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

According to Coleman (1988), social capital is a resource for action that can be used as a tool to explore how social structures influence our interactions. This conception of social capital later adopted by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) helped to explain the influence of this structure and functioning of the social world. They claimed that although social capital takes many forms, these forms have two main characteristics:

they constitute aspects of the social structure, and they prompt the action of the individual within the structure.

Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) also clearly defined three different dimensions of social capital. First, the relational dimension includes the norms, expectations, and levels of trust or respect developed through interactions within the network. Second, the structural dimension is essentially the network's overall configuration and access to its resources. Third, the cognitive dimension is the set of codes, schemes, and languages that same-network agents use to make better sense of their behaviors and the environment. Additionally, Lin (1999) emphasized that social capital theory combines network size, relationship strength, and the resources of individuals in the network, and included the two important aspects of social capital—structure and resources—that will be used in the present study.

There have been three main theoretical approaches to social capital: weak tie theory (Granovetter, 1977), social resource theory (Lin, 1990), and structural hole theory (Burt, 2009). Greater access to information, resources, and sponsorship are the key explanatory variables common to all these theories in terms of the effect of social capital on career mobility.

The weak tie theory (Granovetter, 1977) was the first approach to the conceptualization of social capital, and it focused on the strength of the social ties used by a person in the process of finding a job. Granovetter (1977) argued that weak ties are a bridge between densely interconnected social groups and a source of unique information and resources. For the sample of job incumbents he interviewed, weak ties were better sources of information about job openings. However, this does not prove that weak ties are better than strong ones; rather, it indicates that in a network, the

number of weak ties is proportional to the number of valuable social contacts (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). In relation to social networks, it is assumed that because of limited opportunities and time, social actors rarely build social relationships; therefore, many weak ties bring more social capital than a few strong ties (Burt, 2009). For newcomers, it is a challenge to manage time in order to strengthen relationships or to establish trust with insiders, and this leads to weaker ties.

The social resource theory concerns the nature of a network's resources (Seibert et al., 2001), including social contacts with status, wealth, power, or control of resources (Lin, 1999). It emphasizes the importance of obtaining access to resources that may not be formally available through channels of socialization, for which newcomers develop ties with peers, more senior coworkers, supervisors, and upper-level managers (Louis, 1980; Morrison, 2002b). Social network research has found that by tapping multiple information sources, a network with members from different organizational units provides the best access to useful information. This diversity of members has been called the network range (Lewis, Kaufman, Gonzalez, Wimmer, & Christakis, 2008). Network status also concerns the extent to which one's network contacts hold high positions in the relevant status hierarchy (Lin, 1999).

The structural hole theory focuses on the advantageous bridging positions that connect people (Burt, 2009). As this theory is not relevant to our study, we shall not discuss it in detail.

2.10 Importance of Social Capital

In line with Burt (2000), most authors have argued that social capital is a metaphor, according to which social structure, like financial capital, is capable of creating competitive advantage for both individuals and companies.

Social capital benefits organizations in various ways:

- (1) through better knowledge-sharing, which stems from trusted relationships, common reference frames, and shared goals
- (2) through lower transaction costs because of high trust levels and cooperation, both within the organization and between the organization and its customers and partners
- (3) through low turnover rates, which reduce severance costs and expenses related to hiring and training, avoid frequent disruptions due to changes of employee, and maintain valuable organizational knowledge
- (4) through greater coherent action due to organizational stability and shared understanding.

According to Adler & Kwon (2002), strong social norms and beliefs in the work environment promote mutual value compatibility between individuals and their organizations. Similarly, Nonino (2013) emphasized that people remain within organizations because of loyalty to their colleagues, not to the company, and argued that social capital investments increase collaboration and cooperation, allowing talented people to express themselves. He also claimed that it is necessary to make groups stronger, because individuals are loyal to groups. Talented people are more

likely to be retained, because they trust the organization and feel more comfortable taking chances, which is what talent managers depend on to retain talent.

On the basis of the above findings and research approaches, social capital can be considered as the glue that holds communities together. However, the “dark side” of social capital is when it becomes so strong that it limits the individual’s ability to change the composition of the network as required by their tasks (Gargiulo & Benassi, 1999). The development of newcomer social capital is an important component in organizational socialization and integration of new employees (Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002b). For the learning and knowledge development of newcomers, the social relationships that they develop with organizational peers are important and function as highly influential antecedents to longer-term socialization.

In an early review of network research in organizational settings, it was observed that the social network approach views social organizations as a system of objects (e.g., people, groups, organizations) and relationships (Tichy & Fombrun, 1979). Given the importance of relationships, little is known about the types of relationship pattern that bring about effective socialization. Therefore, the objective of the present study is to address these issues by bringing the perspective of social network structure into the socialization process.

To sum up, the concept of social capital is controversial, as a number of problems have arisen from diverse definitions of social capital (see Appendix 4) and from an overstretch of the concept in application to phenomena, as well as contradictory arguments about the use and characterization of the concept of capital (Adler & Kwon, 2002). There have also been major problems in measuring what really constitutes social capital, taking into account the aggregated measures at all levels of analysis and

organization. According to Korte and Lin (2013), there have been difficulties in designing a focused social capital study in an organizational setting because of the varied and contradictory conceptualizations of the concept. Some critics have argued that social capital covers anything that occurs in a social group, even though different researchers have emphasized different aspects. Furthermore, investigating the effects of social capital on newcomers has proved problematic; for instance, it is unclear whether newcomer organizational socialization is facilitated by social capital or socialization creates social capital (and how we could know this). These difficulties have hindered the articulation of a clearer concept in relation to research design.

Nevertheless, social capital is useful in that it provides an interactive and exploratory process for studying social phenomena in new ways, as conceded by a few well-known social capital experts. By going beyond the typically individualist learning orientation of many socialization studies, an incorporation of social capital emphasizes the main resources and support that the social relations and network ties of the group afford.

Following this overview of the concept of social capital, we shall discuss the agents involved in developing social capital and supporting newcomer adjustment, highlighting the importance of people in the domain of socialization (Chao et al., 1994; Wanberg, 2012). Researchers have insisted that organizational socialization should always be examined in the context of relations and interactions of people with each other rather than individuals in isolation (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003).

2.11 Role of Social Agents

Scholars have noted that the quality of the relationships newcomers develop with organization insiders has an effect on their efforts to fit in, and that newcomers are

socialized more into the work group than into the organization (Korte & Lin, 2013). Therefore, it is crucial to identify the organization insiders and determine their role in supporting newcomer adjustments and developing social networks. In the domain of socialization, these insiders are called social agents. Peers, supervisors, mentors, and coworkers, referred to as social agents of socialization, play an important role in facilitating the settling in of newcomers with job instructions, advice, and social support (Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987). Newcomers gain a better understanding of organizational events and practices through interactions with experienced members.

Social agents are considered an important aspect of the newcomer socialization process and also of accumulating newcomer social capital (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014; Bauer et al., 1998; Louis, 1980). Newcomers attempt to fit into the social and organizational setting represented by these agents (Miller & Jablin, 1991), giving signs of social support for the newcomer to indicate that the environment will be positive and accepting. According to theoretical work on the subject of organizational socialization, the organizational insider social agent can strongly influence newcomer adjustment in situations where information relating to social integration is not provided by organizational socialization efforts (Moreland & Levine, 2001). Such theoretical discussions also state that informal interactions between newcomers and insider social agents are as important as the formal socialization process. Thus, it is very important for a newcomer to get to know the insiders first. In a study by Korte and Lin (2013), several newcomers mentioned that it was important to get to know people before asking them to help. Getting to know others was a way of learning what they expect and how they would react to requests for assistance. Understanding how relationships work out in the socialization process was crucial to the success of newcomers in the job (Korte & Lin, 2013).

Another important role played by a social agent is the promotion of newcomers' proactive behavior by providing them with the necessary support when they join the organization. For example, insiders, as they are more comfortable with the social environment, are the most likely people to approach a newcomer and invite him/her in (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). This supportive attitude right at the beginning may foster feelings of confidence in the newcomer, thereby encouraging him/her to reciprocate this positive social interaction with increased proactive socialization. Those who receive a lot of initial support from supervisors and coworkers are more likely to feel that their success is desired by their work groups (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013).

On the other hand, it is important to note that a social agent can also impact the socialization process negatively. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) found that undermining a newcomer in the initial weeks of joining will lead the newcomer to believe that he/she is not welcome. The undermining of newcomers by organizational insiders often takes the form of withholding support, belittling them, or taking credit for their successes. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) observed that such undermining might be a result of jealousy, issues of trust, fear of change, or differences between insiders and newcomers. Social undermining also makes a newcomer feel like a misfit within the work group and the organization, thereby reducing his/her self-efficacy (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013) and motivation to proactively engage in the environment. Under these conditions, the newcomer might react by withdrawing from the work group and making less effort to fit in.

There is therefore a consensus that social support during the entry period is crucial and very important in the encouragement of continued proactive socialization behaviors in

newcomers. Support and/or undermining from both supervisors and coworkers have complementary effects on the attitudes of newcomers, and this begins very early in the socialization experience (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). We can conclude that various social agents (both individual and collective) influence socialization outcomes as newcomers begin their jobs (Bauer et al., 1998).

This section has provided an overview of the importance of the role of the insider social agent and its effects on newcomer socialization outcomes. In the following section, we will discuss about our study's theoretical framework and hypothesis development.

2.12 Theoretical Framework and Hypothesis Development

To answer our main three research questions, we developed 'Figure 1' our study model of the organizational socialization process (Figure 2.1). We assumed that newcomers access and mobilize social networks and that this is critical for achieving socialization outcomes. On the basis of our model, we formulated 24 research hypotheses in three categories:

1. Direct effect hypotheses
2. Moderating hypotheses
3. Mediation hypotheses

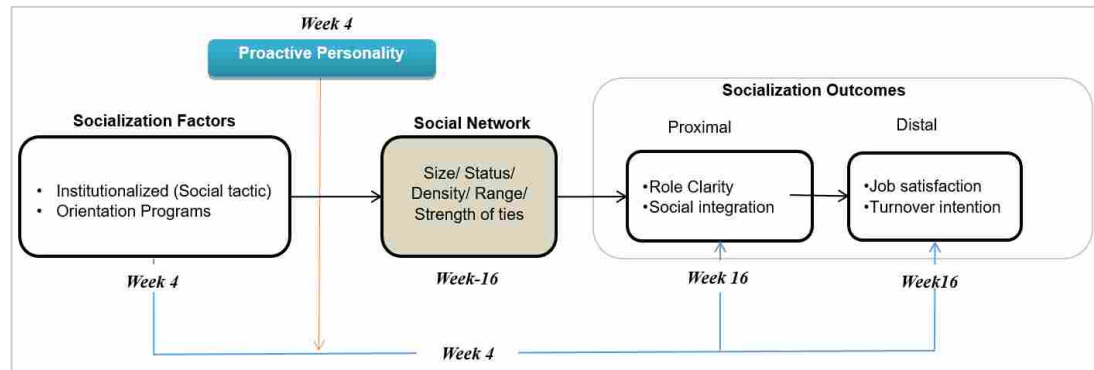


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Model

We relied on different existing models from the literature on socialization (Fang et al., 2011) to build our social capital model of the organizational socialization process (Appendix 5) and Saks and Ashforth's (1997a) multi-level process model of organizational socialization (Appendix 1). We made an adjustment by using proactive personality as a moderator in our study; in the models of Fang et al. (2011) and Saks & Ashforth (1997a), proactive personality was one of the socialization factors. The rationale for this change is that personality is a stable characteristic, and it is hard to change the personality of a person. Saks and Ashforth (1997a) noted that individual differences moderate the effects of learning and information on socialization factors and proximal outcomes for information and learning.

Our model focuses principally on two socialization factors: orientation programs and institutionalized (social) tactics. We chose these two factors for several reasons. First, both factors are organizational factors under organizational control, which will ensure that our study provides beneficial implications for HR departments and organizations in terms of newcomer adjustment.

Second, the entry period is particularly critical for onboarding newcomers and engaging them, and most organizations use orientation programs during this period

(Klein & Weaver, 2000; Saks & Gruman, 2011). This applies equally to organizations in the UAE, the context of the present study. Socialization for newcomers starts on the first day or week in the job with an orientation program, where they are provided with information regarding the organization and their roles. However, we know little about what determines how effectively orientation programs lead to newcomer adjustment (Wanberg, 2012).

Third, it is very important to engage the newcomer at the entry period, as observed by Saks and Gruman (2011), who were of the opinion that further investigations on socialization-specific practices were required to learn more about the newcomer's engagement in the entry period. Therefore, we chose social tactics as a factor for study, as they enable newcomers to develop relationships and social capital (Saks & Gruman, 2011), both of which are considered important for engagement during the entry period. Moreover, empirical studies have proved that social tactics are more strongly related to socialization outcomes than content and context tactics (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). As a result, our study focuses on these two socialization factors, which play important roles during the entry period and have an impact on socialization outcomes.

The second component of our model is social network. Social network plays the role of a mediator in the proposed model, explaining the relationship between socialization factors such as orientation programs and institutionalized (social) tactics and newcomer socialization (proximal and distal) outcomes. Social network is a mechanism that has received comparatively little attention in the literature on socialization (Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002b). Therefore, we aim to link the literature on socialization with the literature on social capital to better understand the

socialization process, and we will examine proposed socialization factors as antecedents of newcomer adjustment.

Third, the proposed model treats role clarity and social integration as two key indicators of proximal socialization outcomes, which lead to distal socialization outcomes, including job satisfaction and turnover intention. The role of proactive personality as a moderator of the relationship between socialization factors and proximal socialization outcomes will also be examined.

The following sections define and explain the variables in our model and how their interconnectedness leads to socialization outcomes. We then discuss the relationships between the variables in our model and the related hypotheses.

2.13 Socialization Factors and Newcomer Social Networks

2.13.1 Socialization Factors

The techniques that organizations use to orient and socialize new employees are referred to as socialization factors (Louis et al., 1983), and they include all formal and informal practices, programs, and policies initiated by the organization or its agents to facilitate the socialization of newcomers (Klein & Heuser, 2008).

According to Saks and Ashforth's (1997a) study, socialization factors can be categorized into three groups: (1) organizational factors, including socialization tactics, orientation programs, and training and mentoring programs; (2) group socialization factors, including group-level socialization tactics, social support, and social learning processes as part of social cognitive theory (e.g., observation, instruction, reinforcement, and negotiation); and (3) individual socialization factors including various forms of newcomer proactivity (e.g., information-seeking,

relationship-building, and self-management; see Appendix 1) and a multi-level process (model of organizational socialization) including socialization factors (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a).

This study will focus on organizational socialization factors, specifically socialization tactics (institutionalized social tactics), orientation programs, and the individual factor of proactive personality, which is used as a moderator (Figure 2.1).

I. Socialization Tactics

Socialization tactics are organization-driven and can be formal or informal in nature (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977), whereas proactive personality is individual-driven or informally “self-socializing” (Ashford & Black, 1996; Miller & Jablin, 1991). When a newcomer’s expectations and assumptions are not met due to a lack of socialization, he/she is likely to experience shock. To avoid this and to enhance the learning process, organizations use certain socialization tactics to alleviate the anxiety and stress that newcomers may experience (Ashforth et al., 2007a). Here, we will focus on institutionalized socialization tactics, specifically social tactics, as these may have a higher impact than individualized tactics on newcomer socialization outcomes (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998 Jones, 1986).

A. Institutionalized Socialization Tactics

The process of socialization typically starts as soon as newcomers join an organization. This is when most organizations use the institutionalized approach, because it is under organizational control and helps newcomers to identify ways in which the organization creates environments that aid and maximize successful adjustment. In institutionalized socialization, all newcomers are taken through the same learning experiences. This is

achieved through clear, defined, arranged, and planned events such as orientation programs, monthly/annual employee social gatherings, mandatory technical or non-technical seminars, and social events, and these are under strict time management (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). However, in individualized socialization, newcomers are introduced to learning experiences informally, individually, and infrequently in the organization. They are left on their own to define situations without any help from organization members (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Jones, 1986).

Institutionalized tactics also provide newcomers with the information and social resources they need to help establish a comfortable routine for interacting and predicting responses, thereby reducing their uncertainty (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005); being new, they may feel incompetent and lack confidence in such interactions. In short, institutionalized tactics provide *“a structure that enables newcomers to communicate more readily with coworkers and supervisors”* (Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995, p.77), and the structured approach allows it to be used as an advantageous tool for learning to adjust to a new role (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a).

According to Lapointe et al. (2014), institutionalized tactics are sequential and fixed, providing information to newcomers about the socialization process from organizational insiders within a specific time frame and ensuring that they are trained according to organizational standards through a cohort approach. This results in greater clarity, learning, and socialization with trainers who are generally supervisors or experienced coworkers (Fang et al., 2011).

Under collective tactics, newcomers become cohorts who share information to reduce their uncertainties through common learning and training experiences. However, institutionalized approaches have their own disadvantages, because they lead

newcomers into a more custodial role orientation, performing only the tasks clearly prescribed by the organization (Saks et al., 2007). Such tactics thereby discourage innovative role orientation.

As mentioned in the socialization literature review section, Van Maanen and Schein (1977) defined organizational socialization tactics in six dimensions: context tactics (formal vs. informal and collective vs. individual); content tactics (fixed vs. variable and sequential vs. random); and social tactics (serial vs. disjunctive and investiture vs. divestiture) (see Appendix 2). ‘Classification of Socialization Tactics & Dimensions’ adopted from Bauer et al. (2007), Jones (1986) and Van Maanen and Schein (1977) study.

Jones found social tactics (investiture and serial) to be the most important “because they provide the social cues and facilitation necessary during the learning processes” (1986, p.266). Therefore, our study will emphasize institutionalized tactics, and specifically the social tactics that provide newcomers access to social capital, which is also a focus of our study. Another reason for taking social tactics as our focus is that empirical studies prove that they are more strongly related than content and context tactics to socialization outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007).

B. Social Tactics

Van Maanen and Schein (1977) claimed that social tactics are primarily a matter of receiving feedback, mentoring, and identity affirmation; they also emphasized the importance of whether a mentor is present and the degree of recognition that newcomers receive. Social tactics are made up of two elements: investiture and serial. Van Maanen and Schein (1977) characterized serial tactics in terms of guidance the

newcomer receives from a mentor in the organization and investiture tactics in terms of the organization's recognition and acceptance of the newcomer's identity.

Serial tactics are better than disjunctive tactics at leading to supportive relationships between newcomers and insiders. Supportive relationships are crucial if newcomers are to feel free to ask questions and to understand the underlying rationale for experienced insiders' actions; such relationships also enable newcomers to choose appropriate behaviors in accordance with organizational norms. Newcomers are likely to feel more at ease with insiders when insiders value newcomers' abilities (i.e., when investiture tactics are used). This increases newcomers' confidence in asking for information or advice and in developing cooperative relationships (Jiang & Liu, 2015). Thus, research has established that serial and investiture tactics have the strongest effects on socialization outcomes (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Saks et al., 2007).

To sum up, newcomers are helped by social tactics to interact and communicate with organizational insiders to enhance their network status and increase their network range. Within that context, serial tactics enable experienced insiders to serve as role models or mentors; investiture tactics allow them to provide positive feedback and social support to facilitate newcomer relationships, competence, and confidence (Allen, 2006). As suggested by Cable and Parsons (2001), newcomers feel accepted when they develop social networks through interactions with and support from organizational insiders under serial and investiture tactics. Additionally, socialization activities (e.g., mentoring programs and training classes) under sequential, formal, or fixed tactics facilitate newcomer interaction with experienced peers or supervisors from different departments who can act as instructors and trainers (Fang et al., 2011).

This section has explained the first socialization factor featured in our model, institutionalized (social tactics). Next, we will discuss orientation programs.

II. Orientation Program

Orientation and socializations programs play a major role in ensuring that employees successfully achieve their goals and those of the organization (Wanberg, 2012). During employees' first weeks in the company, their focus is at the maximum, they are pliable to the company culture, and they are more likely to adopt the necessary skills quickly; this is therefore the time when one can get the most engagement out of them (Klein & Weaver, 2000). While employees are still trying to find their role within the company, they are willing to go to great lengths to define that role and to gain the control and comfort necessary for satisfactory job performance as well as for life satisfaction (Ashford & Black, 1996).

Organizations use orientation programs to speed up the adjustment and learning process known as socialization, through which individuals take on a role in an organization that fits individual and organizational needs (Chao, 2012; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). According to Klein and Weaver (2000), orientation programs are an organization's way of introducing new employees to their jobs, the people they will be working with, and the organization in general through specific training programs, which play a critical role during socialization by giving newcomers access to a variety of important information (Rollag et al., 2005).

Orientation programs are categorized as informal activities led by peers and supervisors, formal training programs (Louis et al., 1983), or a combination of the two. Although all categories are important for effective socialization, the focus of our study

is on formal, organizational orientation programs (Klein & Weaver, 2000). These are used by most organizations as part of the socialization process (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), making them one of the most common types of training program (Bassi & Van Buren, 1998).

Specific orientation practices assist organizations (a) in helping newcomers get acquainted with their new environment, (b) in reducing newcomer uncertainty and anxiety, and (c) in providing newcomers with the tangible resources (e.g., explicit knowledge) and intangible resources (e.g., relationships) necessary to become active organizational members in their new roles (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Fang et al., 2011; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Louis, 1980; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 2002b; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b).

The Society for Human Resource Management uses the term onboarding to define orientation practices (Bauer, 2010). In fact, onboarding covers somewhat more than orientation, because it includes all informal and formal activities that an organization initiates to facilitate newcomer adjustment (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Ellis et al., 2015; Klein & Polin, 2012). While socialization is a continual process throughout an individual's tenure with an organization and his or her entire career, onboarding is the initial process that occurs when an individual joins a new organization (Chao, 2012; Van Maanen, 1977).

All organizations offer some type of onboarding, although these activities vary in quality and depth and may not be even recognized as onboarding. Onboarding basics include orientation-focused activities such as reviewing job benefits and responsibilities, orienting to the institution's mission, goals, or structure, and becoming familiar with the physical surroundings (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Klein &

Polin, 2012). Quality onboarding (introduction to the teams, explanation of responsibilities and the company vision, feedback, resources, and socialization tactics) has to be present from the very beginning to provide new employees with necessary information through open communication, resource explanation, and individualized training in order to maximize the new employee's potential.

Klein and Heuser (2008) presented a framework that organizations use to facilitate new employee socialization. It includes three primary practices—inform, welcome, and guide the newcomer—and constitutes the Inform Welcome Guide (IWG) framework. The first category, inform, focuses on providing materials, information, and experiences (Klein & Heuser, 2008) to help newcomers learn everything they need to adjust successfully. This category is further divided into three subcategories: communication, resources, and training. Communication includes opportunities for two-way dialogue between the newcomer and company (e.g., a scheduled call) and one-way messages to newcomers (e.g., a welcome letter). The next subcategory, resources, includes practices beyond direct communications that make the resources necessary for successful adjustment available to new employees (e.g., an FAQ for new employees on the company intranet). The training subcategory features planned programs to help a newcomer learn the required skills through systematic acquisition of knowledge (e.g., orientation training).

The welcome category includes activities that celebrate the new employee by expressing appreciation of their joining the organization and providing opportunities to meet organizational members (e.g., a welcome lunch). These practices address newcomers' emotional needs (Klein & Polin, 2012) and help them to develop social capital.

The final category, guide, includes practices that provide newcomers with active and direct assistance (e.g., an assigned buddy), helping them make the transition from naïve outsider to effective insider. Research has suggested that organizations onboard different types of employees in different ways, as illustrated by Fondas and Wiersema (1997), who found that the broad socialization tactics used in onboarding executives (more likely to be informal, non-sequential, and individual) tended to differ from those used for lower-level positions. Although the IWG categories were designed to be applicable across all organizations, jobs, and contexts (Klein & Heuser, 2008), organizational characteristics (e.g., size and strategy) also influence how new employees are on boarded.

This section has provided an overview of orientation and onboarding practices. It is important to note that failure to deliver proper orientation may result in new employees receiving duplicate or conflicting information, or in vital information being omitted (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Klein & Polin, 2012), thereby creating stress and confusion regarding role clarity and self-efficacy.

Moving next to our model mediator, we will discuss social network, which is the key mechanism in this study for linking socialization factors with newcomer socialization outcomes.

2.13.2 Social Network

Social network has been used extensively as a measure of access to social capital (Lin, 2001). In the present study, we use social network to operationalize social capital at the level of the individual.

The first branch of social capital is social network, which is a source of social capital within the formal structure of the ties that constitute the social network; the second branch focuses on the content of those ties. According to social network studies, a network is a set of nodes and ties representing any relationship or lack thereof between the nodes. In the context of social networks, the nodes represent actors (i.e., individuals, groups, organizations) who can be connected on the following bases: similarities (same location, same group, or similar attributes such as gender); social relations (kinship, similar roles, affective relations such as friendship, or cognitive relations such as knowing); interactions (talks and advice); and flows (information) (Borgatti, Mehra, Brass, & Labianca, 2009). The study of relations between actors (Freeman, 2004) is the defining characteristic of social network research. These are relations that connect individuals on dimensions including friendship, advice, discussion, and dislike.

We shall measure the social networks of newcomers in terms of size, status, density, range, and Ties Strength,) using the egocentric method that will now be explained in detail.

I. Egocentric Networks

According to scholars, the concept of social capital is better measured in terms of egocentric networks or an individual's unique social contacts rather than in terms of entire networks (Lin, 1999; Podolny & Baron, 1997). Egocentric network studies focus mainly on how a person's unique contacts relate to variables at an individual level; they do not describe the overall organizational social structures (Marsden, 1990). Morrison (2002b) strongly suggested that focusing on egocentric networks was appropriate while studying the development of newcomers' social capital. According

to Morrison (2002b), the egocentric network is an individual's unique set of contacts, while other scholars have defined it as a set of social ties that an individual establishes with others (Marsden, 1990). An analysis of the egocentric network examines and explains the behavior of individuals (egos) in relation to connections with others (alters) (Marsden, 1990). Our aim is to understand and explain the differences in relationships and access to opportunities, information, and other important resources for individuals that result from personal networks (Marsden, 1990).

When entering a new work group, new employees interact with other newcomers, veteran members of the work group, and other significant individuals (e.g., employees of other departments, customers, and suppliers). Although the initial interactions may take place at random, over time a pattern of interaction develops (Brass, 1995) through which the newcomer understands whom to approach when seeking information necessary for learning the relevant roles, responsibilities, relationships, and ways of conducting business, and whom to approach for social support in the new work environment. These repeated interactions subsequently lead to the relationships that form the newcomer's egocentric social network, which is a subset of all the members within the new work group and organization. Ego repeatedly comes into play with this specific set of alters when trying to find the unique, tacit, informal, knowledge that they require to successfully assimilate within the new environment.

Table 2.1 lists the definitions of egocentric characteristics used in this study to measure social networks.

Table 2.1: Characteristics of Egocentric Networks

Egocentric parameter	Definition
Size	The number of members in a network that newcomers establish relationships with (Marsden, 1990)
Status	The extent to which one's network alters hold high positions or power in the organizational hierarchy (Morrison, 2002b)
Density	An indicator of the connectedness of the network members (Marsden, 1990)
Range	An indicator of diversity among members from different divisions/departments
Ties strength	An indicator of how strong a relationship is, measured by the amount of time, frequency of communication, emotional closeness, and level of reciprocity between two individuals (Marsden, 1990)

This section has provided an overview of social network and its measurement, applying the egocentric method. We move next to our model's final component, socialization outcome, the mechanism that this study will use to measure the social network (egocentric).

2.13.3 Socialization Outcome (Proximal and Distal)

Both proximal and distal outcomes bring about successful socialization (Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer et al., 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). How organizations treat new employees in the first few months of work is very important, because it sends them clear signals on how well they fit into the organization and what is expected of them (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Chen, 2005). Thus, the socialization practices or people-processing tactics of an organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977) predict how its employees will respond and adjust to their new environment (Jones, 1986). Similar adjustment indicators have been studied by various socialization researchers in different ways. Saks and Ashforth (1997) presented a socialization model that proposed socialization tactics and information-seeking as antecedents of

adjustment. They identified two types of socialization outcomes, which are, proximal and distal outcomes, (see Appendix 1 model of organizational socialization) which included all proximal and distal outcomes.

A proximal outcome, referred to in some studies as adjustment, indicates the quality of newcomer adjustment (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), in addition to fostering increased organizational knowledge, role clarity, and a sense of belonging and identification (Bauer et al., 2007; Fang et al., 2011). A distal outcome is a secondary outcome of the socialization process that is influenced by and is a subsequent result of the proximal outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007). Adjustment failure can lead to reduced performance, negative job attitudes, and increased turnover intention (Bauer et al., 2007). Each organizational socialization factor plays an important role in leading to specific proximal and distal outcomes.

According to Morrison (2002a), newcomers can successfully integrate into an organization by carrying out two main tasks. One task is learning, which includes clarifying roles, mastering tasks, and acquiring organizational knowledge to the best of their abilities (Chao et al., 1994; Morrison, 2002a; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). The other task is assimilation, which is being socially integrated with workgroups and organizations (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Morrison, 2002a; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b).

A detailed discussion follows of proximal and distal socialization outcomes, and particularly those that will be used extensively in the present study.

I. Proximal Outcomes

Proximal outcome is a primary outcome of socialization, and it has direct effects on newcomer adjustment that lead to distal outcomes, often occurring in the short term

(Bauer et al., 2007). Proximal outcomes mediate the relationship between the antecedents of socialization factor (Saks & Gruman, 2012) and distal outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) through role clarity, task mastery, self-efficacy, skill acquisition, personal change, and social integration. Some scholars of socialization have used the term adjustment instead of proximal outcome; however, the meaning is the same, as newcomers reach these outcomes during the socialization adjustment process (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

In this study, we will examine the proximal outcomes of role clarity and social integration. These outcomes have been chosen by taking into account the participants of our study, who are young and inexperienced employees with the potential to play a bigger role in the overall socialization of newcomers. Compared to employees who are transitioning from one role to another, first-time employees face more uncertainty about work (Bauer et al., 2007). This is why role clarity has a direct influence on newcomers' understanding of their job. In this regard, social integration is one of the most influential and important proximal outcomes, as well as being a vital part of the collective identity of the sample in this study (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). The effects of role clarity and social integration on socialization outcomes have been the subject of previous research (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007).

A. Role Clarity

According to Whitaker, Dahling, and Levy (2007), a role is the set of expectations or norms that the newcomer is expected to follow in the organization; they also noted that employees with high role clarity have a clearer understanding of the requirements of the job. In this regard, Bauer et al. (2007) found in a meta-analysis study that all six socialization tactics had a positive impact on role clarity. We chose role clarity as an

outcome because it enables newcomers to meet expectations and navigate efficiently in the organization (Saks et al., 2007) while addressing the tangible aspects of the job and the functional aspect of relationships. Employee behavior is predicted by role clarity or role ambiguity (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, & Johnson, 2011), and this increases newcomers' sense of mastery and control over the work environment at the entry period (Saks et al., 2007).

B. Social Integration

Social integration is defined as the integration of a newcomer into his or her new work group (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashford & Black, 1996). Feldman (1981) took social integration to refer to a newcomer being accepted by group members by way of trust. There are three primary reasons for selecting this adjustment outcome for study. First, empirical studies have shown social integration has been proven to be a positive influence on successful adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007; Morrison, 1993a; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Second, before newcomers can master tasks and negotiate job roles, effective integration into the work group is essential (Korte, 2009; Simosi, 2010). For example, Korte (2010) places great emphasis on the newcomers and their work group's initial interactions because the quality of their relationship affects the newcomers' attitudes, satisfaction, and job performance. Third, for safety and comfort (Hui & Graen, 1998) discussions about the feeling of being accepted into the group are important and relevant for newcomers. Hurst, Kammeyer-Mueller, and Livingston (2012) observed that newcomers, who are different from insiders, are less likely to be accepted socially, which cuts them off from the support networks in their groups. The extent to which insiders socially accept

newcomers may determine whether newcomers can be agents of change in the longer run (Wanberg & Choi, 2012).

II. Distal Outcomes

Distal outcomes reflect important attitudinal and behavioral reactions to the workplace that are mediated by social integration and proximal learning on the part of the employee (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Saks et al., 2007). These are long-term outcomes and include factors such as performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, advancement, job growth, turnover intention, and turnover (Bauer et al., 2007; Fang et al., 2011).

Fang et al. (2011) characterized distal outcome as career success, explaining that proximal outcomes such as adjustment influence the distal outcomes at different levels. Our study focuses specifically on the outcome at the level of the individual (i.e., turnover intention and job satisfaction). Distal outcome reflects not only conventional standards of success but also an individual's feelings of success in relation to his/her own goals and expectations. Therefore, measuring distal outcome is very important (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999).

In this study we will examine the two distal outcomes of turnover intention and job satisfaction, defining them before discussing their relationship in detail.

A. Turnover Intention

The first distal outcome in our study is turnover intention. Mobley's (1977) turnover process model of turnover, based on the literature on human resource management and organizational studies, identified a variety of possible antecedents of employee turnover. He defined turnover as a withdrawal decision process involving

psychological steps such as evaluation of job, evaluation of expected utility of search and cost of quitting, job dissatisfaction, intention to quit and search for alternatives, search and evaluation of alternatives, comparison of alternatives versus present job, intention to quit/stay, and action to quit/stay (see Appendix 6 Mobley's, 1977 Turnover Process Model). It has been argued that employee turnover has a huge effect on revenue and expenses and presents a serious operational and strategic challenge (Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer et al., 1998; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008).

Failed socialization (or the inability of the organization to prioritize or strategize socialization) leads to newcomers leaving because they did not fully understand their job responsibilities and duties or could not establish a relationship with their coworkers (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). This is a considerable cost to the organization, but it can be avoided. If a new recruit leaves the organization voluntarily, it reflects the organization's inability to transform the outsider into an insider (Feldman, 1981). A newcomer's intention of quitting demonstrates an organization's inability to retain its employees and suggests that the newcomer will leave the organization voluntarily and almost immediately. The newcomer's intention to remain in the job is affected by the degree of socialization and integration and by how welcome he/she feels in the organization (Allen, 2006; Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Saks et al., 2007).

B. Job Satisfaction

The second distal outcome in our study, job satisfaction, has been perceived in terms of effective orientation or the employee's feelings toward his/her work (Hass, 2015; Spector, 1997) in relation to expectation and reality. It includes a variety of facets, such as communication, coworkers, appreciation, benefits, work conditions, the nature

of the job, policies and procedures, and pay (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is an important factor within the socialization process, because dissatisfied newcomers who do not have favorable feelings toward their workplace might reflect a workforce that is not appropriately socialized into its new roles. As mentioned earlier, newcomers who have been socialized effectively enjoy a higher level of job satisfaction when institutionalized tactics are involved (Ashforth et al., 2007b; Saks et al., 2007), particularly investiture tactics (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007).

The last variable in our model is proactive personality. The moderating role of the potential newcomer's proactive personality traits in the socialization process has received little attention in the literature. This is in contrast to research indicating that proactive personality and situational factors influence work behaviors (Tett & Burnett, 2003). In order to understand newcomer acculturation thoroughly, the interactions between newcomer traits and organizational socialization efforts have to be examined and studied (Reichers, 1987).

2.13.4 Role of Proactive Personality in Short-Term Outcomes

Through the process of organizational socialization, new employees learn the attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge necessary to fulfill their organizational roles (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). This involves two main factors: first, an organization looking to influence newcomer adjustment; and second, an employee seeking to define his or her organizational role by being proactive (Bauer et al., 1998; Morrison, 2002a). According to Ashford & Black (1996), either newcomer proactive behavior or socialization tactics operationalize the process of socialization (Ashforth et al., 2007b; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Although research has proven these two processes to be relatively independent (Ashforth et al., 2007b), some studies have indicated that

specific socialization tactics and proactive behavior affect newcomer adjustment together (Kim et al., 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b), and this is the focus of the present study. On the basis of the proposed model (Figure 2.1), this study examines the moderating role of proactive personality between socialization factors and proximal outcomes.

The next section reviews the literature addressing proactive behavior toward socializing a newcomer in an organizational context. A discussion of our model arguments follows.

In order to reduce uncertainty when entering an organization, newcomers engage in certain behaviors to understand its norms and expectations (Kim et al., 2005). It has been shown that proactive individuals reduce uncertainty sooner because of three key attributes: being self-starting, being change-oriented, and being future-focused (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010).

Newcomers actively seek out relationships with key organizational players by initiating proactive socialization behaviors in order to gain access to necessary information, thereby positively contributing to their own socialization and adjustment (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Organizational research on proactive behavior has branched out into different approaches toward defining, measuring, and understanding proactivity.

Bateman and Grant (1993) defined a proactive personality as an individual who is more active in creating change in his/her environment, identifying and acting on opportunities, taking initiative and action for meaningful change, transforming their organization's mission, finding and solving problems, and having a positive impact on

the world around them. These behaviors allow the new employee to better comprehend the new role and work environment and to become socialized more quickly. In short, proactive strategies are the means by which newcomers facilitate their own socialization (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Ashford and Black (1996) highlighted several newcomer proactive behaviors, such as sense-making, relationship-building, framing behaviors, and job-change negotiation (to fit one's skills and abilities better). A further study has since indicated that proactive personality is related to four of the Big Five personality traits: openness to experience, extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism (Fuller & Marler, 2009). In order to assess how proactive personality is different from the Big Five personality traits, some researchers have concluded that the Big Five is not a theory and thus cannot offer insight into the psychological principles and processes that create a personality (Ozer & Reise, 1994), whereas proactive personality has a strong theoretical foundation that outlines its nature, antecedents, and consequences (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker et al., 2010). Furthermore, proactive personality involves a self-starting approach to work, whereas the Big Five offer a non-contextual and non-contingent framework (Ozer & Reise, 1994). Therefore, in view of the abovementioned observations, this study will use the proactive personality concept to further our findings.

According to Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000), the behaviors that are most employed by newcomers from the list presented by Ashford and Black (1996) can be classified into the following categories: sense-making, positive framing, and relationship-building.

The first category, sense-making, includes information-seeking behaviors such as direct inquiries to supervisors and experienced coworkers as well as behaviors seeking

feedback, where the newcomer seeks information on his or her performance from supervisors (Ashford & Black, 1996). Information-seeking behaviors bring better role clarity (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006) and greater job satisfaction (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Because socialization is a learning process, information-seeking is seen as crucial for newcomers to learn about their new environment and adjust better (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011), while feedback-seeking behavior is associated with greater job mastery and performance (Saks et al., 2011; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Overall, sense-making behaviors help newcomers to integrate better and develop more positive attitudes.

The second category, positive framing, is cognitive in nature and is a self-management technique employed by newcomers to focus on the positive aspects of difficult or stressful situations, such as adjustment to a new work environment. This involves them seeing problems and challenges as opportunities rather than as obstacles (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), an attitude that facilitates learning and development. Newcomers reduce and manage stressful situations during organizational entry with this “problem focused coping effort” (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000. p.375), which is why it is linked to better social integration, higher levels of job satisfaction, and lower intention to quit (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), all of which are crucial in newcomer adjustment.

Finally, relationship-building behaviors are connected to networking, general socializing, and forming ties with supervisors and work groups. They provide newcomers with friendships and support, and they contribute to social capital

(Morrison, 2002b; Nelson & Quick, 1991; Reichers, 1987). Research has suggested that by having a large number of network ties, one can acquire information and resources (Podolny & Baron, 1997), and an individual who initiates more network-building is the perfect example of a proactive personality.

Scholars have agreed that proactive behavior has many benefits. According to Fuller and Marler's (2009) meta-analysis, proactive individuals enjoy higher career success and job performance, better social integration, greater learning, more role innovation, increased job satisfaction, and lower intention to quit (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011).

2.13.5 Hypothesis Development

The previous section provided an overview of each variable in our model. We shall now discuss the 24 hypotheses that have been developed to answer the research questions and which fall under the following categories:

- I. Direct effect hypotheses
- II. Moderating hypotheses
- III. Mediation hypotheses.

I. Direct Effect Hypotheses

We begin by discussing the first three direct hypotheses, which are connected to each other.

As Jones (1986) and Allen (2006) proposed, socialization tactics are meant to reduce uncertainty, thereby reducing ambiguity and allowing newcomers to foster positive attitudes and facilitate adjustment.

As stated earlier, social or interpersonal aspects of organizational socialization are referred to as institutionalized tactics (social tactics); of these, social tactics are more important, because they enable newcomers to develop relationships with coworkers and gain access to information, feedback, coaching, and support, which are vital for social networking (Saks & Gruman, 2011; Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). Through interactions with insiders, newcomers get a clear understanding of their objectives and responsibilities in the organization and the appropriate behaviors required to achieve these (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). In situations where role expectations are ambiguous or unclear, newcomers face confusion and dissatisfaction, not knowing where to direct their efforts (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Therefore, institutionalized tactics (social tactics) help newcomers with role clarity, enabling them to build the necessary competencies for their duties and perform their tasks diligently (Saks & Gruman, 2011). This leads us to propose the first hypothesis:

H1: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) are positively related to role clarity at time 1.

For newcomers, work relationships are primarily for acquiring information, whereas social relationships are for support and foster a sense of acceptance, belonging, and social integration (Morrison, 2002b). The quality of the relationships between newcomers and their coworkers has been shown to play a significant role in their social integration in the workplace (Korte & Lin, 2013). This leads us to propose the hypotheses H2 and H5:

H2: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) are positively related to social integration at time 1.

H5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) at time 2.

H5.1: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and size.

H5.2: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and status.

H5.3: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and density.

H5.4: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and range.

H5.5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and strength of ties.

We now come to our second socialization factor, orientation programs, which we hypothesize leads to newcomer adjustment at time 1.

Organizational socialization helps companies to retain top performers and eliminate employees who are not a good fit. Socialization is therefore key to the assimilation process, because newcomers tend to leave if they cannot integrate into the culture and values of the organization. Orientation speeds up the process of adjustment, serving to eliminate workers who are misfits within a shorter period, and this helps to maximize productivity by reducing shock factors among newcomers and reducing turnover rates (Wesson & Gogus, 2005). Orientation programs, defined as formal training programs for introducing new employees to their jobs, coworkers, and organizational culture (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Wesson & Gogus, 2005), are popular tools for effective onboarding. These programs provide newcomers with realistic job previews and help them to adjust more quickly and confidently (Bauer, 2013). According to Saks & Ashforth's (1997a) organizational socialization model, orientation programs are considered to be one of the main socialization factors.

Research suggests that managing the early experiences of newcomers through orientation programs helps decrease the role ambiguity (Sakires, Doherty, & Misener, 2009; Taylor, Doherty, & McGraw, 2015; Wesson & Gogus, 2005) that occurs when there is a lack of clarity as to what is expected out of the newcomer (Eatough et al., 2011). In this connection, it is important that the organization delivers accurate information to the newcomer. Most companies offer only one or two days of orientation, and employees often feel that this is not enough to get all the information and data they need without being overwhelmed (Buha, 2014; Fleming et al., 2016), which leads to role ambiguity. A typical orientation program should include everything about the organization: mission, hierarchy, and coordination between functional areas. An organization should make efforts to foster a greater understanding of role clarity and of organizational structure and goals among newcomers (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). According to Bauer (2013), orientation programs are also used to connect newcomers with organization insiders, initiating interpersonal relationships that help them to get support and information about the job and the organization. They result in better role clarity and more confidence for new employees, benefiting both the new employee and the organization. This leads us to propose the hypothesis H3:

H3: Orientation programs are positively related to role clarity at time 1.

In a study of student retention, Braxton and McClendon (2001) demonstrated that orientation sessions fostered social integration and had an indirect but positive effect on persistence. This is why first-year orientation programs play an important role in retaining enrolled students. Orientation programs facilitate social integration in terms of being part of the work team or group (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Taylor et al., 2015). Moreover, the assimilation of new employees that takes place through

orientation programs requires an effective organizational structure and communication process (Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Organizations structure their orientation sessions in a way where social integration is more likely attributed to interaction with coworkers than with leaders or with the organization itself (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Therefore, it can be inferred that newcomers start developing their social networks with colleagues while learning about cultural norms and values during the orientation program, which has a positive impact on social integration and social network development. This leads us to propose the hypotheses H4 and H6:

H4: Orientation programs are positively related to social integration at time 1.

H6: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).

H6.1: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and size.

H6.2: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and status.

H6.3: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and density.

H6.4: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and range.

H6.5: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and strength of ties.

To sum up, as stated above, developing a social network leads to social integration and role clarity during the socialization process. This leads us to propose the hypotheses H7 and H8:

H7: Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.1: Size is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.2: Status is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.3: Density is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.4: Range is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.5: Strength of ties is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H8. Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.1: Size is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.2: Status is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.3: Density is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.4: Range is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.5: Strength of ties is positively related to social integration at time 2.

This brings us to the direct effect hypothesis category, which consists of eight hypotheses that examine the relationship between proximal and distal outcomes at time 1 and time 2.

2.13.6 Relationship Between Distal and Proximal Outcomes

As mentioned earlier, the proximal outcomes that we examine in this study are role clarity and social integration, and the distal outcomes are job satisfaction and turnover intention. While proximal outcomes are associated primarily with newcomer adjustment, distal outcomes affect both the newcomer and the organization (Hatmaker, Mayson, & Raaphorst, 2016). Reio and Callahan (2004) argued that proximal outcomes emphasize why and how newcomers learn, whereas distal outcomes

emphasize what they learn. It is important to examine the two outcomes closely and to understand their relationship.

Newcomers perform better when they understand their tasks and responsibilities clearly. Role clarity gives them directions for how to complete their tasks successfully, and they make satisfactory progress and can form a clearer indication of their career because they know what they are expected to do. They also have more confidence and are likely to stay longer in the organization. Therefore, we argue that role clarity is positively associated with job satisfaction and negatively associated with turnover intention. This leads us to propose the hypotheses H9, H10, H13 and H14:

H9: Role clarity at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H10: Role clarity at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

H13: Role clarity at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H14: Role clarity at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

Role clarity is the learning aspect of socialization, and social integration is the assimilation part. Social integration lowers newcomers' turnover intentions. Soltis, Agneessens, Sasovova, and Labianca (2013) explained that when people are linked socially to coworkers, they are less likely to quit. Highly social and better integrated employees develop strong attachments to their workgroups and organizations, which lowers their intention to quit (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Soltis et al., 2013). Hence, newcomers are less likely to leave the organization if they perceive themselves as being valuable and successful organizational members (Choi, 2014). In other words, greater role clarity will positively affect job satisfaction and career goals while negatively impacting turnover intention. Therefore, it is to be expected that the growth

of social integration will negatively impact turnover intention and be positively associated with job satisfaction. This leads us to propose the hypotheses H11, H12, H15 and H16:

H11: Social integration at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H12: Social integration at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

H15: Social integration at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H16: Social integration at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

The second category of hypothesis in our study is the moderating hypothesis, which shows how newcomers can actively initiate their own socialization through proactive behaviors that quicken their adjustment within the organization. This category consists of four hypotheses.

II. Moderating Hypothesis

The present study investigates the moderating role of proactive personality, which may strengthen the relationship between socialization factors (social tactics and orientation programs) and newcomer adjustment or proximal outcome (role clarity and social integration) at time 1.

The first thing to note is that an orientation program is a process that takes new employees into an organization and equips them with the tools and resources necessary for adjustment. Events planned by the organization (Klein et al., 2015) create opportunities for newcomers to initiate proactive behaviors, enabling them to acquire

a better understanding of their roles and work environment, thereby achieving quicker positive socialization. In this situation, newcomers fit the job criteria and display proactive behaviors (Ashford & Black, 1996; Kim et al., 2005). When newcomers expand their social networks, this impacts their role clarity and social integration and increases their levels of job satisfaction. This leads us to propose the hypotheses H17 and H18:

H17: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.

H18: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.

Scholars have claimed that institutionalized socialization provides structured learning opportunities for the newcomer, particularly through serial and collective tactics, thereby making learning salient and intense while providing ready opportunities to ask questions and build relationships proactively (Ashforth et al., 2007a; Mignerey et al., 1995). Newcomers' use of observation, information- and feedback- seeking, general socializing, and relationship-building are also affected positively by institutionalized socialization (Gruman et al., 2006; Mignerey et al., 1995).

Highly proactive newcomers have been found to be more likely than less proactive newcomers to exchange work-related and organization-related information during the socialization process (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). It is also possible for newcomers to develop and exchange knowledge and participate in activities through social network ties (Cooper-Thomas, Paterson, Stadler, & Saks, 2014; Nahapiet &

Ghoshal, 1998). Proactive individuals are therefore more inclined to building relationships to gain access to important informational resources.

Some scholars have argued that the influence of socialization tactics on different adjustment variables is moderated by proactivity, in such a way that institutionalized socialization is more related to the adjustment of less proactive newcomers (Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005). However, a considerable amount of research has found that organizational socialization tactics and the proactive behavior of newcomers speed up the adjustment process (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Chen & Eldridge, 2011). These behaviors can lead to better social acceptance from coworkers (Gruman et al., 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), and there is evidence that proactive relationship-building and feedback-seeking is also related to increased role clarity for newcomers in an organization (Gruman et al., 2006; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). This leads us to propose the hypotheses H19 and H20:

H19: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals with higher levels of proactive personality.

H20: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals with higher levels of proactive personality.

We can argue that organizational efforts to assimilate the newcomer and his/her proactive efforts jointly influence newcomer socialization outcomes. To sum up, newcomer proactive behaviors are related to proximal socialization outcomes such as learning, role clarity, and task mastery (Ashforth et al., 2007b; Gruman et al., 2006). Therefore, we anticipate that proactive personality has a definitive positive impact on newcomer proximal outcome (role clarity and social integration) during time 1.

Coming to our third category of hypothesis, serial mediation, we examine the relationship between socialization factors, social network, and proximal and distal outcomes.

III. Serial Mediation Hypotheses

Our review of the literature indicated that newcomer job satisfaction is associated with institutionalized tactics (Bauer et al., 2007). Extensive research has found that social relations between colleagues and supervisors have a great influence on overall job satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2001; Sluss & Thompson, 2012). Scholars of organizational socialization have agreed that newcomers learn role clarity through interactions with more experienced members in the organization (Jokisaari, 2013).

Newcomers experience better job satisfaction after increased socialization in the social domain. Furthermore, interactions with senior staff increase newcomers' feelings of familiarity and help them become psychologically attached to the organization sooner (social integration) (Tan & Shen, 2016). Korte and Line (2103) emphasized that newcomers who shared a better quality of relationship with their coworkers and managers displayed higher levels of social integration, camaraderie, performance, and job satisfaction. This leads us to propose the hypothesis H21:

H21: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

It has been found that social tactics have a negative impact on newcomer turnover (Allen, 2006). For example, investiture tactics may decrease newcomers' intention to quit by communicating that they are valued by the organization, thus directly increasing job satisfaction (Ashforth et al., 2007a). Research has also indicated that newcomers who find their coworkers to be helpful channels during socialization report

lower levels of intention to quit and are more satisfied with their jobs (Louis et al., 1983). Serial socialization tactics that involve supportive role models have also been found to increase organizational commitment and to lower turnover intention (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Therefore, there is ample evidence to suggest that the social aspects of the socialization process reduce turnover in organizations. This leads us to propose the hypothesis H23:

H23: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

Orientation programs bring together newcomers and organizational actors from different network positions with differential access to resources and capable of providing opportunities for newcomers to integrate into the group (Korte & Lin, 2013). This is the stage where newcomers develop clarity about their position within the group and get to know who can help them learn the tasks and procedures of this position. Newcomers who fail to gain a clear idea of their position show higher levels of disappointment and anxiety, and are more likely to report feeling isolated and neglected. This has a negative impact on their social integration within the group and their satisfaction with work and with the organization (Korte & Lin, 2013). It falls to managers to ensure that a newcomer meets all the appropriate stakeholders during the entry period in order to feel welcome, because that is when they can be more productive, less stressed, and more team-focused, qualities that translate into lower turnover intention (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013).

Taylor et al. (2015) reported that newcomers were likely to exit the company within the first few months. This highlights the role that orientation programs can play in reducing turnover by making the entry stage pave the way for a satisfying work

experience. Another crucial point for reducing turnover is the need for organizations to ensure that they do not pair a newcomer with someone who is negative or who makes the newcomer feel unwelcome and unaccepted in the work group (Kammeyer-Mueller, et al., 2013). Braxton & McClendon (2001) observed that orientation programs provide multiple opportunities for newcomers to interact socially with their peers through various activities, such as picnics, mixers, and other group-based activities that require active newcomer participation. Such activities should foster collaborative learning and interaction among group members, suggesting that peer involvement during the entry phase exerts a positive influence on newcomer social integration (Chen & Eldridge, 2011; Wanberg, 2012). This leads us to propose the hypotheses H22 and H24:

H22: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration

H24: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

To sum up, it is only through a well-designed and coordinated orientation program that newcomers can socially integrate into the organization and gain access to the tools and resources required for professional and personal success (Hall-Ellis, 2014).

This chapter has provided an overview of the study and the model that it will examine. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 show the conceptual models of the relationships at time 1 and time 2, respectively.

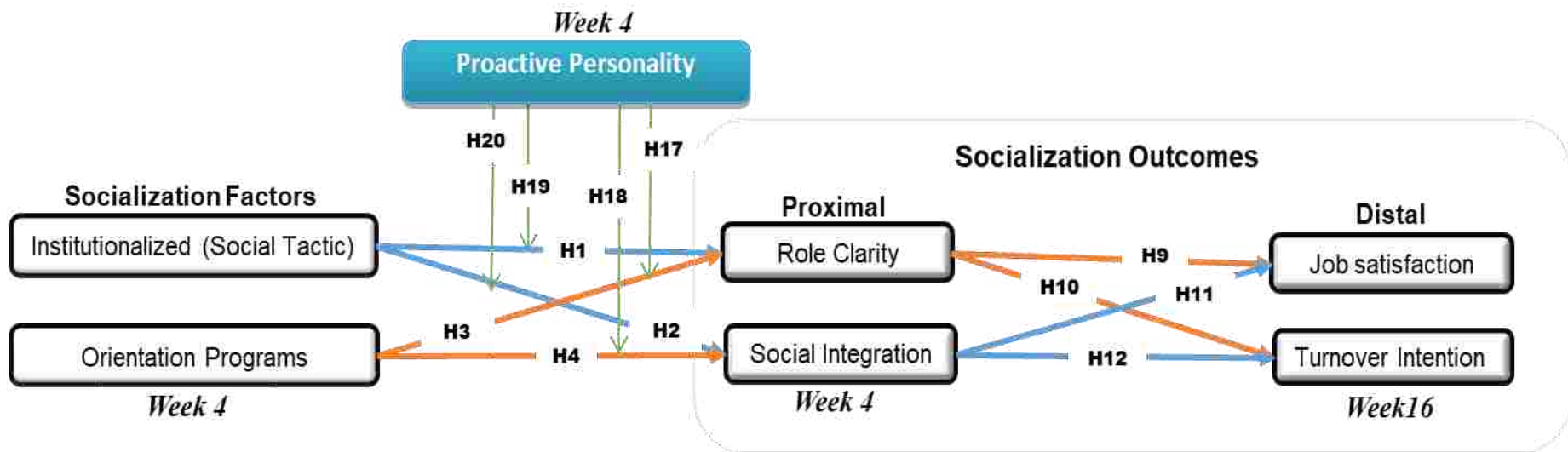


Figure 2.2: Conceptual Model of Relationships at Time 1

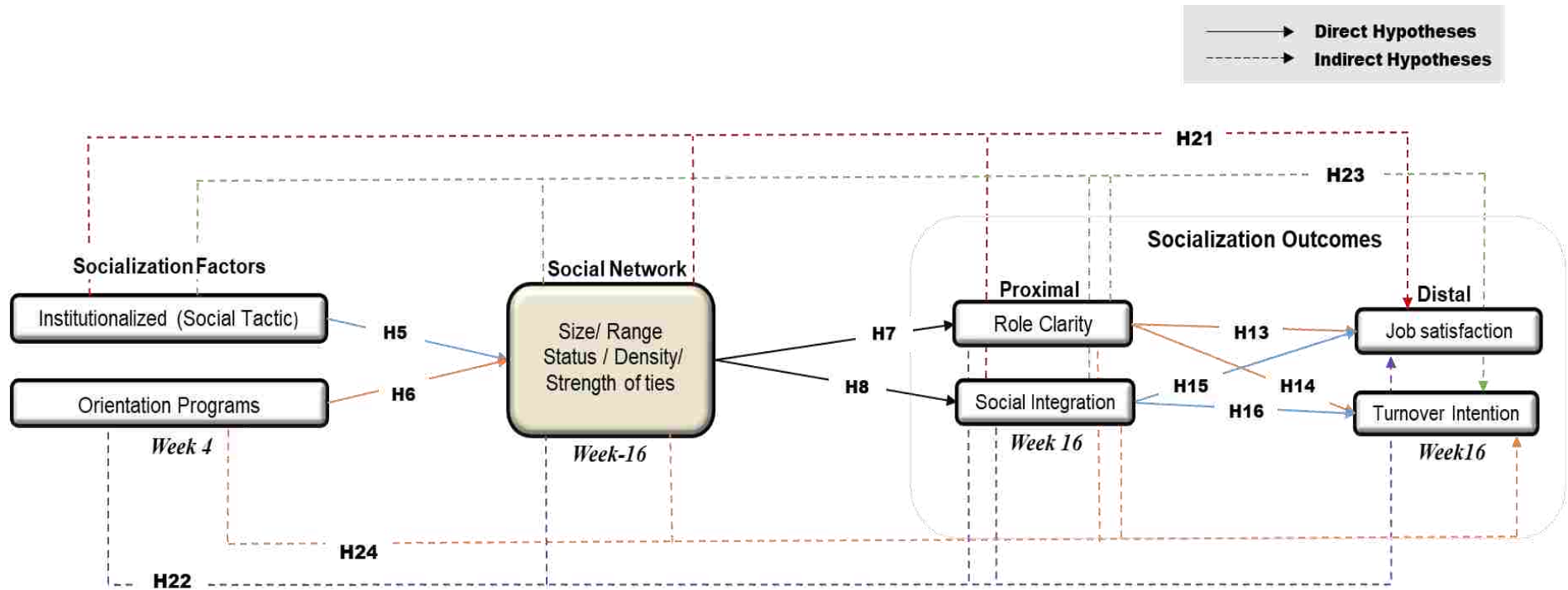


Figure 2.3: Conceptual Model of Relationships at Time 2

To obtain data relevant to the research questions, we collected primary data from newcomers who are UAE nationals, as will be explained in detail in the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Method

3.1 Research Philosophy

When collecting new data, having a research approach is strategically important. Our study aims to explore and understand the relationship between organizational socialization and social capital; this leads to a positivist paradigm, as positivism takes a clear and quantitative approach to the phenomena under investigation (Crossan, 2003). In positivist studies, an objective approach limits the researcher's role to data collection and interpretation, and the research findings can usually be observed and quantified (Crossan, 2003). Quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis are characteristic of positivism (Crossan, 2003). On a positivistic approach, the researcher needs to concentrate on facts, unlike a phenomenological approach, which focuses more on meaning to generate better human interest (Crossan, 2003). According to Crowther and Lancaster (2012), positivist studies usually adopt a deductive research approach, whereas an inductive approach is more closely related to phenomenological studies. A deductive approach is often used to test the relationship between theory and research (Bryman, 2004). This study will therefore adopt a quantitative approach, using a survey to collect the data.

3.2 Sample

As this study concerns organizational socialization, the target sample consists of newcomers to organizations. In order to reach newcomers, the researcher identified different types of organization in the governmental, semi-governmental, and private sectors in Abu Dhabi and Dubai that were planning to recruit newcomers in the next 10 months. Because it was very challenging to find a single sector that would recruit a high number of newcomers within the period of a month required for our study, we

considered three sectors. In the initial phase, the researcher asked the selected organizations to provide their 2017 recruitment plans by month. In the next step, follow-up requests were sent to each sector asking them to participate in the first survey after newcomers had completed one month. HR assistance was used to identify potential participants from the database of new joiners, and the study considered only recently graduated UAE nationals at entry level with less than a year's experience as full-time employees in their respective organizations.

3.3 Procedures

In order to successfully conduct the study, the researcher gained access to the organization in each sector by submitting a request to the Director of HR. The researcher used different approaches to collect data from the participants. The first approach involved encouraging participation through orientation and a presentation on the study, followed by the survey after they had completed their first month (four weeks) in the organization. In the second approach, the researcher requested potential participants to complete the first online survey through email. The third approach was drop and pick, in which the researcher provided a hard copy of the survey to the HR team to be handed out to newcomers a month after joining; alternatively, HR could call the researcher to conduct the survey with the new joiners. For participants who chose the online survey approach, in the event of their failing to complete the survey within a week, a maximum of three regular reminders were sent.

To make the purpose of the survey clear and transparent for all participants, a cover letter/consent form in both Arabic and English was enclosed. Participation was purely voluntary, and participants were informed clearly in advance that all identities and responses would remain anonymous and confidential. In order to give a clear

indication of the stages of the survey, the researcher informed the participants, both during the meeting and through email, that they would be required to complete two sets of questionnaires at the end of the first month (four weeks) and then again four months (16 weeks) after joining the organization. To establish a link between the two surveys, we used a key ID consisting of the initial letters of the respondent's first name, middle name, and last name, date of birth, company name, and gender. This allowed us to differentiate between the participants and to link the two sets of survey responses.

The survey was sent out to 689 individuals, of whom 389 responded to the first questionnaire. A total of 159 respondents completed the time 1 and time 2 questionnaires, of whom 154 completed the questionnaire (without missing data) in the fourth month after joining, thereby accounting for the relatively low attrition rate.

The non-respondents at time one were not different than the participants in time two.

Of the new joiners who participated, 95% were at entry level, and they constituted a varied mix of professionals, including accountants, customer service representatives, IT and petroleum engineers, administrative officers, and trainees in fields such as banking and finance, manufacturing, accounting, government services, healthcare, and customer service.

3.4 Role of Time in Socialization Dynamics

According Cable and Parsons (2001), how individuals are treated by organizations in the first few months after joining gives them a clear indication of how they should conduct themselves in their role and how well they fit into the organization. The right research design and the right measurement timings are therefore crucial in order to know how long it takes for newcomers to be socialized. In this study, we used a time-

lagged design (four months) to test our model. To capture the corresponding changes over time, we used a newcomer socialization and social network research design at 12 to 18 months after entry (Appendix 7), in addition to analyzing the literature on social networks. It was also necessary to explore how the length of time influenced the various correlations among the socialization variables.

When tracking socialization effects, researchers have taken into account various time intervals (e.g., three months, six months, nine months, and one year), with a three-month interval being the most common (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Jokisaari, 2013). However, the literature on socialization is limited in its provision of theoretically grounded benchmarks for assessing certain processes and outcomes (Ashforth, 2012; Ashforth et al., 2007a; Bauer et al., 1998; Jokisaari, 2013; Klein & Heuser, 2008; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b).

I. Timing of Measurement of Socialization

Research has suggested that it is important for the newcomer to develop a stable attachment to the organization in the initial months after joining (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Korte, 2010). This is why most researchers have considered the early phases of employment for their surveys, keeping in mind the fact that joining a new organization can be a critical event leading to changes in newcomers' adaptations and attitudes to new situations (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). According to Ashforth (2012), it is important to measure early baseline levels of learning and adjustment variables to capture relevant changes in the newcomer socialization context over time.

In accordance with these observations, I sent out the first survey to the participating new joiners in their fourth week of joining the organization (time 1). The reason for

selecting the fourth week was that four weeks can be considered an ample length of time for newcomers to experience and gain a sense of their new organization (Wanberg, 2012). It should be noted that two time periods of data are not reliable for testing whether variables increase or decline over time; however, such data collection enables researchers to find out whether there are any significant changes in the variables of interest. Therefore, I collected data using two time lags with intervals to cover the gap.

The second survey was intended to examine what impact socialization tactics had on newcomer socialization outcomes after the completion of four months, following the studies of some established researches in this regard (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Gruman et al., 2006). The survey was carried out four months after the participants had joined the organization, in order to allow enough time to have elapsed before socialization outcomes manifest themselves in the form of a sense of commitment toward the organization. Four months was also early enough for participants to recall clearly their socialization experiences after starting the job (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006). However, it remains unclear how long it really takes for newcomers to complete the socialization process and which variables it depends on, affiliation being one of them.

II. Timing of Measurement of Social Network

Morrison (2002b) observed that longitudinal studies enable in-depth investigation of how network structure and its effects vary over time. One critical focus of this study is the measurement of social networks and how long they take to develop. According to Fang et al. (2017), there is no definitive guidance on capturing the patterns of newcomer social networks, and empirical research on such networks has been very

limited in scope (except Fang et al., 2017; Jokisaari, 2013; Morrison, 2002b). However, in some studies, such as those of Sasovova, Mehra, Borgatti, and Schippers (2010) and Wanberg (2012), a six-month time frame revealed significant changes or recovery in social networks. In the absence of adequate and conclusive empirical studies on social network development, this study aims to examine the development of such networks and to track newcomer socialization outcomes on completion of 16 weeks at the workplace in time 2, following the approach adopted by Brissette, Scheier, and Carver (2002).

Although most scholars have measured social network development within a six-month time frame, another reason to examine the development of social network over 16 weeks is that the millennial generation is more receptive to certain organizational attributes, including acceptance of cultural diversity and capabilities for advanced communication and information technologies. This receptivity allows them to see problems and opportunities from fresh perspectives, making them more comfortable working in teams than people from previous generations (Gorman, Nelson, & Glassman, 2004; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010). As all the respondents in this study are millennials born between 1979 and 1994 (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010) and are highly communicative, it can safely be assumed that measuring the development of their social networks will not require a longer period (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010).

In the regional context, a further reason for choosing this 16-week time frame is that the UAE is classified as a collectivist society, one that prioritizes the good of society over the welfare of the individual, thereby lowering the value of individual gains (Hofstede, 1983). Hofstede points out that high-context communication fits collectivist

societies, as it creates harmony and group cohesion; this is relevant and applicable to our survey participants, who are part of the Arab world.

3.5 Operationalization of Study Constructs

In time 1 (week 4), proactive personality, control variables, socialization tactics, and proximal outcome variables for social integration and role clarity were measured. In time 2 (week 16), the proximal outcome variables (role clarity and social integration) were measured again, in addition to social network variables (size, status, density, range, and strength of ties) and distal outcome variables (turnover intention and job satisfaction). A five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) was used to measure the responses for most of the substantive items.

3.5.1 Control Variables

In time 1 (week 4), six control variables were assessed, the first being gender (1 = male, 2 = female), because social interaction patterns may show gender differences. The second control variable used was age (1 = under 18 years, 2 = 18 to 24 years old, 3 = 25 to 34 years old, and 4 = 35 or older). The third variable was education (1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = diploma or equivalent, 4 = higher diploma, 5 = bachelor's degree, 6 = master's degree, 7 = PhD/doctorate and 8 = other degree).

The fourth and fifth control variables were sector, (1 = governmental, 2 = private, 3 = semi-governmental) and job title (1 = entry level, 2 = senior, 3 = manager, 4 = director). The sixth variable was experience (1 = less than three months, 2 = three to six months, 3 = seven to 11 months, 4 = one year, 5 = more than one year). The length of professional work experience was controlled in months, because previous work experience can impact the newcomer socialization process (Rollag, 2004).

3.5.2 Socialization Factors

Questionnaires were developed from pre-existing survey instruments that are applicable to the context of our research and have high reliability and validity. Participants had to rate how much they agreed with each statement on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

To analyze the social tactics construct, the ten-item scales for the initializations variable were adopted from Jones's (1986) study, specifically the parts related directly to social tactics. The sample questions to be rated on the subject were as follows: (1) I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization; (2) Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally; (3) I did not have to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization; (4) My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust into this organization; (5) I feel that experienced organizational members have not held me at a distance; (6) Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization; (7) I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues; (8) I have received guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job; (9) I have access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization; and (10) I have not been left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. The participants had to respond using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The second socialization factor measured in this study was orientation program, and this involved assessing how an organizational-level orientation program (information about job and company) impacted newcomers' socialization outcomes (Klein &

Weaver, 2000). A total of four statements were used: (1) The orientation made me feel good about the company; (2) The orientation gave me useful information about the company; (3) The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations of this company; and (4) The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations concerning this job.

Proactive personality, treated as a moderator in this study and as another socialization factor, was measured using 10 items from Seibert et al. (1999), the shorter version of Bateman and Grant (1993). Participants were asked to respond to the following items: (1) I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life; (2) Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change; (3) Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality; (4) If I see something I don't like, I fix it; (5) No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen; (6) I love being a champion for my ideas; (7) I excel at identifying opportunities; (8) I am always looking for better ways to do things; (9) If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen; and (10) I can spot a good opportunity long before others can. Participants were asked to respond using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.3 Social Networks

The social networks construct was examined using Marsden's (1990) egocentric method at time 2, as explained in the literature in Chapter 2. New joiners were asked to state the number of people they got to know in time 2 and to provide workgroup information for each alter (1 = same department, 2 = different department), hierarchical status (1 = first-year staff, 2 = experienced staff, 3 = senior, 4 = manager), and the average frequency of communication with the alter (1 = once a week, 2 = twice a week,

3=three times a week, 4=four times a week, 5=daily). At the end of the communication networks survey, in order to measure density, participants were asked to indicate on a range from 1 (none) to 4 (all) their responses to this question: Do these individuals you listed know each other?

For the results, the total number of alters listed was calculated according to the size of social network. The number of different departments represented in the newcomers' social networks determined the range. The average hierarchical alters listed measured the status, while strength of ties was computed by averaging the responses to the communication frequency item. Density was measured through the single item stated above.

Three control variables examined in this study may also impact the development of social network size for newcomers hired through employee referral or who have friends or family members within the organization. Therefore, the following questions were asked during time 1 (week 4): Were you referred to apply to your new position by someone in your current organization? Do you have any of your relatives in your current organization? Do you have any of your friends in your current organization? Participants indicated their responses by choosing either 1 (yes) or 2 (no).

3.5.4 Proximal Outcome Variables

The first dimension of role clarity for proximal outcome was measured using six items from Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). The scale was originally designed to measure role ambiguity, which can be defined as “[a] lack of the necessary information available to a given organizational position.” (p. 151). The items are reverse-coded (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Participants had to choose their responses on a scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to the following six items: (1) I know exactly what is expected of me; (2) I know that I have divided my time properly; (3) Explanation is clear on what has to be done; (4) I feel certain about how much authority I have; (5) I know what my responsibilities are; and (6) Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.

The second dimension of newcomer adjustment, social integration, was measured using five items from Morrison (2002b) for assessment. They reflected the newcomer's feelings of attachment and inclusion instead of perceptions about his or her coworkers (such as "my coworkers are friendly") or about the newcomer's number of friends. Participants were asked to respond on a scale from 5 (very often) to 1 (never) to the following items: (1) To what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group? and (2) To what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group? Participants were also asked to respond on a scale from 5 (very friendly) to 1 (not at all friendly) to the following item: (3) What would you say about the atmosphere in your immediate work group in terms of friendliness? Finally, in this section, participants were asked to respond on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to the following items: (4) I feel comfortable around my coworkers; and (5) My coworkers seem to accept me as one of them.

3.5.5 Distal Outcome Variables

The last construct was distal outcome, which has two dimensions. The first dimension, job satisfaction, was measured using six items adopted from the study of Brayfield and Rothe (1951). Participants were asked to respond to the following statements: (1) I find real enjoyment in my job; (2) I like my job better than the average worker does;

(3) I am seldom bored with my job; (4) I would not consider taking another job; (5) Most days I am enthusiastic about my job; and (6) I feel fairly well satisfied with my job. Participants responded using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Colarelli's (1984) three-item scale was used to measure the second dimension, turnover intention. The items were as follows: (1) I will not be working for this organization one year from now; (2) I frequently think of quitting my job; and (3) I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months. Participants had to respond using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

As indicated in the examples and references, these measurements will help us test the reliability, validity, and efficacy of the proposed model. Table 3.1 summarizes the constructs used and the measuring instruments adapted. After the final consolidated questionnaire was developed in English, it was translated by two professionally qualified translators into Arabic, using the trusted forward-backward translation method (Brislin, 1980). Table 3.2 summarizes the list of variables measured at each time frame.

Table 3.1: Model Constructs and Corresponding Measurement Instruments

Construct	Dimension	Scale
Socialization Factors	Institutionalized (social tactic)	Jones, 1986
	Proactive personality	Seibert et al., 1999
	Orientation programs	Buckley, Fedor, Veres, Wiese, & Carraher, 1998
Social Capital	Social network (egocentric method)	Marsden, 1990
Proximal Variables	Role clarity	Rizzo et al., 1970
	Social integration	Morrison, 2002b
Distal Variables	Job satisfaction	Brayfield & Rothe, 1951;
	Turnover intention	Colarelli, 1984

Table 3.2: Variables Measured at Each Time Wave

Construct	Variable	Time 1 (Week 4)	Time 2 (Week 16)
Controls	Demographics (age, gender, education, work sector, job title, years of experience)	X	-
Socialization Factors	Institutionalized socialization tactics (social tactics)	X	-
	Orientation program	X	-
Proactive Personality	Proactive personality	X	-
Social Capital	Social networks (egocentric method)		X
Proximal Outcome	Role clarity	X	X
	Social integration	X	X
Distal Outcome	Job satisfaction	-	X
	Turnover intention	-	X

Chapter 4: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The current chapter details the data screening and preparation that guarantee the quality of the responses and justify their use in the statistical analysis. First, the data screening included checking for accuracy, missing data analysis, outlier checks, verification of the distribution assumptions, and testing for common method bias to ensure that the data were accurate, complete, and suitable for multivariate statistical analysis. Second, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to assess the reliability of the measurement process. Third, validity checks on the measures were conducted and assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Finally, the results of the statistical analysis were used for hypothesis testing.

The current chapter is devoted to reporting the outputs of the statistical analysis. Chapter 5 provides an interpretation and discussion of the meaning of the results and their relationship to the literature review in Chapter 2. Chapter 6 then presents the conclusions and recommendations of the current study.

4.2 Sample Characteristics

This section presents the characteristics of the survey participants. It aims to provide a clear profile of the respondents who took part in this study. Frequency analysis is used to describe the respondents in regard to the following demographic characteristics:

- gender
- age
- education
- experience
- sector
- job title.

The first demographic analysis covers the gender of the respondents. Figure 4.1 shows that somewhat more than half of the respondents (57.8%) were women, and 42.2% were men. This indicates that there was a balance between the males and females within the sample and reflects the government orientation in the UAE to support equality of opportunity. This is in line with the announcement of H.H. Sheikh Mohammed on August 28, 2016 (Emirati Women's Day) that two-thirds of UAE government employees were female.

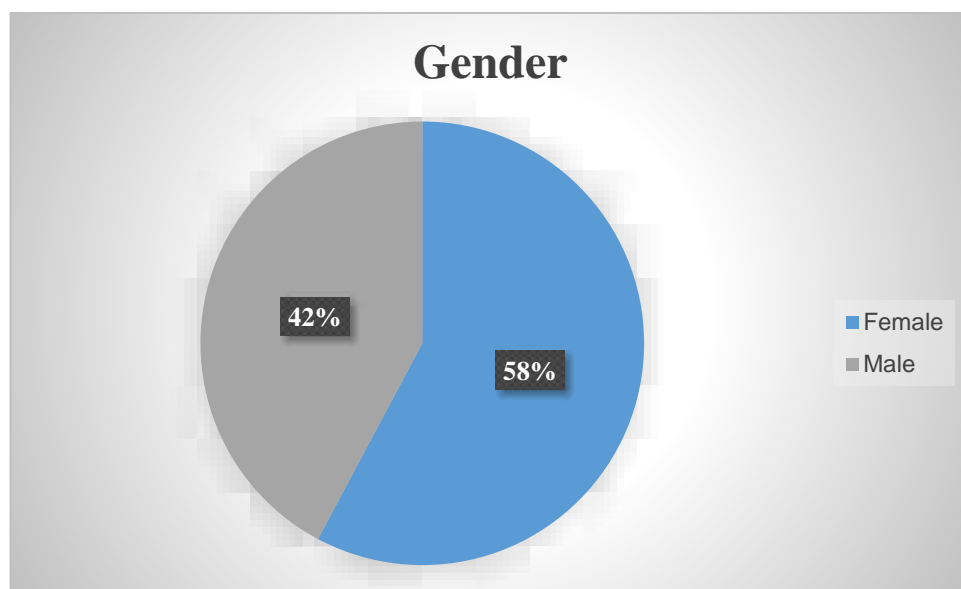


Figure 4.1: Research Sample by Gender

In terms of age, more than half of the respondents were between 18 and 24 years old (57.1%), (39.0%) were aged between 25 and 34, only (3.9%) were 35 or older, and none were under the age of 18. This reflects the nature of the study, as most of the respondents were just starting new jobs. Figure 4.2 summarizes the distribution of the sample by age.

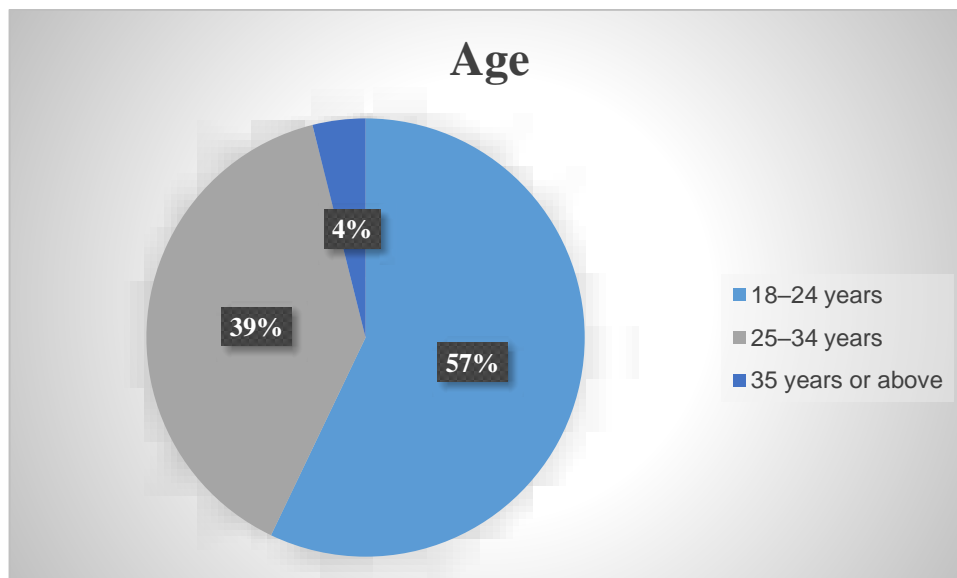


Figure 4.2: Research Sample by Age

Figure 4.3 shows that more than half of the respondents (51.95%) have a bachelor's degree, and 49 participants (31.8%) were high school graduates. Approximately (9.7%), (15) held diplomas (or equivalent), and only six respondents (3.9%) had less than a high school qualification. Very few participants (4) held a master's degree (2.6%).

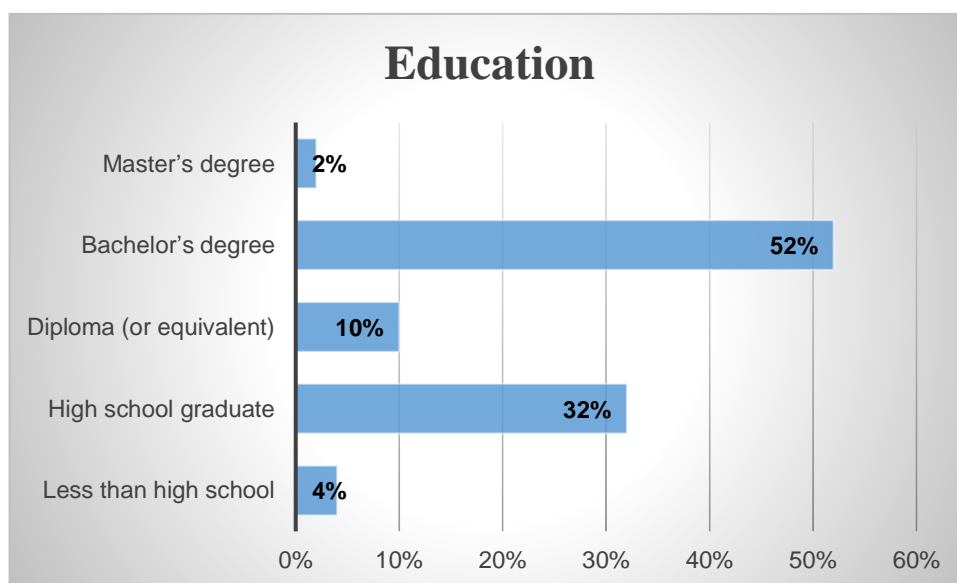


Figure 4.3: Research Sample by Education

Regarding experience, as Figure 4.4 shows, most of the participating respondents (68.8%) had less than three months' work experience, and 20 had between four and six months of experience (13%). A further 12.3% of the respondents had more than one year of work experience (19 respondents). Six respondents (3.9%) had between seven and 11 months' work experience, and only three, (1.9%) of the respondents had one year of work experience.

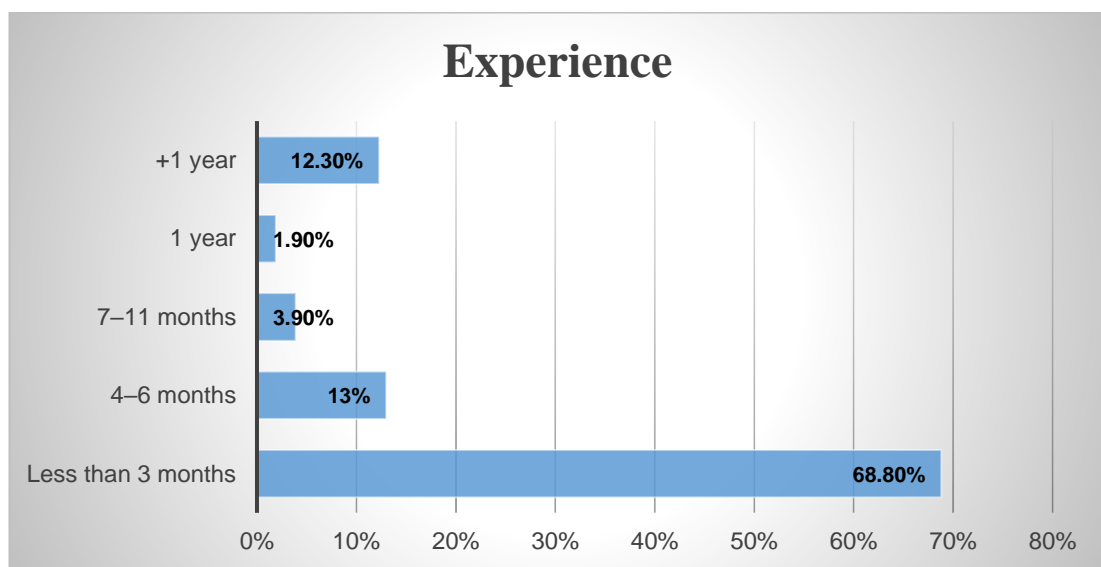


Figure 4.4: Research Sample by Experience

Figure 4.5 shows that more than half of the survey participants (57.1%) were working in the private sector. There were (31.8%) in the governmental sector, and (11.0%) were working in the semi-governmental sector.

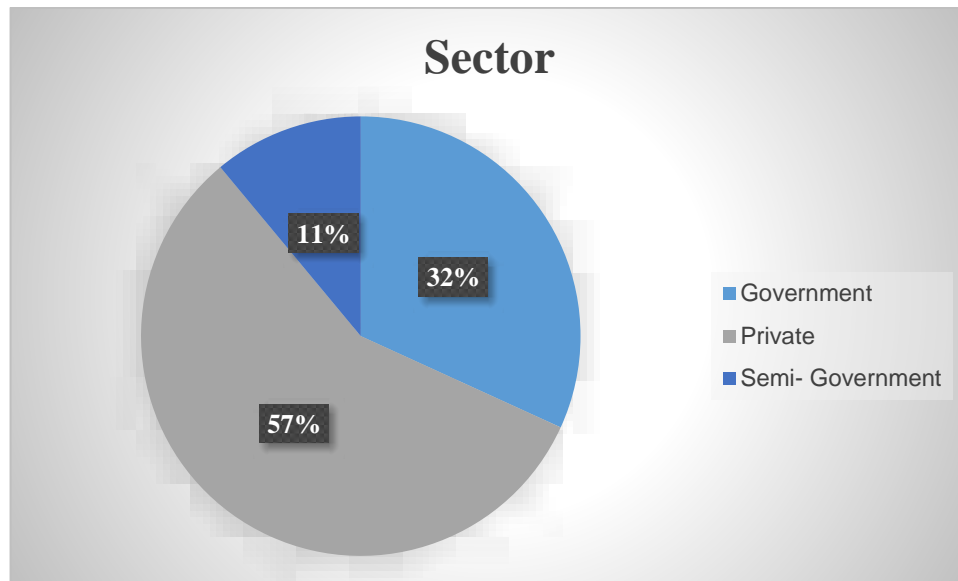


Figure 4.5: Research Sample by Sector

Finally, the majority of participants (95.5%) had joined their organization at the entry level. Only (4.5%) were classified as seniors. The sample does not include anyone who was classified as a manager or a director. These results are as expected, because the basic goal of the current study is to focus on the effect of socialization factors on newcomer adjustment (Figure 4.6). Table 4.1 shows the sample characteristics.

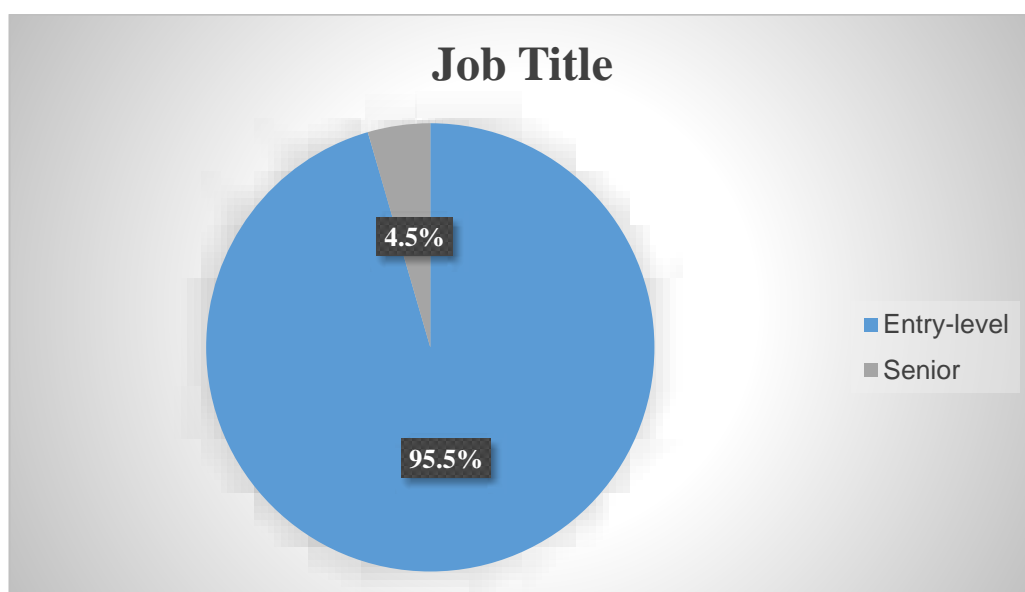


Figure 4.6: Research Sample by Job Title

Table 4.1: Sample Characteristics

Sample Details			
Item	Description	Frequency	%
Gender	Female	89	57.8
	Male	65	42.2
Age	Under 18 years	0	0
	18–24 years	88	57.1
	25–34 years	60	39.0
	35 years or above	6	3.9
Education	Less than high school	6	3.9
	High school graduate	49	31.8
	Diploma (or equivalent)	15	9.7
	Higher diploma	3	1.9
	Bachelor's degree	80	51.9
	Master's degree	4	2.6
Experience	Less than 3 months	106	68.8
	4–6 months	20	13.0
	7–11 months	6	3.9
	1 year	3	1.9
	+1 year	19	12.3
Sector	Governmental	49	31.8
	Private	88	57.1
	Semi-governmental	17	11.0
Job Title	Entry-level	147	95.5
	Senior	7	4.5
	Manager	0	0
	Director	0	0

4.3 Data Screening

It is critical to clean the data after collection and before initiating the analysis process (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The first step in preparing our data for analysis was the process of editing, coding, and entry into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). First, the data were screened for errors and omissions to ensure that they reached the applicable quality standards. Next, the research constructs were coded into a format suitable for SPSS version 25, and a different label was given to each construct. This procedure supported the data analysis by preparing the SPSS software. Then the data were automatically imported in SPSS from the Excel spreadsheet provided by the online survey platform, Survey Monkey.

4.4 Missing Data

The quality of statistical analysis can be seriously affected by a large quantity of missing values, and this in turn can make the results of the analysis unreliable and biased (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Moreover, some statistical analyses cannot be performed when values are missing.

Enders (2010) points out that the problem of missing data is quite common in the social, behavioral, and medical sciences. There are many options for handling the missing data. The data may be left alone without modification, especially if the missing values are small and non-random. Alternatively, the missing values may be replaced. The third option is to delete the cases or variables affected; this is recommended when the sample size is large and/or when respondents have not answered all the questions in the survey. The deletion of variables with missing data is also recommended if the variables affected are not critical to the study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Taking these considerations into account, a careful analysis of missing values was conducted. The results revealed no cases of missing data, because only surveys with complete data were included (in both the hard copy and online versions), since these yielded enough respondents. In the present study, 159 collected responses were checked and cleaned. There were two cases with many incomplete scale answers, while three cases had complete scale answers but incomplete demographic responses. Our final data set, which supplied the material for the following analyses, therefore consisted of 154 respondents.

4.5 Aberrant Values

Data input mistakes are called aberrant values or impermissible values, and they can be identified by calculating the maximum and minimum values of each construct (Hair et al., 2014). A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the different indicators in the present study. Therefore, any value below 1 or greater than 5 (i.e., outside the range of the scale) was to be treated as an aberrant value, and given proper scrutiny and treatment. Detailed scrutiny detected no aberrant values in the data of the present study.

4.6 Outliers

Outliers are values that are extreme compared to the rest of the data. Outliers affect data normality; because normality is an important assumption of many statistical tests, outliers should be detected and resolved (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), outliers include survey responses with unusually high or low values that make them distinct from other responses for the same variable (univariate outliers). There may also be a unique combination of several responses that stand out from other responses across multiple variables, as in the case of multivariate

analysis (multivariate outliers). Increased error variance, decreased power of statistical tests, and biased estimates of substantive interest are common results of outliers and can distort the results of statistical analysis (Osborne & Overbay, 2004).

The literature has reported two types of outlier: univariate and multivariate. Univariate outliers represent replies with unusual values within one construct, while multivariate outliers are replies with distinctive combinations of values for two or more different constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Once outliers have been identified, there are many possible ways of dealing with them. One option is deletion; if there are few outliers, these values may simply be deleted. Likewise, a variable may be deleted if the question is not well constructed or if many outliers are found in this variable. Instead of being deleted, the value may be changed to the next highest/lowest non-outlier number. Transformation of the entire variable is another way of dealing with outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

To assess the presence of multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis distance was measured using AMOS. The Mahalanobis distance is a statistic for assessing how far each case is from the middle of all the constructs' distributions (Mahalanobis, 1927). The Mahalanobis distance test identified five cases with an outlier (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Multivariate Outliers Test Results (Mahalanobis Distance Method)

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p
67	99.744	.000
52	90.149	.000
27	89.711	.000
139	88.529	.000
26	87.835	.000

The Mahalanobis distance was compared with the chi-squared distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of independent variables at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. In total, five cases were found to exhibit the presence of multivariate outliers (see Table 4.2). In order to assess whether it was appropriate to delete these outliers from our data set, we excluded them and reassessed normality using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test; we also analyzed the skewness and kurtosis values. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test showed that there was no improvement in the normality of the data after removing the outliers ($p < .05$). This indicated that no significant improvement in the normality of the data was achieved by excluding the outliers, and we therefore decided not to remove these five cases from our data set, instead conducting the rest of the analysis with all 154 cases.

4.7 Normality

Under the normality assumption, each variable has a bell-shaped distribution of data. Univariate normality for all the variables in the present study was assessed using the skewness–kurtosis approach (Byrne, 2016; Kline, 2005). The statistical values for skewness and kurtosis were examined, and all values were found to be within their respective acceptable levels. As reported in Table 4.3, all the results supported the normality of univariate distribution, with skewness values below the cutoff point of 3. Furthermore, all results were found to have kurtosis values above the cutoff point of 8 (Kline, 2005; West, Finch, & Curran, 1995).

Table 4.3: Normality Tests for All Constructs

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
ST_AVG	1.70	5.00	4.1188	.61610	-1.337	2.907
OP_AVG	2.75	5.00	4.3474	.52961	-.507	-.252
PP_AVG	2.60	5.00	4.2740	.47483	-.512	-.116
RCT1_AVG	2.33	5.00	4.2045	.61879	-.587	-.171
SIT1_AVG	2.00	5.00	4.3701	.63928	-1.292	1.694
JS_AVG	1.00	5.00	4.0314	.73992	-1.460	3.471
TI_AVG	1.00	5.00	2.0000	.93507	.886	.468

ST = Social Tactics; OP = Orientation Program; PP = Proactive Personality; RCT1 = Role Clarity Time 1; SIT1 = Social Integration Time 1; JS = Job Satisfaction; TI = Turnover Intention; AVG = Average

To check for the presence of univariate outliers in the data set, the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests were used to assess the normality of the data. The results of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test (see Table 4.4) showed that our data differed significantly from the normal distribution (the significance value of the test was low, at below .05).

Table 4.4: Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk Tests

	Kolmogorov–Smirnov ^a			Shapiro–Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
ST_AVG	.144	154	.000	.905	154	.000
OP_AVG	.127	154	.000	.918	154	.000
PP_AVG	.111	154	.000	.960	154	.000
RCT1_AVG	.105	154	.000	.940	154	.000
SIT1_AVG	.162	154	.000	.855	154	.000
JS_AVG	.126	154	.000	.890	154	.000
TI_AVG	.156	154	.000	.892	154	.000

ST = Social Tactics; OP = Orientation Program; PP = Proactive Personality; RCT1 = Role Clarity Time 1; SIT1 = Social Integration Time 1; JS = Job Satisfaction; TI = Turnover Intention; AVG = Average

However, the skewness values for all the variables were in the range of +1.5 to –1.5 (see Table 4.3). Skewness is a reflection of symmetry or lack of symmetry, and a distribution of data is considered symmetric if it appears the same to the left and right

of the middle point (Croarkin, Tobias, & Zey, 2001). Kurtosis can then be used to measure whether the data are heavy-tailed or light-tailed when assessed against the normal distribution. Heavy-tailed data reflect high kurtosis while light-tailed data indicate low kurtosis and absence of outliers (Croarkin et al., 2001). As reported in Table 4.3, all the results supported the normality of the univariate distribution, with all kurtosis values being no greater than 8 (Kline, 2005; West et al., 1995). The maximum value for kurtosis was 3.471, and for skewness the minimum was 1.4.

4.8 Multicollinearity

To assess the existence of multicollinearity and singularity problems, the relationships between the independent variables should be analyzed. If the variables have correlation values that are classified as very high (0.90 and above), there is a problem of multicollinearity. On the other hand, if the variables are perfectly correlated (correlation value = 1), this means that there is a problem of singularity (Hair et al., 2016). Collinearity in statistics reflects a situation where two variables almost perfectly indicate linear combinations of each other. This effect is called multicollinearity when more than two variables are involved, and these two terms are often used interchangeably. Multicollinearity should be avoided because it escalates the regression model; when estimates are disturbed, there is a chance of inflating the standard errors of the coefficients.

There are two important statistical tools for examining multicollinearity, tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF), which should be checked for each predictor. The variance percentage of the independent variable that is not shared by the other predictors is termed the tolerance; however, small coefficients of tolerance (with a value less than .10) indicate that it is not a useful predictor and is redundant. Similarly,

the VIF should not be greater than 10, because greater values may indicate collinearity issues. In our case, the minimum value for tolerance was .394 and the maximum value of the VIF was 2.53, which shows that multicollinearity is not a major concern in our data set (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Collinearity Statistics

	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
ST_AVG	.501	1.996
OP_AVG	.830	1.205
PP_AVG	.786	1.272
RCT1_AVG	.394	2.537
SIT1_AVG	.525	1.905

ST = Social Tactics; OP = Orientation Program; PP = Proactive Personality; RCT1 = Role Clarity Time 1; SIT1 = Social Integration Time 1; JS = Job Satisfaction; TI = Turnover Intention; AVG = Average

4.9 Common Method Bias

Common method bias is observed variance in an endogenous variable that is due not to the relationship between the model variables but rather to variance introduced by the measurement method. This may result from respondents who want to make their replies socially desirable images of themselves, from bias due to the simultaneous collection of data concerning both the independent and dependent variables, or from ambiguity in the survey items (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Non-biased responses may arise from some members of the target population, who declined to participate in the survey, holding very different views, opinions, or perceptions from those who participated (Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

4.10 Harman's Single Factor

To test for possible common method variance, Harman's single factor test was applied. Assessment by Harman's single factor proceeds by including all the items from all the variables in the factor analysis in order to determine whether most of the variance can be accounted for by one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The program extracted one factor to check whether a single factor could account for more than 50% of the variance. The results shown in Table 4.6 indicate that a single factor could account for only 26.45% of the variance, which is far below the accepted threshold of 50% (Malhotra et al., 2006). This confirms that the survey responses were free from significant common method bias and that it was acceptable to proceed with the model analysis.

Table 4.6: Results of Herman's Single-Factor Test for Common Method Bias

Component	Total Variance Explained						
	Total	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		% of Variance	Cumulative %		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.845	26.451	26.451	10.845	26.451	26.451	
2	4.582	11.175	37.625				
3	3.520	8.586	46.211				
4	2.452	5.980	52.191				
5	1.643	4.008	56.199				
6	1.445	3.524	59.723				
7	1.341	3.271	62.994				
8	1.095	2.671	65.665				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

4.11 Common Latent Factor

After Harman's single factor test, common latent factor analysis using AMOS 23 was carried out in order to test the percentage of variance explained by a common latent factor (Bian, 2011). A CFA model was developed that contained all the variables and

introduced a common latent factor (as explained in the next step). Accordingly, this assessment was conducted after CFA, with the purpose of examining data readiness. All the observed variables were connected in the model by the common latent factor, and the paths were constrained to be equal. The AMOS results demonstrated that this common latent factor explained only 21.8% of the shared variance in all the observed variables. Hence, the common latent factor analysis further confirmed that common method bias was not a major concern in the data used for the present study.

4.12 Reliability Analysis

After the data had been cleaned, all the variables were filtered by evaluating their reliability and validity. Assessing the reliability and validity of the different constructs is very important for many reasons. First, a reliable and valid construct improves the methodological robustness of the work; second, it allows effective research and gives solidity to the triangulation of outcomes; and third, it facilitates a comprehensive discussion of the topic under investigation (Hair et al., 2014).

Item-to-total correlation was used in this study to measure reliability so that any indicator of any construct with low correlations could be removed, unless it generated an extra domain of interest. This practice has been recognized in the literature as the method used by most researchers to secure the reliability of a multi-item construct (May, 1997). The procedure leads to the generation of a construct with items that share a common core (May, 1997). In this refinement stage, an item-to-total correlation score of 0.30 or above for each indicator should be achieved if the item is to be retained for further analysis (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

The average correlation among items is also used to assess reliability among items that reflect a construct. This is called internal consistency (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978), and it is assessed by calculating the coefficient alpha (Cronbach's alpha) using the basic formula. In the literature, this approach has been found to provide a strong estimate of reliability. Nunnally and Bernstein (1978) proposed that an alpha value of 0.60 should be treated as an indicator of good reliability.

The following section presents the outcomes of the reliability analyses conducted for the different measurement constructs in the survey: social tactics, orientation program, proactive personality, role clarity, social integration, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. The item-to-total correlation and alpha coefficients provided the foundation for assessing the reliability of the constructs. Both item-to-total correlations and Cronbach's alpha have been accepted in the literature as suitable techniques for measuring reliability in the social science domain (Price & Muller, 1986).

Item-to-total correlations were found to be high (greater than the cutoff point of 0.30) for all the indicators. Only one item of the social integration construct (to what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group) had an item-to-total correlation of 0.229; it was therefore removed from further analysis. As shown in the last column of Table 4.7, the reliability coefficients were found to be between 0.809 and 0.901, both substantially above the cutoff point of 0.60 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978). These outcomes provide strong evidence that reliable measures were used in this research. Table 4.7 gives the reliability coefficient and item-total correlations for all the research variables.

Table 4.7: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha
A	Social tactic	0.30	0.901
ST.1	I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.	.617	
ST.2	Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.	.699	
ST.3	I did not have to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization.	.509	
ST.4	My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.	.695	
ST.5	I feel that experienced organizational members have not held me at a distance.	.686	
ST.6	Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization.	.666	
ST.7	I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues.	.631	
ST.8	I have received guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job.	.748	
ST.9	I have access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization.	.591	
ST.10	I have not been left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization.	.668	
	Orientation Program		0.833
OP.1	The orientation made me feel good about the company.	.600	
OP.2	The orientation gave me useful information about the company.	.725	
OP.3	The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations of this company.	.766	
OP.4	The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations concerning this job.	.554	
	Proactive Personality		0.897
PP.1	I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	.651	
PP.2	Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	.580	
PP.3	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.	.674	
PP.4	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	.733	
PP.5	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	.616	
PP.6	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	.606	
PP.7	I excel at identifying opportunities.	.670	
PP.8	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	.593	
PP.9	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	.676	
PP.10	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	.630	

Table 4.7: Reliability Analysis for the Research Variables (continued)

Item Code	Item	Item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha
Role Clarity			0.847
RC.1	I know exactly what is expected of me at my work.	.537	
RC.2	I know that I have divided my time properly at my work.	.526	
RC.3	Explanation is clear of what has to be done at my work.	.706	
RC.4	I feel certain about how much authority I have at my work.	.706	
RC.5	I know what my responsibilities are at my work.	.681	
RC.6	Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	.631	
Social Integration			0.809
SI.1	I feel comfortable around my coworkers.	.706	
SI.2	My coworkers seem to accept me as one of them.	.708	
SI.3	To what extent do people in your immediate work group help you find ways to do a better job?	.651	
SI.5	What would you say about the atmosphere in your immediate work group in terms of friendliness?	.449	
Job Satisfaction			0.893
JS.1	I find real enjoyment in my job.	.791	
JS.2	I like my job better than the average worker does.	.786	
JS.3	I am seldom bored with my job.	.571	
JS.4	I would not consider taking another job.	.714	
JS.5	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	.767	
JS.6	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	.664	
Turnover Intention			0.843
TI.1	I will not be working for this organization one year from now.	.686	
TI.2	I frequently think of quitting my job.	.704	
TI.3	I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.	.738	

4.13 Validity Analysis

Before examining our structural model, which includes all the hypothesized relationships, it is important to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) has not been used in the current study, as it suffers from many problems, summarized by Mulaik: *“the major disadvantage of pure exploratory factor analysis lies in the difficulty involved in interpreting the factors.*

The difficulty most often comes about because the researcher lacks even tentative prior knowledge about the processes which produce covariation among the variable studied and has no basis on which to make his interpretation. In these circumstances, the interpretation given the factors may be nothing more than tautological transpromations of the names of the original variables” (Mulaik, 1972, p.36). Moreover, in EFA the number of items and their association with the observed constructs is not known beforehand (Kolenikov, 2009). Therefore, Hurley et al. (1997) recommended that CFA is more suitable in cases where the constructs have a robust grounded theory.

Therefore, we decided to use CFA technique to generate refined and validated constructs, and the unidimensionality and validity of the constructs were assessed using the CFA (Hair et al., 2014; Tellefsen & Thomas, 2005; Yang & Peterson, 2004). CFA provides solid evidence for how well the indicators reflect the variable under investigation (Hair et al., 2014). The suitability of the measurement models was assessed on the basis of overall fit with the data, convergent validity, and discriminate validity (Liang & Wang, 2004). A list of the key fit indicators along with their threshold values, based on the recommendations of Byrne (2016), is provided in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Fit Indices and Threshold Values

Purpose	Name of Index	Threshold Value
Fit Indices of CFA	Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>.95 great; >.90 good
	Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI)	>.95 great; >.90 good
	Normed Chi-Squared (CMIN/df)	< 2 great; < 3 good
	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	<.05 great <.08 good
Reliability	Composite Reliability (CR)	>.90 great, >.80 good, >.70 fair
Convergent Validity	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	AVE > .50 & CR > .50
Discriminant Validity	Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV)	MSV < AVE
	Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV)	ASV < AVE

We conducted CFA in two stages because of the relatively small sample size. The first CFA covered three constructs: social tactics, orientation programs, and proactive personality. The second CFA covered four constructs: role clarity, social integration, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

4.14 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Socialization Factors and Proactive Personality

4.14.1 Socialization Factors and Proactive Personality

As discussed in Chapter 2, socialization factors here consist of the two constructs social tactics and orientation program, measured by ten and four items, respectively. Proactive personality, on the other hand, includes ten indicators.

The results, presented in Figure 4.7, support the suggested three-factor solution, which comprises social tactics, orientation program, and proactive personality.

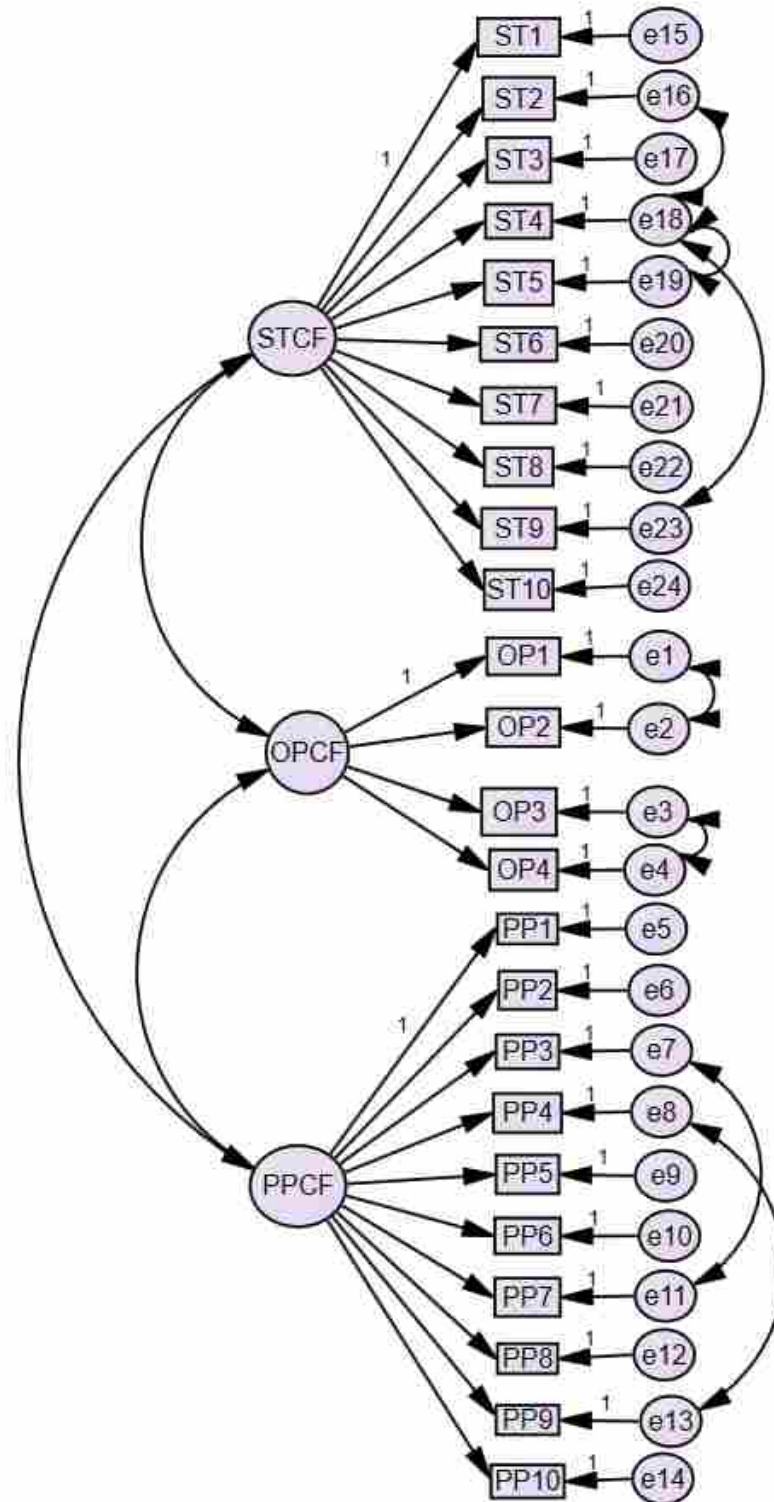


Figure 4.7: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Social Tactics, Orientation Program, and Proactive Personality

It was decided that items with factor loading and R^2 of less than 0.5 would be excluded. All the factor loadings on the main constructs and subconstructs were high, and all the factor loadings and R^2 values were reasonably high. The results of the measurement model of Figure 4.7, which are the indicators of the latent variable (Bian, 2011), are shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9. All the factor loadings are sufficiently high, and the high values for Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (CR), and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) also indicate high internal consistency and reliability of the constructs.

Table 4.9: Fitness Indices for Social Tactics, Orientation Program, and Proactive Personality

Statistic	Index Value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-Squared Significance	0.015	>0.01
CMIN/DF	1.236	<3
AGFI	0.865	>0.80
NFI	0.907	>0.90
TLI	0.962	>0.95
CFI	0.966	>0.90
RMSEA	0.039	<0.10

As Table 4.9 shows, the chi-squared significance was 0.015, which is insignificant and indicates goodness of fit of the suggested measurement model. The other indices also show that the model has a good fit and is aligned with the suggested statistics proposed by experts (Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1982): AGFI=0.865 (≥ 0.80), NFI=0.907 (≥ 0.90), CFI=0.966 (≥ 0.90), CMIN/DF=1.236 (< 3), RMSEA = 0.039 (< 0.10), and TLI=0.962 (> 0.90).

Both Cronbach's alpha and the Composite Reliability Index can take any value between 0 and 1, with values between 0.7 and 0.9 considered satisfactory (Hair et al., 2014). Table 4.10 gives a summary of values for Cronbach's Alpha, the Composite Reliability Index and Average Variance extracted for all the model constructs. The values suggest that all the measurement constructs are valid and reliable and can be used for path analysis.

Table 4.10: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Socialization Tactics

Construct	Scale	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
Social Tactics	ST.1	.626	0.898	0.679
	ST.2	.711		
	ST.3	.538		
	ST.4	.643		
	ST.5	.722		
	ST.6	.730		
	ST.7	.687		
	ST.8	.807		
	ST.9	.603		
	ST.10	.727		
Orientation Program	OP.1	.668	0.804	0.707
	OP.2	.820		
	OP.3	.796		
	OP.4	.544		
Proactive Personality	PP.1	.704	0.896	0.682
	PP.2	.589		
	PP.3	.656		
	PP.4	.834		
	PP.5	.664		
	PP.6	.604		
	PP.7	.674		
	PP.8	.660		
	PP.9	.739		
	PP.10	.699		

4.15 Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which indicators of a defined variable converge or share a great amount of variance (Hair et al., 2016). It can be evaluated using three measurements (Čater & Čater, 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2016). First, variable loading for an indicator should be at least 0.6 and significant. Secondly, construct reliability should be at least 0.60 (see Table 4.11). Finally, average variance extracted (AVE) for a specific variable should be more than 0.5.

Discriminant validity refers to the degree of distinctiveness of two conceptually related variables (Hair et al., 2016). This reflects that fact that every variable needs to share more variance with its indicators than it has with other variables. Discriminant validity is achieved if the variances extracted by the variables (AVE) from each construct are bigger than the correlations.

To check for validity, the assessment tools included the composite reliabilities (overall internal consistency) and the convergent and discriminant validities (Table 4.11). The composite reliability of the independent variables indicated that social tactic had a CR > .90 (great), orientation program had CR > .80 (good), and proactive personality had a CR > .90 (great). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for these constructs was established, as the AVE was greater than .50. Finally, all the constructs exhibited discriminant validity, possessing $MSV < AVE$ and $ASV < AVE$ (Hair et al., 2014). The psychometric properties of the scales used in this study are therefore well established.

Table 4.11: Reliability and Validity of Independent and Moderating Variables

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
ST	0.898	0.679	0.351	0.207
OP	0.804	0.707	0.371	0.232
PP	0.896	0.682	0.176	0.111

4.16 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Proximal and Distal Socialization Outcomes

Similarly, in conceptualizing the proximal constructs (mediation variables), as discussed in Chapter 2, two components were used—role clarity and social integration—and measured using six and four items, respectively. Distal constructs, on the other hand, were conceptualized using two components—job satisfaction and turnover intention—and measured using six and three items, respectively. The results, shown in Figure 4.8, support the proposed four-factor solution comprising role clarity, social integration, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

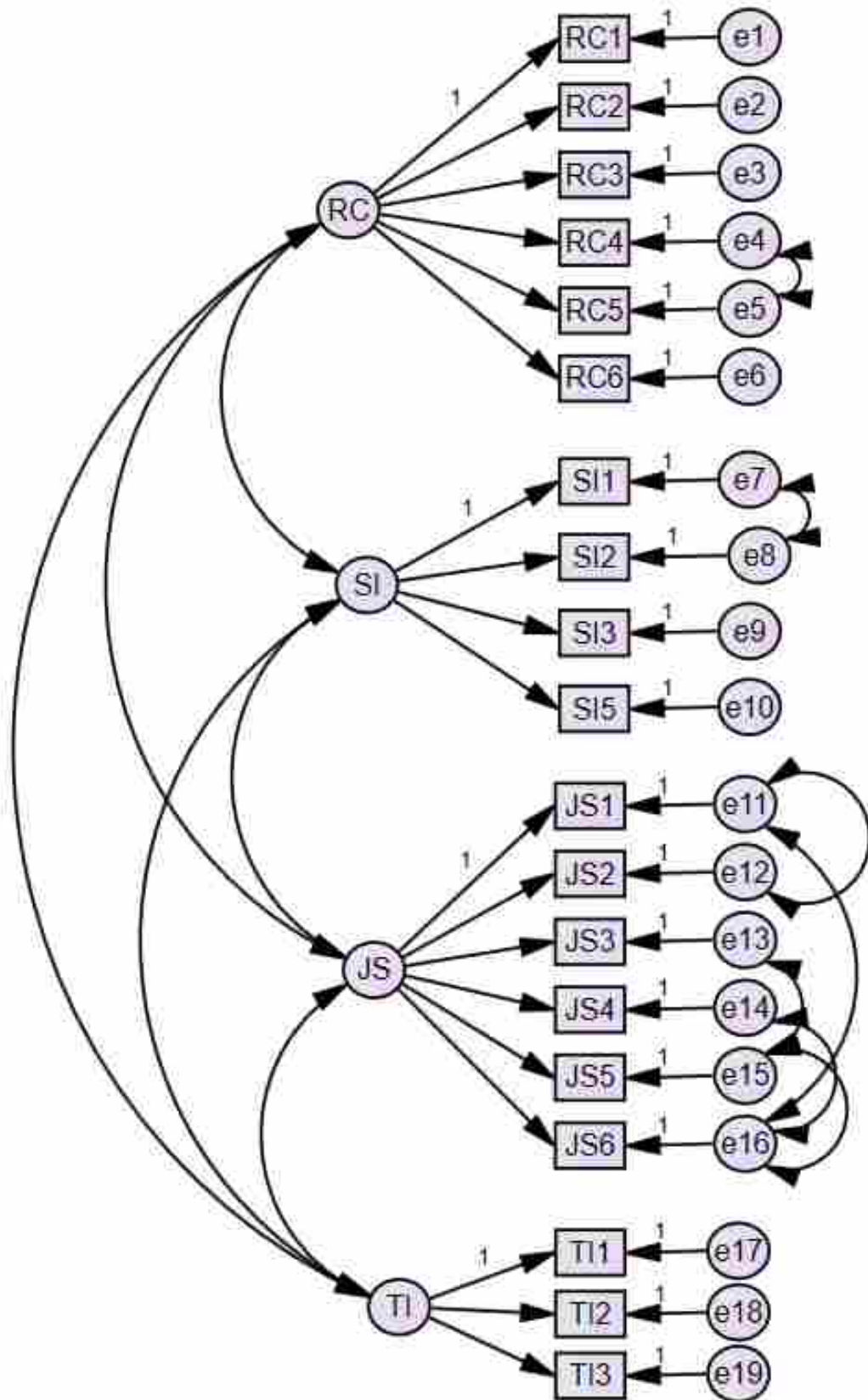


Figure 4.8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Proximal and Distal Socialization Outcomes

Similarly, it was decided that items with factor loading and R^2 less than 0.5 would be excluded. All the factor loadings on the main constructs and sub constructs were high, and all the factor loadings and R^2 values were reasonably high. The results of the measurement model of Figure 4.8, which are the indicators of the latent variable (Bian, 2011), are shown in Tables 4.12 and 4.13. All the factor loadings were sufficiently high, and the high values for Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) also reflect the high internal consistency and reliability of the main construct and all the subconstructs.

Table 4.12: Fitness Indices for Socialization Outcomes

Statistic	Index Value Obtained	Suggested Acceptable Level
Chi-Squared Significance	0.149	>0.01
CMIN/DF	1.125	<3
AGFI	0.869	>0.80
NFI	0.906	>0.90
TLI	0.986	>0.95
CFI	0.988	>0.90
RMSEA	0.029	<0.10

As Table 4.12 shows, the chi-squared significance was 0.149, which is insignificant and reflects the goodness of fit of the suggested measurement model. The other indices also show that the model has a good fit and is in line with the suggested statistics proposed by experts (Hu & Bentler, 1995; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1982) AGFI = 0.869 (≥ 0.80), NFI = 0.906 (≥ 0.90), the Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.988 (≥ 0.90), CMIN/DF = 1.125 (<3), RMSEA = 0.029 (<0.10), and TLI = 0.986 (>0.90).

Both Cronbach's alpha and CR can take any value between 0 and 1, with values between 0.7 and 0.9 considered satisfactory (Hair et al., 2014). Table 4.13 gives a summary of the values for Cronbach's alpha, the Composite Reliability Index and Average Variance extracted for all the model constructs. The values suggest that all the measurement constructs are valid and reliable and can be used for path analysis.

Table 4.13: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Socialization Outcomes

Construct	Scale	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
Role Clarity	RC1	.556	0.841	0.680
	RC2	.547		
	RC3	.821		
	RC4	.762		
	RC5	.717		
	RC6	.680		
Social Integration	SI1	.720	0.788	0.689
	SI2	.688		
	SI3	.822		
	SI5	.529		
Job Satisfaction	JS1	.854	0.887	0.749
	JS2	.859		
	JS3	.584		
	JS4	.761		
	JS5	.761		
	JS6	.676		
Turnover Intention	TI1	.735	0.842	0.798
	TI2	.788		
	TI3	.873		

4.16.1 Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity for Socialization Outcomes

After the factor structure of the independent variables and the mediation variable had been evaluated, the reliability and validity of these constructs were examined. The assessment tools included the composite reliabilities (overall internal consistency) and the convergent and discriminant validities (Table 4.14 below). The composite reliability of the independent variables indicated that role clarity had CR greater than .80 (good), social integration had CR greater than .70 (fair), job satisfaction had CR greater than .80 (good), and turnover intention had CR greater than .80 (good). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for all these constructs was also established, since the AVE was greater than .50. Finally, all the constructs exhibited discriminant validity, with $MSV < AVE$ and $ASV < AVE$ (Hair et al., 2014). The psychometric properties of the scales used in this study are therefore well established.

Table 4.14: Reliability and Validity of Dependent and Mediation Variables

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
RC	0.841	0.680	0.433	.199
SI	0.788	0.689	0.532	384
JS	0.887	0.749	0.462	.124
TI	0.842	0.798	0.482	.177

RC = Role Clarity; SI = Social Integration; JS = Job Satisfaction; TI = Turnover Intention

4.17 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The results in the previous sections support the CFA process and the measurement structure of all the variables/constructs used in this study. In the next step, we calculated the means, standard deviations, and correlations between all the study

variables (Table 4.15). There were significant correlations between all the variables in the study.

Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	1.42	.49											
2. Age	2.46	.57	-.19*										
3. Education	3.81	1.49	.06	-.01									
4. Experience	1.75	1.36	-.11	.39**	-.14								
5. Sector	1.79	.62	-.18*	.23**	-.16*	.14							
6. ST	4.11	.61	.15	.00	-.21**	.13	.04						
7. OP	4.34	.52	.26**	.04	.09	.06	-.10	.34**					
8. PP	4.27	.47	.04	.04	-.14	.15	.07	.29**	.30**				
9. RC	4.20	.61	.03	-.03	-.25**	.15	-.01	.67**	.27**	.41**			
10. SI	4.37	.63	.12	-.03	-.20*	.06	.00	.56**	.27**	.27**	.66**		
11. JS	4.03	.73	.07	.01	-.15*	.18*	.02	.28**	.20*	.29**	.37**	.36**	
12. TI	2.00	.93	-.06	.11	-.06	-.10	.18*	-.25**	-.22**	-.15*	-.20*	-.24**	-.57**

N = 154; * indicates $p < .05$; ** indicates $p < .01$

The high mean for work role clarity is consistent with the results of Choi (2014), who reported a mean of 4.85 for role clarity, and with those of Fang et al., (2017), who reported a mean of 5 for social integration.

4.18 Structural Model and Hypothesis Testing

Finally, as the main aim of this research is to examine the hypothesized causal effects among the variables of the model, the SEM package, AMOS 23 has been used (see Figure 4-8) direct hypothesis testing was performed using a structural regression (SR) model in the structural equation modeling package, AMOS 23, along with multiple

regression analysis (see Figure 4.8). Moderation and mediation hypothesis testing was carried out using the PROCESS macro developed by Hayes and Preacher (2013).

4.19 Structural Regression Models

SR models can be viewed as synthesizing path and measurement models to allow hypothesis testing, as they are a combination of measurement models and path analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). An SR model allows tests of hypotheses about patterns of causal effects, which involve both measured and latent variables, because an SR model also incorporates a measurement model, just as in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and is considered to be a tool of SEM.

SR models in the context of the present study were applied using AMOS version 23. The first step involved modeling all the hypothesized relationships in a SR model. The results of the model showed good fit to the data, and the same fit indices of CFA were used to analyze CFI, TLI, CMIN/df, and RMSEA. The fit indices for the SR model were acceptable (see Table 4.16) and Figure 4.9 showed time one direct effect hypotheses, and Figure 4.10 showed time two direct effect hypotheses.

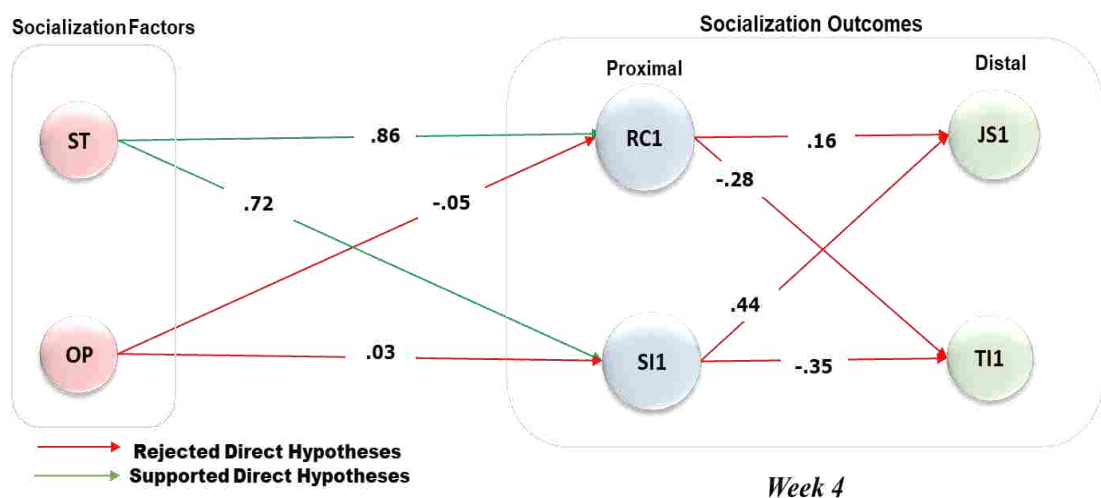


Figure 4.9: Time One Direct Effect Hypotheses

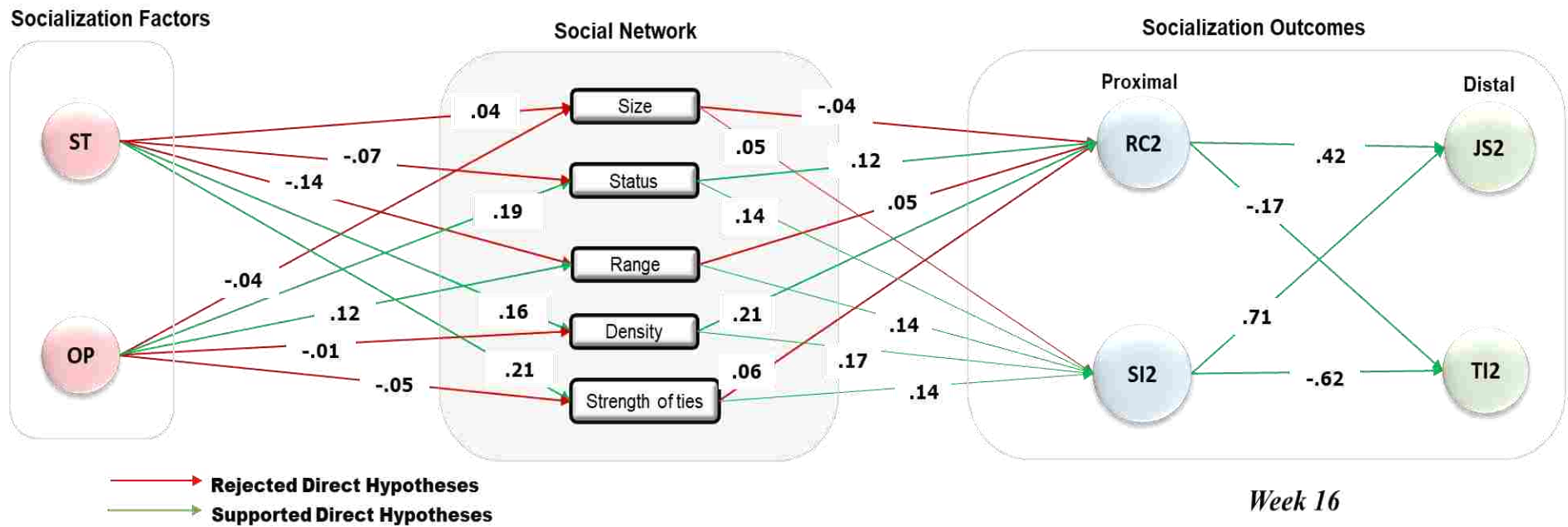


Figure 4.10: Time Two Direct Effect Hypotheses

Table 4.16: Fit Indices for the Structural Regression Model

Model	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1: All Constructs, Structural Regression Model	.046	.908	.916	1.326

4.20 Direct Effect Hypotheses

Sixteen direct hypotheses were identified on the basis of the research model (Figure 4.9), with the aim of examining the relationship between identified antecedents and consequences in the context of the proactive personality differences:

H1: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) is positively related to role clarity at time 1.

H2: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) is positively related to social integration at time 1.

H3: Orientation program is positively related to role clarity at time 1.

H4: Orientation program is positively related to social integration at time 1.

H5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).

H5 includes the following subhypotheses:

H5.1: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and size.

H5.2: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and status.

H5.3: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and density.

H5.4: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and range.

H5.5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and strength of ties.

H6: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).

H6 includes the following subhypotheses:

H6.1: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and size.

H6.2: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and status.

H6.3: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and density.

H6.4: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and range.

H6.5: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and strength of ties.

H7: Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7 includes the following subhypotheses:

H7.1: Size is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.2: Status is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.3: Density is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.4: Range is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.5: Strength of ties is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H8: Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8 includes the following sub hypotheses:

H8.1: Size is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.2: Status is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.3: Density is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.4: Range is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.5: Strength of ties is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H9: Role clarity at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H10: Role clarity at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

H11: Social integration at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H12: Social integration at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

H13: Role clarity at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H14: Role clarity at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

H15: Social integration at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.

H16: Social integration at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.

SR modeling via AMOS 23 indicated the regression weights shown below, which are illustrated through the p values in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Direct Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Standardized Estimate	Sig.	Hypothesis Supported
H1	ST	→ RC1	.867	.000	Yes
H2	ST	→ SI1	.726	.000	Yes
H3	OP	→ RC1	-.057	.414	No
H4	OP	→ SI1	.030	.717	No
H5	ST	→ SN			
H5.1	ST	→ Size	.043	.636	No
H5.2	ST	→ Status	-.076	.404	No
H5.3	ST	→ Density	.160	.081	Yes
H5.4	ST	→ Range	-.146	.111	No
H5.5	ST	→ Strength	.216	.012	Yes
H6	OP	→ SN			
H6.1	OP	→ Size	-.049	.609	No
H6.2	OP	→ Status	.196	.046	Yes
H6.3	OP	→ Density	-.018	.840	No
H6.4	OP	→ Range	.128	.182	Yes
H6.5	OP	→ Strength	-.059	.494	No
H7	SN	→ RC2			
H7.1	Size	→ RC2	-.047	.479	No
H7.2	Status	→ RC2	.125	.074	Yes
H7.3	Density	→ RC2	.219	.003	Yes
H7.4	Range	→ RC2	.059	.415	No
H7.5	Strength	→ RC2	.069	.354	No
H8	SN	→ SI2			
H8.1	Size	→ SI2	.059	.410	No
H8.2	Status	→ SI2	.143	.057	Yes
H8.3	Density	→ SI2	.176	.026	Yes
H8.4	Range	→ SI2	.144	.068	Yes
H8.5	Strength	→ SI2	.140	.080	Yes
H9	RC1	→ JS	.167	.366	No
H10	RC1	→ TI	-.285	.205	No
H11	SI1	→ JS	.446	.107	No
H12	SI1	→ TI	-.353	.091	No
H13	RC2	→ JS	.427	.000	Yes
H14	RC2	→ TI	-.174	.087	Yes
H15	SI2	→ JS	.711	.000	Yes
H16	SI2	→ TI	-.627	.000	Yes

ST = Social Tactics; OP = Orientation Program; RC = Role Clarity; SI = Social Integration; SN = Social Network; JS = Job Satisfaction; TI = Turnover intention

The current study model explains 66.5% of newcomers' job satisfaction, 72.2% of their role clarity, 54.5% of their social integration, and 35.5% of their turnover intention.

The above results indicate that socialization tactics positively affected both role clarity and social integration at time 1, since the relationships were significant ($\beta = .867$, $p = .000$ and $\beta = .726$, $p = .000$, respectively). These results lead to the acceptance of H1 and H2. On the other hand, orientation program had no significant impact on either role clarity or social integration at time one, since the relationships were not significant ($\beta = -.057$, $p = .414$ and $\beta = .030$, $p = .717$, respectively). These results lead to the rejection of H3 and H4.

The results indicate a significant impact of social tactics on both density ($\beta = .160$, $p = .081$) and strength of ties ($\beta = .216$, $p = .012$). These results lead to the acceptance of H5.3 and H5.5. However, social tactics were not found to affect size ($\beta = .043$, $p = .636$), status ($\beta = .076$, $p = .404$), or range ($\beta = -.146$, $p = .111$). These results lead to the rejection of H5.1, H5.2, and H5.4.

Similarly, the results show a significant impact of orientation programs on status ($\beta = .196$, $p = .046$). These results lead to the acceptance of H6.2. However, the orientation programs were not found to affect size ($\beta = -.049$, $p = .609$), density ($\beta = -.018$, $p = .840$), range ($\beta = .128$, $p = .182$), or strength of ties ($\beta = -.059$, $p = .494$). These results lead to the rejection of H6.1, H6.3, H6.4, and H6.5.

The results show a significant impact of both status ($\beta = .125$, $p = .074$) and density ($\beta = .219$, $p = .003$) on role clarity at time 2. These results lead to the acceptance of H7.2 and H7.3. However, size ($\beta = -.047$, $p = .479$), range ($\beta = .059$, $p = .215$), and

strength of ties ($\beta = .069$, $p = .354$) were not found to affect role clarity at time 2 significantly. These results lead to the rejection of H7.1, H7.4, and H7.5.

Although size had an insignificant impact on social integration at time 2 ($\beta = .059$, $p = .410$), the results showed a significant impact of status ($\beta = .143$, $p = .057$), density ($\beta = .176$, $p = .026$), range ($\beta = .144$, $p = .068$), and strength of ties ($\beta = .140$, $p = .080$) on social integration at time 2. These results lead to the acceptance of H8.2, H8.3, H8.4, and H8.5 and to the rejection of H8.1.

To test the proximal outcome results at time 1 with the distal outcome results at time 2, four hypotheses were developed (H9, H10, H11, and H12). The results showed no significant impact of role clarity at time 1 on job satisfaction at time 2 ($\beta = .167$, $p = .366$) or on turnover intention at time 2 ($\beta = -.285$, $p = .205$). Similarly, the results showed no significant impact of social integration at time 1 on job satisfaction at time 2 ($\beta = .446$, $p = .107$) or on turnover intention at time 2 ($\beta = -.353$, $p = .091$). These results lead to the rejection of H9, H10, H11, and H12.

Finally, we tested proximal outcome results at time 2 with distal outcome results at time 2 by developing four hypotheses (H13, H14, H15, and H16). Both role clarity at time 2 and social integration at time 2 were found to have a positive effect on job satisfaction at time 2, since the relationships were significant ($\beta = .427$, $p = .000$ and $\beta = .711$, $p = .000$, respectively). These results lead to the acceptance of H13 and H15. Finally, role clarity at time 2 and social integration at time 2 were, as expected, negatively correlated with turnover intention at time 2 ($\beta = -.174$, $p = .087$ and $\beta = -.627$, $p = .000$, respectively). These results lead to the acceptance of H14 and H16 (Table 4.17).

4.21 Moderation Hypotheses

Baron and Kenny (1986) defined a moderation relationship or mechanism as “the moderator function of third variables, which partitions a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable (p.1173).” Using proactive personality as a moderator, the moderation hypotheses of the present study were tested using the PROCESS macro of Hayes and Preacher (2014), which is very useful for testing models with indirect or interaction effects.

Hypotheses 17 and 18 predicted a moderating effect of proactive personality on the relationship between the orientation programs construct and its consequences (role clarity and social integration), as set out below:

H17: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of on proactive personality.

H18: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.

The results of the analysis (Table 4.18) reveal that proactive personality moderated the relationship between orientation program and role clarity (unstandardized estimate = .243, SE = .106, $p = .023$). Therefore, the results provide support for H17, because the moderation effect was significant at a 95% confidence interval. However, using proactive personality as a moderator between orientation program and social integration was not supported (unstandardized estimate = .169, SE = .116, $p = .146$), and H18 was therefore rejected.

Table 4.18: Moderation Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Variables	Estimate	SE	Sig. (p)	Supported
H17	OP	-.304	.237	.201	Yes
Dependent = Role Clarity	PP	-.799	.466	.088	
	OP x PP	.243	.106	.023	
H18	OP	-.081	.258	.752	No
Dependent = Social Integration	PP	-.598	.508	.240	
	OP x PP	.169	.116	.146	

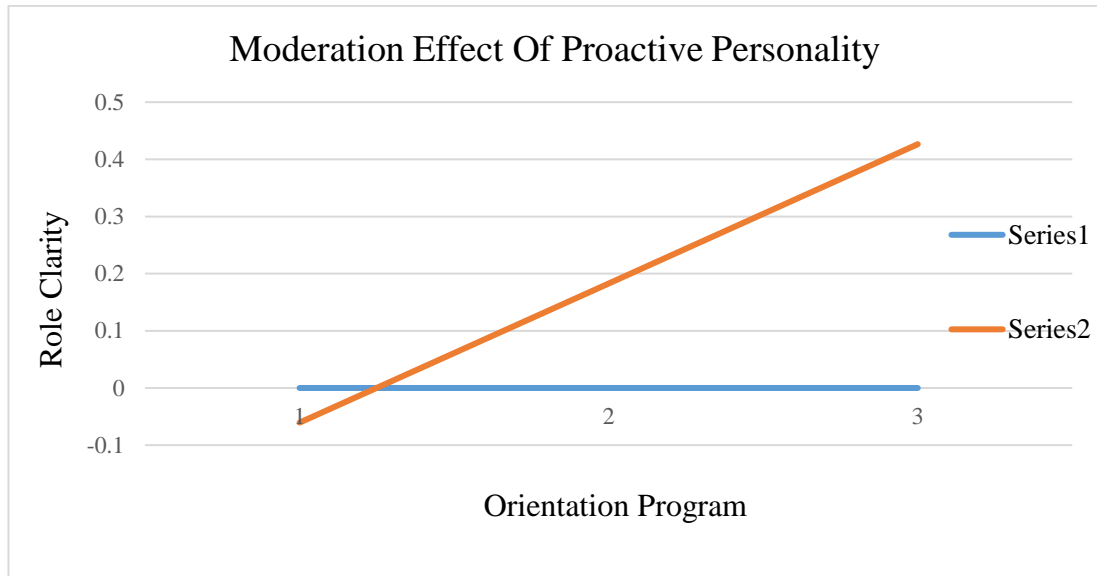
OP = Orientation Program; PP = Proactive Personality

On further probing (see Table 4.19), it was assessed that the moderation effect of proactive personality as a moderator was strongest in the case of proactive newcomers and weakest in the case of inactive newcomers, which is in accordance with the hypothesized effects.

Table 4.19: Results for Proactive Personality Moderation Hypotheses (Orientation Programs, Role Clarity, and Social Integration)

Values of Moderator	Dependent: RC	
	Effect	Sig.
Low	-.060	.674
Medium	.182	.041
High	.426	.001

We probed this relationship further with the help of graphs. Figure 4.11 shows that the relationship was positively stronger for the highly proactive newcomers (high value of moderator) compared to less proactive newcomers (low values of moderator), which is also evident from Table 4.20.



Series 1 indicates low level of proactive personality; Series 2 indicates high level of proactive personality.

Figure 4.11: Moderating Effect of Proactive Personality on the Relationship between Orientation Program and Role Clarity

Hypotheses 19 and 20 predicted a moderating effect of proactive personality on the relationship between the social tactics construct and its consequences (role clarity and social integration), as set out below:

H19: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.

H20: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.

The results of the analysis (Table 4.20) reveal that proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between social tactics and role clarity (unstandardized estimate = .043, SE = .069, $p = .527$). Therefore, the results do not support H19, because the moderation effect was insignificant at the 95% confidence interval.

Therefore, using proactive personality as a moderator between social tactics and role clarity is not supported, and H19 is rejected.

Similarly, the results of the analysis (Table 4.20) reveal that proactive personality did not moderate the relationship between social tactics and social integration (unstandardized estimate = .013, SE = .082, $p = .866$). Therefore, the results do not support H20, because the moderation effect was insignificant at the 95% confidence interval. Therefore, using proactive personality as a moderator between social tactics and social integration is not supported, and H20 is rejected.

Table 4.20: Results for Proactive Personality Moderation Hypotheses (Social Tactics, Role Clarity, and Social Integration)

Hypothesis	Variables	Estimate	SE	Sig. (p)	Supported
H19	ST	.507	.175	.004	No
Dependent = Role	PP	-.014	.279	.958	
	ST x PP	.043	.069	.527	
H20	ST	.531	.208	.011	No
Dependent = Social Integration	PP	.009	.332	.977	
	ST x PP	.013	.082	.866	

4.22 Serial Mediation Hypotheses

Another type of effect, a model referred to as serial mediation, can function as a casual chain (Hayes, 2012). For example, social tactics could increase social network, social network could influence role clarity at time 2, and role clarity at time 2 could improve job satisfaction (social tactics → social network → role clarity → job satisfaction). This is plausible, as social tactics may lead to increased social networking on the part of newcomers, and this increased social networking may in turn lead to their having a clear role, and the clarity of the role could lead to increased job satisfaction.

Hypotheses 21, 22, 23, and 24 of the present study predict a serial mediation effect of the different constructs of the proposed model as set out below:

H21: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H21.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.

H21.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration.

H22: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H22.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.

H22.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration.

H23: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H23.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.

H23.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration.

H24: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H24.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.

H24.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration.

The serial mediation hypotheses of the present study were tested using the PROCESS macro of Hayes and Preacher (2014), a macro that is very useful for testing models with indirect or interaction effects.

Serial mediation assumes “a causal chain linking the mediators, with a specified direction of causal flow” (Hayes, 2012, p. 14). For example, social tactics may increase social network, which may improve social integration and therefore increase job satisfaction. When testing serial mediation, job satisfaction was the outcome variable, exposure was the predictor variable, and all other constructs were serial mediators.

To test H21, PROCESS evaluated the suggested serial model. The model tested whether social network, role clarity, and social integration mediated the relationship between social tactics and job satisfaction. The indirect effect was significant for $ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow JS$, ($b=0.245$, $Sig=.003$) and for $ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow JS$ ($b=0.224$, $Sig=.005$) (see Table 4.21). Newcomers with greater social tactics had better social networks and were thus more likely to have better role clarity and social integration, which in turn led to improved job satisfaction. These results give support to H21.1 and H21.2.

Next, to test H22, the PROCESS macro was used to evaluate the proposed serial model. The model tested whether social network and role clarity mediated the relationship between orientation program and job satisfaction. The indirect effect was significant for $OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow JS$ ($b=0.206$, $Sig=0.005$) and for $OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow JS$ ($b=0.178$, $Sig=0.007$) (see Table 4.21). Newcomers who attended an orientation program had better social networks and were thus more likely to have better role clarity and social integration, which in turn led to improved job satisfaction. These results give support to H22.1 and H22.2.

Similarly, to test H23, PROCESS was used to evaluate the proposed serial model. The model tested whether social network, role clarity, and orientation program mediated the relationship between social tactics and turnover intention. The indirect effect was significant for $ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow TI$ ($b = -0.175$, $Sig = .002$) and for $ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow TI$ ($b = -0.168$, $Sig = .004$) (see Table 4.21). Newcomers with good social tactics had better social networks and were thus more likely to have better role clarity and social integration, which in turn led to decreased turnover intention. This gives support to H23.1 and H23.2.

Finally, to test H24, PROCESS was used to evaluate the proposed serial model. The model tested whether social network and role clarity mediated the relationship between orientation program and turnover intention. The indirect effect was significant for $OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow TI$ ($b = -0.142$, $Sig = 0.004$) and for $OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow TI$ ($b = -0.128$, $Sig = 0.006$) (see Table 4.21). Newcomers who attended orientation programs had better social networks and were thus more likely to have better role clarity and social integration, which in turn led to decreased turnover intention. This gives support to H24.1 and H24.2.

Table 4.21: Serial Mediation Effects on Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

Model	Indirect Effect		
	Effect	Sig.	Supported
$ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow JS$	0.245	0.003	Yes
$ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow JS$	0.224	0.005	Yes
$OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow JS$	0.206	0.005	Yes
$OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow JS$	0.178	0.007	Yes
$ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow TI$	-0.175	0.002	Yes
$ST \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow TI$	-0.168	0.004	Yes
$OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow RC \rightarrow TI$	-0.142	0.004	Yes
$OP \rightarrow SN \rightarrow SI \rightarrow TI$	-0.128	0.006	Yes

4.22.1 Post Hoc Analysis

The results of the analysis in the previous section provided support for most of the hypotheses. We did not fully exploit the potential and variance of our data until then, but during the last stage this study performed some post hoc analysis including ANOVA and T-testing (wherever applicable) in order to discover the impact of demographic and socioeconomic variables on different model constructs. Post hoc analysis involves examining the study data for patterns that were not specified in advance; this kind of analysis is reported through the interpretation of p-values.

4.22.1.1 Gender

The T-test for gender analysis indicated that no significant differences were found between the two genders in the social tactics ($P= 0.060$, Table 4.22). Hence the means for Females and Males were very close (the data in Table 4.23 below).

Table 4.22: T-test Results for Social Tactics by Gender

		T-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
ST	Equal variances assumed	3.583	.060	-1.917	152	.057	-.19103	.09965	-.38791	.00586
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.020	151.863	.045	-.19103	.09457	-.37787	-.00418

Table 4.23: Mean Average across Social Tactics by Gender

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
ST	Female	89	4.0382	.68747	.07287
	Male	65	4.2292	.48597	.06028

Similarly, no differences were found between employees of different genders according to the ANOVA results ($P= 0.084$, Table 4.24) in regard to the orientation program. Hence, the means of Females and Males were very close (the data in Table 4.25 below).

Table 4.24: T-test Results for Orientation Programs by Gender

Independent Samples Test		T-test for Equality of Means							95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
OP	Equal variances assumed	3.018	.084	-3.39	152	.001	-.28401	.08358	-.44913	-.11889
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.49	148.911	.001	-.28401	.08136	-.44479	-.12323

Table 4.25: Mean Average across Orientation Programs by Genders

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OP	Female	89	4.2275	.54700	.05798
	Male	65	4.5115	.46019	.05708

Finally, no differences were found between employees of different genders according to the ANOVA results ($P= 0.757$, Table 4.26) in regard to social integration. Hence, the means of Females and Males were very close (the data in Table 4.27 below).

Table 4.26: T-test Results for Social Integration by Gender

Independent Samples Test										
		T-test for Equality of Means							95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SIT	Equal variances assumed	.096	.757	-2.15	152	.032	-.19817	.09178	-.37950	-.01684
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.13	131.061	.035	-.19817	.09300	-.38214	-.01419

Table 4.27: Mean Average across Orientation Programs by Genders

Group Statistics					
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SIT	Female	89	3.9034	.54198	.05745
	Male	65	4.1015	.58962	.07313

4.22.1.2 Social Network - Further Investigation

Hypotheses 7 and 8 predicted that newcomers' social networks will be positively related to role clarity and social integration. Hypotheses 7 and 8 predicted positive cross-sectional relationships between social networks and adjustment variables across time. Table 4.28 shows the hierarchical multiple regression results. Control variables were entered in step 1 and then, in step 2, social network indicators (Size / Status / Density / Range/ Ties Strength) were added to the equation. Table 4.28 shows the step 2 results with R2 change compared with the step 1 results. At time 1, none of the communication social network indicators were significantly related to role clarity and social integration. However, network density ($\beta = .265, p < .01$) at time 2 was significantly related to role clarity. Similarly, network density ($\beta = .177, p < .01$) at time 2 was significantly related to social integration. Furthermore, social network status ($\beta = .144, p < .10$) at time 2 was significantly related to role clarity and social network ties strength ($\beta = .216, p < .05$) at time 2 was significantly related to social integration. Finally, both network size ($\beta = .455, p < .01$) and network range ($\beta = .303, p < .01$) were significantly related to number of people known by the newcomer at time 2. The previous results give partial support to H7 and H8.

Table 4.28: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for the Effects of Newcomer's Social Networking on Newcomer Adjustment

	Time 1 (Week 4)			Time 2 (Week 12-16)		
	Role Clarity	Social Integration	Number of People	Role Clarity	Social Integration	Number of People
Control Variables						
Gender	.046	.141*	.035	.036	.148*	.043
Age	-.080	-.040	-.015	.062	-.102	-.242***
Education	-.248***	-.206**	.043	-.144*	-.102	.057
Experience	.160*	.069	.167**	.017	-.003	.110
Sector	-.051	-.004	.328***	-.075	-.062	.360***
Social Network						
Size, Time 1 to 2	.067	-.117	-.680	.093	.060	.455***
Density, Time 1 to 2	-.107	.075	-.037	.265***	.177***	-.043
Range, Time 1 to 2	-.168	.129	.260	.075	.134	.303***
Status, Time 1 to 2	.137	-.001	.015	.144*	.110	.018
Tie Strength, Time 1 to 2	-.014	.176	-.071	.149	.216**	-.082
R ²	.093	.066	.139	.027	.055	.144***
Δ R ²	.051	.056	.475***	.096**	.076**	.333***

Note: N = 220; * p < 0.10, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01; values are standardized regression coefficients

4.23 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided a preliminary analysis of the collected surveys. First, the data were encoded, edited, and entered into SPSS to provide descriptive statistics for the sample. Next, reliability and validity tests were applied to all the study variables to assess to what extent the measurements were reliable and valid. For each variable, item-to-total correlations were calculated. All variables were found to have acceptable reliability values, ranging from 0.809 to 0.901, significantly higher than the cutoff point of 0.60 (Nunnally& Bernstein, 1978) and therefore suitable for further analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis for all factors was conducted, first to validate the measures at each stage, and second to reduce the specific factors tested to a more general classification that would enrich theoretical understanding of newcomer socialization. Using the confirmatory factor analysis results, the hypotheses at every stage were examined.

Sixteen direct hypotheses were identified on the basis of the research model (Figure 4.3), with the aim of examining the relationship between adjustment and the identified antecedents and consequences in the context of differences in proactive personality. SR modeling via AMOS 23 was used to test the direct relationship hypotheses and indicated that 16 out of the 32 identified antecedents and consequences were significant (with p values less than 0.05). This supports half of the identified direct hypotheses.

Hypotheses 17, 18, 19, and 20 predicted a moderating effect of proactive personality on the relationship between the orientation programs construct and its consequences (role clarity and social integration) and on the relationship between the social tactic construct and its consequences (role clarity and social integration). These moderating hypotheses were examined using the PROCESS macro of Hayes and Preacher (2014), which is very useful for testing models with indirect or interaction effects. The results led to the acceptance of one of the four moderating hypotheses.

The third type of effect functioned as a casual chain, a model referred to as serial mediation (Hayes, 2012). Hypotheses 21, 22, 23, and 24 predicted a serial mediation effect of the different constructs of the proposed model. The serial mediation hypotheses of the present study were tested using the PROCESS macro of Hayes and

Preacher (2014). The results led to the acceptance of the eight serial mediation hypotheses. The results of the hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Results of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	Result
Direct Hypothesis	
H1: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) is positively related to role clarity at time 1.	Accepted
H2: Institutionalized tactics (social tactic) is positively related to social integration at time 1.	Accepted
H3: Orientation program is positively related to role clarity at time 1.	Rejected
H4: Orientation program is positively related to social integration at time 1.	Rejected
H5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).	
H5.1: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and size.	Rejected
H5.2: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and status.	Rejected
H5.3: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and density.	Accepted
H5.4: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and range.	Rejected
H5.5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and strength of ties.	Accepted
H6: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).	
H6.1: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and size.	Rejected
H6.2: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and status.	Accepted
H6.3: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and density.	Rejected
H6.4: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and range.	Accepted
H6.5: There is a positive relationship between orientation program and strength of ties.	Rejected
H7: Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	
H7.1: Size is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	Rejected
H7.2: Status is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	Accepted

Table 4.29: Results of Hypothesis Testing (Continued)

Hypothesis	Result
H7.3: Density is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	Accepted
H7.4: Range is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	Rejected
H7.5: Strength of ties is positively related to role clarity at time 2.	Rejected
H8. Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to social integration at time 2.	
H8.1: Size is positively related to social integration at time 2.	Rejected
H8.2: Status is positively related to social integration at time 2.	Accepted
H8.3: Density is positively related to social integration at time 2.	Accepted
H8.4: Range is positively related to social integration at time 2.	Accepted
H8.5: Strength of ties is positively related to social integration at time 2.	Accepted
H9: Role clarity at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.	Rejected
H10: Role clarity at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.	Rejected
H11: Social integration at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.	Rejected
H12: Social integration at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.	Rejected
H13: Role clarity at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.	Accepted
H14: Role clarity at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.	Accepted
H15: Social integration at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2.	Accepted
H16: Social integration at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2.	Accepted
Moderating Hypotheses	
H17: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation program and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Accepted
H18: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation program and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected
H19: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected
H20: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected

Table 4.29: Results of Hypothesis Testing (Continued)

Hypothesis	Result
Serial Mediation Hypotheses	
H21: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.	
H21.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.	Accepted
H21.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration.	Accepted
H22: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.	
H22.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.	Accepted
H22.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration.	Accepted
H23: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.	
H23.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.	Accepted
H23.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration.	Accepted
H24: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.	
H24.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity.	Accepted
H24.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration.	Accepted

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the research objectives and questions to initiate an in-depth discussion of the research results. It also offers a brief summary of the findings, the limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, theoretical and practical contributions of the work, and recommendations for UAE organizations seeking to reduce new employee turnover in the first year while increasing their chances of meeting performance goals within that time. The key to getting it right from the start is helping newcomers settle into their organizations through an effective socialization process.

5.2 Discussion of Results

The purpose of this study has been to examine how organizational socialization factors and social capital are instrumental in newcomer adjustment, in addition to studying the moderating effects of proactive personality on relationship socialization factors and newcomer adjustment. To answer the research questions, a quantitative methodology was used, and the three main research questions were:

1. Do the organizational socialization factors of institutionalized (social) tactics and orientation programs impact newcomer socialization outcomes?
2. How do organizational socializations factors impact newcomer socialization outcomes through social network?
3. Does proactive personality strengthen the relationship between socialization factors and socialization outcomes?

To answer these questions, 24 research hypotheses in three categories were developed and tested:

- A. Direct effect hypothesis
- B. Mediation hypothesis
- C. Moderating hypothesis

The following subsections discuss and draw conclusions from the results.

5.2.1 Direct Effect Hypotheses

This study formulated four categories of direct effect hypothesis. The first category examined the relationship between socialization factors and newcomer adjustment at time 1.

H1: Institutionalized tactics (social tactics) is positively related to role clarity at time 1.	Accepted
H2: Institutionalized tactics (social tactic) is positively related to social integration at time 1.	Accepted
H3: Orientation program is positively related to role clarity at time 1.	Rejected
H4: Orientation program is positively related to social Integration at time 1.	Rejected

The purpose of the first two direct hypotheses was to investigate whether institutionalized (social tactics) had a positive relationship with newcomer adjustment (role clarity and social integration) at time 1. The results clearly indicate that social tactic had a significant positive impact on newcomer role clarity and social integration, which is consistent with previous studies (Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007;

Kim et al., 2005; Lapointe et al., 2014; Saeed, Nazemi, & AhmadReza, 2013; Saks & Gruman, 2011; Saks et al., 2007).

In social tactics, newcomers receive guidance from a mentor or buddy in the organization, which helps them integrate quickly. In the context of our study, some organization managers assigned a buddy to help newcomers with any inquiry they might have, give them access to organizational resources, explain how the organization really works, and help them establish relationships with coworkers. This helps newcomers master their job tasks and understand their organizational roles clearly (Elting, 2015; Hatmaker & Park, 2014; Rollag et al., 2005).

However, the findings of Hypotheses 3 and 4 in this study were unexpected, as the results show that orientation programs did not necessarily lead to role clarity or social integration of newcomers.

The result of Hypothesis 3 was not consistent with previous studies (Bauer, 2013; Elting, 2015; Klein, Polin, & Leigh Sutton, 2015; Minnick, 2012; Sakires et al., 2009), which found that the early experiences of employees through orientation programs helped to reduce role ambiguity. For Hypothesis 4, our results were again inconsistent with those of earlier studies (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Elting, 2015; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), which found that orientation programs facilitated social integration by including newcomers into work teams or groups.

There are many reasons for the non-findings, and they mostly concern our research context, for instance, the participants' age (57% were aged 18 to 24). According to Perrot et al. (2014), the results of a study are impacted when the respondents are very young. As illustrated by Bauer et al.'s (2007) meta-analysis of the socialization

literature, socialization outcomes can be strongly affected by the feeling of being accepted by colleagues for school-to-work transitions as opposed to work-to-work transitions. Young and inexperienced individuals tend to expect more organizational support than experienced employees, and this difference impacts adjustment outcomes.

The second reason for non-findings is that participants in the present study came from three different sectors, and orientation programs differ according to job classification and organization type. For example, in the UAE, most orientation programs are designed to give newcomers specific information; however, the programs lack technical information related to newcomers' jobs, and this impacts their role clarity. This issue was further investigated by the researcher when she was interacting with newcomers who participated in the study. Most of them stated that, at entry level, organizations focus on orientation to provide the necessary information about the organization. Another reason is a lack of time and interest on the part of insiders (Elting, 2015) in giving information during the orientation, which has proved to be an obstacle to newcomers' role clarity.

The rejection of Hypothesis 4 may be explained by a number of features specific to our research context in terms of social integration during the orientation period. As stated above, in the context of this study, data were collected from different types of organization (private, governmental, and semi-governmental), and differences in orientation practices between these sectors will impact the result of this study.

In UAE organizations, most orientation programs are provided in a group setting, separating newcomers from the employees they will be working with. During this period, newcomers come to know employees from different divisions and to

understand their roles in a more structured and formal way. As a result, newcomers meet a lot of people, and this makes it difficult for them to build in-depth relationships with everyone and to become socially integrated.

Moreover, in some fields such as banking and factory production (where some participants of this study work), newcomers are immediately placed in training programs at training centers away from their offices and teams. This hinders the building of working relationships with coworkers and makes newcomers feel like outsiders until they finish the training programs and come back to their offices (Rollag et al., 2005).

Another explanation for the rejection of the hypothesis is based on organization type and size. Of our participants, 57% were from small companies in the private sector, where the manager or senior person usually gives the newcomer a tour of the office on his or her first day and introduces the individual at random to whoever is around, or simply waits until the next group meeting and casually announces the newcomer's name. Such rapid-fire introductions are rarely effective, because they are overwhelming. As a result, newcomers scarcely remember names, roles, and responsibilities, and this impacts their adjustment (Rollag et al., 2005).

To illustrate this point, whether the newcomer has been given orientation formally or informally plays a big role in being socially accepted. According to Klein et al. (2015), a formal onboarding practice is more helpful to a new employee than an informal one, as it is organized, planned, and implemented carefully, attendance is obligatory, and it is taken more seriously by the newcomers (Hass, 2015; Klein et al., 2015; Korte & Lin, 2013). However, according to some scholars (Klein et al., 2015; Rollag et al., 2005), not all studies have demonstrated such results consistently.

The second set of direct effect hypotheses, which consists of two hypotheses with five sub-hypotheses, examined the relationship between socialization factors and social network at time 2.

H5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).	
H5.1: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and size.	Rejected
H5.2: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and status.	Rejected
H5.3: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and density.	Accepted
H5.4: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and range.	Rejected
H5.5: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) at time 1 and strength of ties.	Accepted
H6: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties).	
H6.1: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and size.	Rejected
H6.2: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and status.	Accepted
H6.3: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and density.	Rejected
H6.4: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and range.	Accepted
H6.5: There is a positive relationship between orientation program at time 1 and strength of ties.	Rejected

Hypotheses 5 and 6 examined the proposition that socialization factors (institutionalized social tactics and orientation programs) predicted newcomers' social networks at time 2, and the results provided partial support for both hypotheses. Specifically, for Hypothesis 5, we found support for a positive relationship between institutionalized (social) tactics and social network (density and strength of ties). For Hypothesis 6, we found support for a positive relationship between orientation program and social network (status and range), which is consistent with the results of Hatmaker's (2015) study.

The hypotheses that we tested were somewhat exploratory in nature, because research into social capital and social network has only recently begun exploring their roles in newcomer socialization. In past studies, most notably in Morrison's (2002b) study, network characteristics have been viewed as antecedents to newcomer adjustment outcome.

These hypotheses were partially supported because social tactics (group-based training, formal and informal mentoring) and orientation programs put newcomers in touch with other newcomers and with experienced organization members from different divisions, offering opportunities to develop ties and a range of social networks. Through institutionalized socialization efforts, newcomers build relationships with their peers (fellow newcomers), supervisors, upper-level managers, and experienced coworkers (Miller & Jablin 1991; Morrison, 2002b), which impact social network ties and density (Hatmaker, 2015), and this is consistent with our results. Organization tactics offer a trusted and safe space for sharing concerns and asking questions, which also impacts social network ties and density.

Some specific social network characteristics help to explain why the above hypotheses were not supported in our study. First, our operationalization of social network is different from the majority of other studies. We used the egocentric method (Marsden, 1990), which unlike earlier studies, does not treat social network as a global construct. A direct comparison of our results to earlier studies (Choi, 2014; Hatmaker, 2015; Hatmaker & Park, 2014; Korte & Lin, 2013; Morrison, 2002b; Otte & Rousseau, 2002; Rollag et al., 2005) will therefore not be of much relevance, as some used different social network characteristics and different methods, such as social network analysis. It is likely that the differences in our results may be attributed to differences in operationalization.

Second, the research design may be another factor impacting our study results. This applies specifically to the time factor, as studies have variously used longitudinal, cross-sectional, and time-lag designs. These differences in research design can impact findings in respect of the development of social networks, as mentioned in the discussion of method in Chapter 3. Again, therefore, direct comparisons with other studies are not necessarily relevant.

Third, as mentioned above, our study context is different. Because the UAE has a culture characterized as relationship-oriented and collectivistic (Hofstede, 1983), our results should not be expected to confirm those of studies conducted in different contexts. The characteristics of the study sample and the types of organization had a number of significant impacts on the results of this study.

The first impact concerns the characteristics (age and work experience) of our study sample, in which 57% of the participating respondents were aged 18 to 24 years and 68% had less than three months' work experience after coming from school or

university to the work environment. This transition impacts social network development (Bauer et al., 2007). Older newcomers are considered as good sources of information and support, as they have acquired more knowledge through previous experience, whereas younger newcomers might have greater amounts of new and unfamiliar information. These types of information may complement each other, fitting together in such a way that newcomers seeking information start building relationships with colleagues of different ages for greater benefits (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011).

To support the above argument that age impacts the social network development, we ran a one-way ANOVA (Table 5.1). It highlighted a significant difference in the values of social network for different categories of age ($p = 0.009$).

Table 5.1: ANOVA Results for Impact of Age on Social Network

SN					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	37.230	2	18.615	4.881	.009
Within Groups	575.928	151	3.814		

The significant value of 0.009 indicates that there was a great level of difference. To find out which category was different, we performed a Bonferroni correction to the ANOVA and applied Tukey's test (Table 5.2). The results show that the age category of 35 years and above did not differ significantly from the two other categories (18 to 24 and 25 to 34) in respect of social network; however, age categories 18 to 24 years and 25 to 34 differed significantly from each other (see Appendix 8; Tables 5.2 and 5.3). The 18 to 24 category had a higher mean value (mean = 3.08, $p = 0.006$); that is,

newcomers aged 18 to 24 were more active in forming social networks than those aged 25 to 34 (mean = 2.84) and those aged 35 or above (mean = 3.39).

Second justification as mentioned above is the mixed sectors which are the sources of our sample. Some sectors, such as governmental sector, tend not to assign tasks immediately to newcomers in the first few months. As a result, newcomers stayed unassigned, not working on any project. This impacts their social network development (Morrison, 2002b), as they will not interact with the team to any great degree.

The third impact is the sector size. Some of the participants came from the governmental and semi-governmental sectors, which are huge in size and have a high number of employees. Hatmaker (2015), in his socialization study on the public sector, emphasized that newcomers' relationship-building is influenced by large organizational structures and cultures, as establishing connections across specific geographic boundaries may be challenging, even with help from the organization. Within these larger structures, new employees rarely get to interact with members from different divisions, unless those boundaries are bridged by socialization tactics. Newcomers can rarely connect with organizational members at a higher level through whom they can gain access to important resources.

To investigate further the impact on social network development in different sectors, we performed a one-way ANOVA to analyze the three different sectors (governmental, private, and semi-governmental). The results showed that there was a significant difference in the values of social network for different sectors ($p = 0.099$, Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: ANOVA Results for Impact of Sector on Social Network Development

SN	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17.817	2	8.909	2.260	.099
Within Groups	595.340	151	3.943		
Total	613.158	153			

The significant value of 0.099 indicates that a significant difference existed at the 90% confidence level. To find out which sector was different, we performed a Bonferroni correction and applied Tukey's test (see Appendix 9, Table 5.5). The results showed that the private and semi-governmental sectors did not differ significantly, but the government sector was significantly different from the other two sectors (see Appendix 9, Tables 5.5 and 5.6). The government sector had a higher mean value (mean=3.91, $p=0.094$); this sector was therefore more active in forming social networks than the private sector (mean=3.16) and the semi-governmental sector (mean=3.60).

To explain the above results and to explain why social network in the government sector is higher than in the private and semi-governmental sectors, we should take into account the culture and language of the organizations. Most people who work in the government sector in the UAE speak Arabic, their native language and also the newcomers' native language, in which they can communicate easily and develop their social network. According to Woolcock and Narayan (2000), a common language between different stakeholders enables them to communicate more openly with one another. However, in private and semi-governmental multinational companies, where the main language is English, people who work with newcomers are mainly from different nationalities, do not speak Arabic, and use mostly English. This may create a barrier to developing newcomers' social networks with experienced employees. In the

present study, around 45% of our participants were educated to less than bachelor's degree level, which suggests that their level of spoken English may be comparatively low and that this impacts their adjustment and communication with insiders.

Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, and Welch (1999) emphasized that little research has been conducted on how language in multinational companies may impact employee performance. Our participants reported to the researcher that they had difficulty in understanding guidance and instructions from foreign managers because of language barriers. Marschan-Piekkari et al. (1999) discussed the importance of language in cross-cultural communication, which is a factor that has been ignored by many organizations. Further research is required to determine the impact of language and organizational structure on newcomer adjustment, specifically in private and multinational companies (for example, in the banking sector).

Although our results are partially supported by these considerations, one should not conclude that all studies must provide the same common socialization practices that result in the development of social networks. It is important to note that socialization practices are different in each organization, as mixed sectors and sample characteristics play a major role in the outcomes.

The third category of direct effect hypothesis examined the relationship between social network and newcomer adjustment at time 2, and it consisted of two hypotheses with five sub-hypotheses:

H7: Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to role clarity at time 2.

H7.1: Size is positively related to role clarity at time 2. Rejected

H7.2: Status is positively related to role clarity at time 2. Accepted

H7.3: Density is positively related to role clarity at time 2. Accepted

H7.4: Range is positively related to role clarity at time 2. Rejected

H7.5: Strength of ties is positively related to role clarity at time 2. Rejected

H8. Social network (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) is positively related to social integration at time 2.

H8.1: Size is positively related to social integration at time 2. Rejected

H8.2: Status is positively related to social integration at time 2. Accepted

H8.3: Density is positively related to social integration at time 2. Accepted

H8.4: Range is positively related to social integration at time 2. Accepted

H8.5: Strength of ties is positively related to social integration at time 2. Accepted

For Hypotheses 7 and 8, our study proposed that newcomers' social networks facilitate their adjustment at time 2 (week 16).

The results for Hypothesis 7 partially supported the proposition that social network characteristics (status and density) lead to newcomer role clarity. This result is not consistent with previous studies (Bauer & Green, 1998; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009;

Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Morrison, 2002b). Social network characteristics (size, range, and strength of ties) were not supported, for reasons mentioned above; however, this is consistent with Morrison's (2002b) study, where it was suggested that a large network facilitates organizational learning, whereas a dense network facilitates role and job learning. In this relationship, there is a potential trade-off, because density and size are generally negatively correlated. The challenge faced by newcomers in building an effective network structure may have similarities with the organizational challenge of structuring the socialization process. It is important for the newcomer to widen his or her network to benefit from the advantages of size and horizontal range. This implies a less dense network, as. This means that when density increases, the network size decreases (Burt, 2009).

For Hypothesis 8, it was clear that social network characteristics (except for size) had a positive impact on newcomer social integration, which is consistent with previous studies (Korte, 2010; Korte & Lin, 2013; Morrison, 2002b). Kammeyer-Mueller et al.'s (2013) study results indicated that the initial levels of support from supervisors and coworkers were positively related to newcomers' social integration. In addition, supervisors and coworkers who undermined newcomers decreased social integration, and withdrawal behaviors were uniquely related to voluntary turnover.

As with the other hypotheses, the context of the present study played a substantial role in obtaining this result for Hypothesis 8. Most of the participants were from small companies in the private sector where all employees (newcomers, supervisors, and colleagues) work together in an open-plan office, which impacts their social network development and social integration. Fleming, Goldman, Correli and Taylor's (2016) study results indicated that physical office location and setting played a big role in

newcomer socialization. Faculty whose offices were near other faculties in the same department got help more easily through regular interactions with colleagues than those who were more physically isolated. It is therefore suggested that departments should take care to assign new members to workspaces that provide them with immediate access to potential mentors, senior colleagues, and other newcomers in order to create different degrees of network integration for them.

In the fourth category of direct effect hypothesis, this study examined the relationship between proximal and distal outcomes:

H9: Role clarity at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2. Rejected

H10: Role clarity at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2. Rejected

H11: Social integration at time 1 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2. Rejected

H12: Social integration at time 1 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2. Rejected

H13: Role clarity at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2. Accepted

H14: Role clarity at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2. Accepted

H15: Social integration at time 2 is positively associated with job satisfaction at time 2. Accepted

H16: Social integration at time 2 is negatively associated with turnover intention at time 2. Accepted

We measured newcomers' early perceptions at time 1 (after the first month) and at time 2 (four months later), and we used the results to examine socialization effects. When we examined the relationship between proximal and distal outcomes, our results were very interesting. We found that H9, H10, H11, and H12 were rejected where role clarity and social integration was examined at time 1 and associated with job satisfaction and turnover intention at time 2. These non-findings can be explained in terms of the impact of time on socialization processes and outcomes. This is consistent with Ashforth's (2012) observation that most research on socialization assumes that dependent variables change at a steady pace (e.g., that adjustment at time 1 will be less than at time 2, and less at time 2 than at time 3), which is what our results show. According to Ashforth's (2012) episodic approach, a reinterpretation of previous episodes may occur because of discontinuous learning and adjustment interspersed with specific events. Wanberg (2012) also discussed the possibility of disruption in all variables, but this is more problematic for distal adjustment variables that fluctuate over time.

However, for H13, H14, H15, H16, it was found that both role clarity at time 2 and social integration at time 2 positively affected job satisfaction and were negatively correlated with turnover intention at time 2. As mentioned in the literature review in Chapter 2, proximal outcomes are associated primarily with newcomer adjustment, whereas distal outcomes affect both newcomers and the organization (Hatmaker et al., 2016). Our results are therefore consistent with many previous studies. According to Saks and Ashforth (1997), proximal outcomes (role clarity and social integration) influence a range of distal outcomes at an individual level (e.g., turnover intention and job satisfaction). This leads to the conclusion that proximal outcomes precede distal

outcomes; that is, better role clarity will ultimately lead to higher job satisfaction (Hass, 2015).

5.2.2 Moderating Hypotheses

Our second category of hypothesis, moderating hypothesis, examines how newcomers can actively initiate their own socialization through proactive behaviors to speed up their adjustment within the organization. This study proposed the following four moderating hypotheses:

H17: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Accepted
H18: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between orientation programs and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected
H19: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and role clarity such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected
H20: Proactive personality moderates the relationship between social tactics and social integration such that the relationship is stronger for individuals who have higher levels of proactive personality.	Rejected

Our results indicated that proactive personality strengthened the relationship between orientation programs and role clarity. However, we did not find any support for the moderating role of proactive personality between orientation program and social integration. In summary, one hypothesis (H13) out of four was supported in relation to the moderating role of proactive personality on newcomer adjustment at time 1. For

example, the moderating effect of proactive personality was not significant between institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and newcomer adjustment (role clarity and social integration). Therefore, we argue that social tactics from the organization perspective facilitated social interactions for proactive newcomers.

To determine whether a participant was highly proactive or not, we performed a one-sample t-test (see Appendix 10, Table 5.7). The results of the test showed that most of the participants were highly proactive (mean = .27).

Our results were consistent with previous studies (Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005), which suggests an interesting paradox: newcomers are more proactive when their institutionalized socialization is low, but this form of socialization mostly affects socialization outcomes positively when proactive behavior is least displayed by newcomers.

Scholars are of the opinion that proactive behavior and socialization tactics should be seen as exogenous variables. Because institutionalized tactics (social tactics) reflect an organization-driven process, the influence of work context on these tactics might go beyond proactivity, which reflects an individual-driven process that is more influenced by individual differences than by socialization tactics (Crant, 2000). However, the receptiveness that newcomers show toward socialization tactics might also be affected by individual differences (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). In line with Kim et al. (2005), we found an interaction between some proactive personalities and socialization tactics, while the behaviors of others were less predictable. Kim et al. (2005), emphasized that further research is required to validate this and to explore further how and why employee relationship-building (proactivity) interacts with organizational

socialization tactics. It also remains to be determined whether our findings, which are unexpected in nature, are culture-specific or may be generalized to other countries.

Generally speaking, our findings throw light on the role of individuals (proactive behavior) in the process of entry to an organization, thus contributing to the research literature in that field (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer & Green, 1998; Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000; Morrison, 1993a). We suggest that organizations should assess newcomer proactive behaviors before deciding to adopt highly institutionalized tactics; it is better to let newcomers discover their own ways of performing with lower levels of institutionalized socialization practices, as the latter may be more effective in achieving good socialization outcomes.

5.2.3 The Role of Cultural Diversity and Hofstede's Dimensions

In light of the above findings, we can conclude that culture and time play a major role in the socialization process and its outcomes, and that both factors may have impacted the results of our study. It is likely that the context of the present study led to the non-finding of our hypotheses. Although culture was not the focus of this study, the Arab cultural context may have impacted the results, and is important to shed light on how it may have done so.

According to Hofstede (1991), Arab countries are characterized by relatively strong uncertainty avoidance, a large power distance, a high degree of collectivism, and neutrality on the dimension of masculinity/femininity. The rejection of our hypotheses can be explained in terms of three of these dimensions in particular: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and collectivism.

First, on the uncertainty avoidance dimension, the UAE scores much higher (score = 68) than the United States (score = 46). This indicates a higher preference in the UAE than in the United States for avoiding uncertainty, and it implies that members of an Arab culture are more likely to feel threatened by unknown or uncertain situations than members of a US American culture (Zhao, 2013). As Hofstede explains, this tendency is expressed in the form of nervous stress and a need for predictability and written or unwritten rules. For example, when a newcomer joins an organization, they experience anxiety and stress because of their lack of knowledge and technical skills; their level of anxiety depends on their personal expectations in the organization (Saks et al., 2007). Although the participants in this study were highly proactive, the rejection of our hypotheses suggests that Arab culture (particularly in terms of the uncertainty avoidance dimension) played a major role in newcomer adjustment and may have hindered newcomers in their adaptability and ability to learn quickly during the entry period.

On the second dimension, individualism versus collectivism (Hofstede, 2011), the integration of individuals into primary groups may have impacted our results. As mentioned above, most of our participants came from the private and semi-governmental sectors, where the culture is different than that of the governmental sector; we can infer that cultural diversity played a role in these organizations and impacted the results of our study. In organizations that are culturally diverse, there are great variations in the opinions, thoughts, beliefs, norms, customs, values, trends, and traditions of workers (Martin, 2014). Such differences are likely to hinder employees from collaborating in unified ways, thereby impacting the adjustment (in terms of role clarity and social integration) and social network development of newcomers.

The UAE's open economy is populated with foreign and expatriate workers living and working alongside their UAE Arab counterparts, bringing great cultural diversity and creating a unique business dynamic (Alserhan, Forstenlechner, & Al-Nakeeb, 2009; Al-Ali, 2008). The lack of necessary skills among the native workforce is the key driver for high levels of foreign workers. Other Arabs, along with American, British, European, and Asian nationals, are the most common foreign workers (Randeree, 2009). In their 2014 study, Al-Esia and Skok illustrated different interaction patterns among UAE employees and their foreign coworkers by measuring the collectivist dimension. Interactions between UAE employees reflected the high scores on Hofstede's collectivism dimension, whereas interactions involving foreign coworkers exhibited high levels of individualism. This indicates that the collectivism characteristic of UAE Arab nationals does not apply to their interactions with foreign coworkers; almost 95% of the sample were of the opinion that it was not in their culture to mix freely in groups with foreigners or strangers. Therefore, their collectivist nature is only situational and is evident mostly when they are with people from their own culture (Al-Esia & Skok, 2014).

As Alserhan et al. (2009) noted in their study of UAE workers' attitudes to diversity in the private sector, workers grouped together culturally and disallowed any "outsiders." The same researcher found that the UAE's expatriate workers routinely hoard knowledge to ensure that their jobs are secure. Arab workers in the UAE were 100% more likely to participate in knowledge-sharing with their fellow UAE Arab workers, an indication of high levels of collectivism. Among foreign workers, however, levels of knowledge-sharing and support were low, and they exhibited far higher levels of individualism. In the same context, McMillan-Capehart (2005) found that organizations with low levels of diversity were better suited to institutionalized

socialization tactics that produce homogeneous organizations (i.e., where employees share similar values and beliefs and respond to situations in similar ways). When institutionalized tactics are used, the socialization process is much smoother in organizations that select culturally similar individuals than in those with culturally diverse employees. Similar individuals have lower turnover intention and experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Cable & Judge, 1996). Thus, in an organization that values differences of opinion and belief, disjunctive and divestiture tactics encourage a diverse workplace. On the other hand, serial and investiture tactics reduce workforce diversity by producing employees with similar values and beliefs (McMillan-Capehart, 2005). Our study results are highly likely to have been impacted by these factors, because the private and semi-governmental sectors have more diverse cultures than the governmental sector. This leads us to the conclusion that institutionalized socialization tactics are more suitable for public organizations, as they have a less diverse culture in which newcomers feel more integrated because of the similarity in their cultural values.

Conversely, an organization with a diverse culture that uses institutionalized tactics will experience higher levels of turnover and conflict (McMillan-Capehart, 2005). This is consistent with the findings of the present study, which observed higher turnover intention in the private and semi-governmental sectors than in the governmental sector (see Appendix 11, Tables 5.9 and 5.10). With institutionalized socialization tactics, individuals are often forced to fit into the organization and to assimilate and assume the values and beliefs of the majority (McMillan-Capehart, 2005). For culturally diverse individuals who wish to retain their own culture, this process can be very difficult. Individuals may experience acculturative stress in extreme cases of conflict associated with assimilation (Berry & Sam, 1997). Therefore, in organizations where

diversity levels are high, conflict and turnover manifests negatively, because new employees are not socialized properly (McMillan-Capehart, 2005).

In the context of the present study, the role clarity and social integration of newcomers may have been impacted in a multi-cultural organization. Although organizations used the institutionalized approach (orientation program and social tactics) to create environments that would maximize successful adjustment during the entry period, cultural diversity hindered socialization outcomes. Among participants in private organizations (57%) and in semi-governmental (11%) organizations, newcomer adjustment was impacted by knowledge-sharing and support from Arab and foreign employees because of the different cultures they came from.

The third dimension of power distance, according to Hofstede (1991), is interpersonal power or influence between a superior and a subordinate as perceived by the subordinate. This dimension is further defined by the extent to which a country's less powerful institutional and organizational members expect and accept that there is an unequal distribution of power. Hofstede found power distance in the UAE (score = 80) to be much greater than in the United States (score = 40) (Zhao, 2013). Korte and Li (2015) argue that newcomers' learning is constrained by a high power distance hierarchy and bureaucratic political structure, because newcomers are usually unaware of the norms or unwritten rules that govern coworker or group interactions. For example, the hierarchical norms of a culture constrain the development of individual social networks, particularly for those in lower status positions (such as the newly hired).

To obtain information, proactive newcomers use a variety of sources, including peers, supervisors, and organizational insiders (Morrison, 1993b; Ostroff & Kozlowski,

1992). However, it has been observed that supervisors are the preferred source of information (Morrison, 1993b), and this leads to favorable socialization outcomes (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). In a high power distance society, supervisors have more credibility than coworkers in terms of providing feedback (Li, Harris, Boswell, & Xie, 2011). Although newcomers often have questions about how to improve their job performance, they may be reluctant to ask their supervisor for fear that the supervisor might view them as incompetent or as overstepping their organizational roles (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 2002a), and this fear discourages them from seeking information from that source (Daniels & Greguras, 2014). Thus, we can say that a high power distance culture may impact the social network development and adjustment of newcomers, as they may be reluctant to communicate and exchange information openly with a manager if they believe that the manager's views are different from their own. In such cases, newcomers try to avoid any conflict by staying silent and by reaching a compromise (Mahran & Geraedts, 2009).

To sum up, the three dimensions discussed here (uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and collectivism) provide an understanding of how culture influences the workplace values of newcomers and insiders in UAE organizations, thereby explaining the non-finding of our hypotheses. Similarly, the impact of time in this context cannot be ignored. The importance of a continuous dynamism in the socialization process has been demonstrated by both theoretical and empirical studies on newcomer socialization in terms of attitude and behavioral changes over time. Nonetheless, scholars have paid little attention to the role of time (Ashforth, 2012), and there is limited knowledge regarding the speed of socialization (Choi, 2014; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Korte, 2010).

5.2.4 Serial Mediation Hypotheses

The third category of hypothesis concerns serial mediation. After linking the abovementioned results to our serial mediation hypotheses H21, H22, H23, and H24, we found that these hypotheses could be accepted.

Serial Mediation Hypotheses

H21: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H21.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity. Accepted

H21.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration. Accepted

H22: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H22.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and role clarity. Accepted

H22.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on job satisfaction is serially mediated by social network and social integration. Accepted

H23: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H23.1: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity. Accepted

H23.2: The indirect effect of social tactics on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration. Accepted

H24: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration.

H24.1: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and role clarity. Accepted

H24.2: The indirect effect of orientation program on turnover intention is serially mediated by social network and social integration. Accepted

Our serial mediation hypotheses concerned the mechanisms underlying socialization factors and outcomes. Our results supported all four serial mediation hypotheses and suggest that socialization factors are related to socialization outcomes through the underlying mechanisms of social network and newcomer adjustment. Overall, we found that institutionalized tactics (social tactics) and orientation programs mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration had a positive impact on newcomer job satisfaction and turnover intention, a result consistent with many previous studies (Bauer et al., 2007; Fleming et al., 2016).

Some studies have found institutionalized tactics to be associated with better job satisfaction (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Xiao, 2016). Taormina and Bauer's (2000) study noted that organizations in the United States and Hong Kong reported similar effects of socialization tactics on job satisfaction. The results of the present study suggest that institutionalized socialization practices, specifically social tactics, mediated by social network, role clarity, and social integration have a positive impact on newcomer job satisfaction in the Arab context, which constitutes a considerable contribution to the socialization literature

Because our study involved a mix of sectors and there is a high turnover rate in the UAE for new employees, we ran a one-way ANOVA to find out which sectors had high turnover intention (Table 5.3). The results showed a significant difference between the sectors ($p = 0.005$).

Table 5.3: ANOVA Results for Turnover Intention by Sector

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.960	2	4.480	5.419	.005
Within Groups	124.818	151	.827		
Total	133.778	153			

To determine which sector was different, we performed a Bonferroni correction and applied Tukey's test (Table 5.9). The results of the test showed that the private and semi-government sectors did not differ significantly in terms of turnover intention but that the government sector differed significantly from the other two sectors (see Appendix 11, Tables 5.9 and 5.10). The government sector had the lowest mean value (mean = 1.65, $p = 0.004$), which implies that newcomers in the governmental sector had lower intentions of leaving than newcomers working in the private sector (mean = 2.19) and in the semi-governmental sector (mean = 1.98).

Our study results for turnover intention are in line with the results of a recent study by Olowokere, Chovwen, and Balogun (2014). In addition, a study conducted by Abdelkarim and Ibrahim (2001) for 1,300 employees in the private sector found that most UAE nationals prefer to work in the public rather than the private sector.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

Our model found that, during the initial four months after organizational entry, Emirati newcomers experienced socialization factors in adjusting to their roles and obtaining job satisfaction through the mechanism of social network. On this basis, this study makes important theoretical contributions and offers practical implications from both the organizational and newcomer perspectives.

6.1 Theoretical Implications

The most important theoretical implication of this study is that, based on our results, studies of organizational socialization processes should be conducted in different cultures. Most existing studies were conducted in Western cultural settings (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Kim et al., 2005). Our study is one of the first to be conducted in the Arab cultural context, and most of our findings align with previous studies addressing the cross-cultural socialization concerns of scholars. Our results further confirm that there is value in studying organizational phenomena in non-Western contexts.

Second, the model of Fang et al. (2011), which is yet to be tested by scholars, suggests that social networks are at the center of this process, as an outcome of both proactive behaviors and organizational socialization factors, which affect the outcomes of socialization. Our study builds on this model by adding the organizational factor of orientation program and including proactive personality as moderator; our results therefore contribute to the body of literature on socialization. Our findings indicate the value of exploring broad socialization tactics while examining specific organizational practices (orientation programs) and how they affect and influence newcomer socialization outcomes in the Arab context.

Third, our study addresses the call issued by Klein et al. (2015) for research to examine how individual differences in terms of proactive behavior interact with orientation programs that contribute toward socialization outcomes. Generically, this study is part of a wider body of literature observing that newcomers behave proactively during the socialization period (Morrison, 1993a; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). It expands the scope of that literature by implying that in addition to seeking information, newcomers also build networks to help them learn the ropes and settle in. Building on this point, our findings contribute to the literature on proactive behavior by shedding light on the Arab context, where fewer studies have been conducted.

Fourth, the private sector has been the focus of most organizational socialization research, and our study is one of the few to examine new employee egocentric networks in the course of organizational socialization within the public sector (Hatmaker & Park, 2014; Hatmaker et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002b). In our study, 31% of participants were from the governmental sector and 11% from the semi-governmental sector; the latter has been the focus of very limited study, and therefore our findings offer a new contribution and broaden the scope for future research. According to Hatmaker and Park (2014), few studies have examined newcomers' social network development in the entry phase in the public sector. In this connection, our study results make a contribution by offering public administration scholars and practitioners better insights into new employee integration and adjustment in public organizations in the Arab context.

Fifth, our data were obtained from the UAE; an Arab culture whose values are different from those of most Western countries. The results of our study are derived from a range of Arab cultural organizations and, therefore, contribute to the literature on

diverse cultures. Organizations must consider the effect of diverse culture on socialization outcomes, even when they employ socialization tactics to adjust newcomers successfully. According to our findings, newcomers are highly proactive and unable to adjust, particularly in highly diverse organizations that demonstrate a less collectivistic culture. This indicates that organizations can manage diversity by capitalizing on the advantages it brings while minimizing its disadvantages (McMillan-Capehart, 2005).

Lastly, this study contributes to the literature on social networks and socialization. By investigating newcomers' social network developments during the entry phase, specifically from the perspective of interaction and how it leads to newcomer socialization outcomes, we add to the developing body of work on organizational socialization and employee networks within different sector types and sizes.

To sum up, to the best of our knowledge, this is one of the first studies in the Arab context, with a particular focus on the UAE (Dubai and Abu Dhabi), to examine from the social capital perspective what newcomers experience when they join an organization.

6.2 Practical Implications

This study has two types of practical implication for organizations and another type of implication for newcomers. Successful socialization facilitates positive socialization outcomes, and both newcomers and organizations are responsible for this. From an organization's perspective, successful socialization is critical because it is the personal success of the newcomer that ultimately enhances organizational performance. Therefore, in order to retain top talent, organizations need to invest in and employ

more resources to design socialization programs that facilitate socialization outcomes. Taken as a whole, the results of this study suggest that the role of social network on the learning and assimilation processes during socialization is of great importance.

The first suggestion in this context is how organizations can foster social interaction opportunities for newcomers. Many studies have suggested that formal socialization programs are more effective than informal ones for newcomer adjustment.

First, in formal orientation programs, HR can arrange for official meetings or sessions, which create opportunities for the newcomer to meet people from different departments and managerial levels. Another suggestion is to organize official lunches or company gatherings to provide newcomers with the opportunity to spend face-to-face time with coworkers and key managers (Rollag et al., 2005). Moreover, it is very important to include icebreaking activities in these formal programs to help newcomers get socialized quickly. Rollag et al. (2005) had another interesting suggestion to enable HR to get more information about newcomers: request newcomers to make “About Me” presentations in company gatherings or to officials. During the onboarding process, HR must also create and update a database of newcomers’ talents and initiatives, together with an certifications and awards that they have received before joining the organization. This will help the organization to know their capabilities better and to utilize their talents, resulting in satisfied and confident newcomers.

Second, in terms of formal practices, organizations can facilitate mentorship programs to help newcomers to become better integrated. In such programs, the newcomer has interactions with both junior and senior colleagues, because the type of knowledge and the nature of the support they provide may differ. While senior colleagues, as mentors,

help newcomers to navigate the technical and social intricacies of an organization, peer colleagues provide important personal and professional support, such as friendship, career strategizing, confirmation, and exchange of feedback (Fleming et al., 2016; Hatmaker & Park, 2014). Some companies also have informal mentorships or buddy systems, a holistic and strategic process of socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2011) in which managers are required to recognize newcomer needs to meet higher levels of cultural resistance and integration.

As mentioned above, it is more effective to design and implement formal institutionalized socialization and orientation programs than to rely on informal arrangements. However, this study needs to draw HR attention to critical points while designing these formal programs.

First, Klein et al. (2015) raised a very important point about formal orientation programs: organizations must evaluate and update their onboarding programs to include practices that are effective, revising or eliminating practices that do not provide the desired results. This will help the organization achieve the program objective, decrease turnover intention, and increase newcomer satisfaction.

Second, organizations need to consider the timing of socialization programs. A new employee's first weeks on a job are likely to have an effect on her/his subsequent adjustment and shape his/her first impression about the organization, a fact that needs to be taken account of in all training and development sessions. The entry period for newcomers is critical, because they form their views of the organization and build their first impressions through interactions with insiders (positive or negative) at this time; failure to convert an initial negative perception into a positive one could result in a

decision to leave (Staunton, 2017). Therefore, we advise organizations to plan properly and to decide on the right program timing during the entry period.

Third, HR needs to raise awareness among coworkers and supervisors about the importance and value of newcomer integration to encourage proactivity and enable acceptance into the work group, particularly in culturally diverse organizations. They must also reward the organizational insiders who are involved in the process (Baker & Dutton, 2007), as they play an important role in newcomer adjustment during the formal program in the early stages of socialization. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) mentioned in their study that undermining from peers and supervisors in the first 90 days decreased social integration and increased withdrawal behaviors, and that voluntary turnover was uniquely impacted by supervisor undermining. Newcomers experiencing a decrease in support over time may interpret this as something that they did wrong, or they may feel unnoticed, unimportant, and without an outlet for questions.

Another important suggestion for managers who play a role in newcomer adjustment and social network development is that they should provide newcomers with valuable initial experiences in several ways. Specifically, they can:

- (1) design the newcomer's first project in a way that coworkers' assistance is required to complete it;
- (2) assign newcomers to cross-functional project teams in order to expose them to a wide network of resources;
- (3) give newcomers the opportunity to develop a unique expertise that has to be accessed by others to complete their own work;

(4) review the newcomer's first assignment progress by asking who he/she has talked to, not just what he/she has accomplished.

Newcomers with stand-alone projects remained isolated, could not build the relationships necessary for success; they felt less connected to the organization socially, not fitting in, and were consequently more likely to leave (Tan & Shen, 2016; Rollag et al., 2005)

The context of our study showed that fostering social interaction among newcomers depended on a number of variables. The first of these was the size of the organization. The participants in this study came from different sizes of organization, and it was observed that in small organizations, newcomers had many informal interactions as part of their orientation; these were not officially planned but were conducted by fellow workers, and they enabled the newcomer to learn the language, values, and rituals of the organization (Chapman, 2009). The work environment in these small organizations is very collaborative; knowledge-sharing between peers and newcomers can be easy and effortless (Gherardi & Perrotta, 2010), and informal interactions tend to work better. Newcomers build their relationships and gain access to great benefits through informal interactions with insiders and peers (Simmons-Welburn & Welburn, 2003). Hatmaker et al. (2016) noted that the role of informal socialization practices (i.e., encouraging managers and coworkers to initiate the process without relying on organization official programs) was neglected, because most studies have focused on formal practices or patterns of organizational socialization, such as organizational tactics, training, and mentoring. It is important for organization insiders to create an environment that encourages newcomers to ask for help openly (Fleming et al., 2016).

Secondly, as mentioned in the discussion in Chapter 5, was physical office location. If newcomers share an open office area with coworkers, supervisors, and peers, it will be much easier for them to get help and to interact regularly with insiders than for those who are physically isolated (Fleming et al., 2016), as is likely in a small company. Another creative and particularly effective approach was suggested by Rollag et al. (2005). To increase newcomers' social networks, put helium balloons in their offices, helping them to find their office and also letting others know that a new person has arrived. Insiders can then start interacting and supporting the newcomer informally.

It is not solely the responsibility of the organization to socialize the newcomer. Newcomers should be proactive, as this helps them in successful socialization. Bauer et al. (1998) suggested that newcomers become socialized by developing certain configurations of relationships with insiders. Based on those findings, newcomers should be encouraged to be more proactive and to develop relationships with colleagues in order to adjust sooner within the organization, without relying on organizational programs. Sluss and Thompson (2012) confirmed this and highlighted that a newcomer can enhance his/her network relationship with the supervisor by initiating information enquiries. Therefore, our suggestion to HR is to conduct entry-level assessments with newcomers to find out whether they have a proactive personality. As our results suggest, if newcomers are proactive, it is better to adopt practices that are less institutionalized, as these allow newcomers to develop their own strategies to get to know their supervisors and coworkers more closely in an informal way.

6.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has some limitations that should be taken into account when interpreting the results.

First, I used a time-lagged research design to measure the socialization process and social network, and I measured social networks after the fourth month of employment. However, the data were insufficient, and this prevented me from testing the subsequent possibilities. In the same field, Brissette et al. (2002) sampled college students instead of organizational employees; they came to the conclusion that as soon as the new semester begins, students are likely to start developing relationships. This observation is similar to Ashforth (2012), who found that measuring the variables of interest as early as possible is important in order to establish the basics for capturing changes in newcomer social network development over time. Therefore, all research on newcomers' social networks development or change needs to track social networks from the beginning (Choi, 2014) to understand how socialization variables evolve over time. It is recommended that future studies in this area use a longitudinal design for better results.

Second, in extension of the first point, the social network data I gathered in time 2 (size/status/density/range/strength of ties) were insufficient to test the exact change of patterns in newcomer adjustment. Future research on the dynamics of newcomer social network development should therefore include multiple time-wave data. Newcomer social networks present a particular methodological challenge, because they are mostly self-reported. The egocentric networks under study here may suffer the major shortcoming of single-source bias (Morrison, 2002b). Within social networks, only

egos report their contacts. Information about such networks might therefore be unreliable, and more research is required to achieve greater precision on this topic.

Like most studies of organizational socialization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007), this study used a self-rated measure, which has its limitations in terms of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), even though such measures can capture useful aspects of newcomer socialization experiences (Bauer & Green, 1994; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). As a precautionary measure, our study carried out the common latent factor method test; on the basis of the results of this test, we are confident that common latent bias variance is not a major issue in our data.

Third, our data were collected from newcomers in diverse organizations and associations with a wide range of occupations and industries. Although this is desirable for purposes of generalization, it might also represent a further limitation. The study was not limited to a single sector, to any homogeneous group of newcomers, or to any unique cultural setting, as cultures vary greatly between the private and governmental sectors. This may prove to be as much of a benefit as a limitation, since scholars in the field have suggested that case studies are an excellent channel for unique findings and insights into the phenomena of socialization (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). However, we suggest that further research is needed to investigate newcomer adjustment in one specific sector (governmental or private).

Fourth, in terms of the generalizability of results across cultures, it should be noted that the UAE culture is collectivist and characterized by high power distance (Hofstede, 1983). To assess the generalizability of our results, other researchers may usefully replicate this study in a context that is lower on these parameters. Moreover, future research into Hofstede's dimension of collectivism in a multi-cultural setting in

the Arab world and its impact on the socialization process and outcome can draw on the findings of the present study, which provides valuable insight into how cultural diversity and the socialization process can be managed by organizations using a combination of institutionalized socialization tactics, cultural diversity, and individualistic and collectivistic organizational culture (McMillan-Capehart, 2005). It is, however, very important to understand what determines cultural diversity and its consequences during the entry period of socialization, because few studies have been carried out on this topic in the context of Arab countries. It is strongly recommended that future research should focus on the negative effects of cultural diversity on socialization outcomes during the entry period (McMillan-Capehart, 2005).

Fifth, although our study provides full insight into how proactive personality influences newcomer adjustment and how insiders impact on the proactive behavior of newcomers, this may be due to a positive social environment established by existing organizational members. As studies on newcomer adjustment from the experienced employee's perspective have helped in identifying how group characteristics influence newcomer adjustment (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011), future research can examine which behaviors from the work group could facilitate proactive socialization by providing social support and advice (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011).

Sixth, the literature on socialization has examined different tactics that lead to newcomer adjustment. Some authors have used three dimensions (Jones, 1986), while others have used six subdimensions (Allen, 2006) or one composite study that is a combination of all the socialization tactics (Choi, 2014). A limitation of the present study is that it focused specifically on the effect of institutionalized (social) tactics. It would be preferable to take into account other tactics, such as content and context,

because they may lead to different socialization outcomes. Moreover, while many empirical studies have shown that newcomer socialization is positively affected by institutionalized socialization tactics, a smaller number of studies have examined the effects of individualized tactics (Fang et al., 2011). This is where we recommend further research, specifically in the Arab cultural context.

Seventh, the adjustment of newcomers and the socialization process is determined to a large extent by the size of the organization. For example, many socialization studies have examined cohorts of graduates entering large, mature firms (Bauer et al., 1998). Ashforth et al. (1998) were of the opinion that some institutionalized tactics are feasible only in organizations of a certain size. For example, the collective tactic can be applied only if there are multiple newcomers, and serial socialization is possible only if predecessors or role models are present. Therefore, a certain structure is required to allow the newcomer to navigate within the organization itself. In larger organizations, the use of institutionalized socialization is more common; in other words, the smaller the organization, the greater the use of individualized socialization. As smaller organizations rely heavily on informal practices and lack the economies of scale and the resources to utilize formal socialization practices (Ashforth et al., 1998), we propose that future research should consider the use of normative controls in organizations of different sizes during socialization. Keeping this in view, our study has examined organizations of different sizes, but we have not included the effect of organizational size on socialization, which opens up a new avenue for research in this field.

Finally, building on the point above, the researcher has observed that some larger organizations use online socialization tools to introduce the company and enable

online social interactions between newcomers and insiders. This approach will limit opportunities for newcomers to obtain face-to-face interaction, which scholars including Rollag et al. (2005) have identified as important for socialization and adjustment. Moreover, online learning has many other disadvantages, such as the time lag between interactions, a frequent lack of clear communication norms, and an absence of visual/auditory conversation cues (Irwin & Berge, 2006), all of which may create anxiety for newcomers. Future research should therefore determine the impact of new technology, including online socialization programs, on newcomer adjustment and social network development.

6.4 Conclusion

An organization's survival and continued performance is dependent on the effective socialization of new employees: *"Effective socialization helps transform the newcomer into a contributing member, thereby replenishing if not rejuvenating the organization as a system"* (Ashforth, Sluss, and Harrison, 2007, p. 2). Social networks play a central part in shaping newcomers and transferring knowledge, and therefore an organization needs strategies more than just socialization tactics. Our findings suggest that two types of organizational socialization factor (social tactics and orientation programs) are related to newcomer adjustment through the social network factor. At the same time, newcomers who are highly proactive during orientation programs achieve more role clarity. On this basis, we suggest that organizations should assess newcomer proactive behavior before deciding whether to apply highly institutionalized tactics practices; it is advisable to let newcomers discover their own ways of performing with less highly institutionalized socialization practices, which may be more effective in achieving socialization outcomes.

To sum up, our study findings will contribute towards helping HR practitioners in the UAE to minimize newcomer turnover issues as this has been identified as a major outcome of poor adjustment among newcomers (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007). Moreover, we have reviewed the existing literature on organizational socialization from the perspectives of socialization and social capital, while examining the variables of this study and their subsequent linkages and identifying the theoretical and practical implications. This study identifies and summarizes these links in a single consolidated review to contribute to research in the areas of both social capital and organizational socialization literatures.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: A Multi-Level Process Model of Organizational Socialization

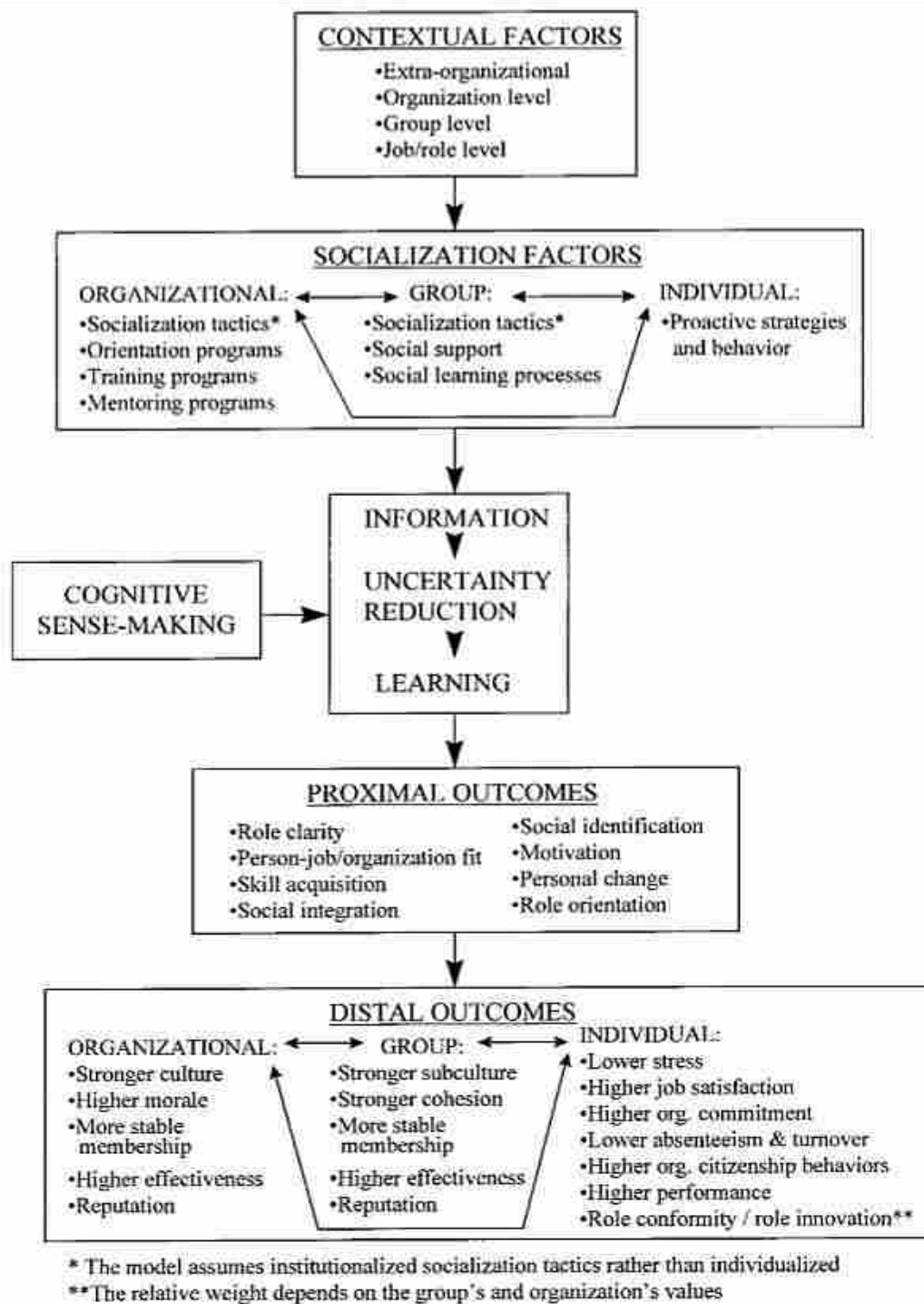


FIG. 1. A multi-level process model of organizational socialization.

Appendix 2: Socialization Tactics Dimensions
(Adopted from Bauer et al., 2007)

Organizational Socialization Tactics Dimensions

	<i>Institutionalized</i>		<i>Individualized</i>
<i>Context Tactics</i> Learning task requirements, as part of a group and having formal training before starting the actual job	<i>Collective</i>	vs.	<i>Individual</i>
	“the tactics of taking a group of recruits who are facing a given boundary passage and putting them through a common set of experiences together”		“the tactic of processing recruits singly and in isolation from one another through a more or less unique set of experiences”
	<i>Formal</i>		<i>Informal</i>
	“those processes in which a newcomer is more or less segregated from regular organizational members while being put through a set of experiences tailored explicitly for the newcomer”	vs.	“[it] do[es] not distinguish the newcomer’s role specifically, nor is there an effort an made in such programs to rigidly differentiate the recruit from the other more experienced organizational members”
<i>Content Tactics</i> Clear stages exist for training, and there is a clear timetable for role adjustment	<i>Sequential</i>	vs.	<i>Random</i>
	“the degree to which the organization or occupation specifies a given sequence of discrete and identifiable steps leading to the target role”		“[it] occurs when the sequence of steps leading to the target role is unknown, ambiguous, or continually changing”
	<i>Fixed</i>		<i>Variable</i>
	“[it] provide[s] a recruit with the precise knowledge of the time it will take to complete a given passage”	vs.	“[it] give[s] a recruit few clues as to when to expect a given boundary passage”
<i>Social Tactics</i> Receiving positive feedback and identity affirmation from organizational insider to guide them within the organization	<i>Serial</i>	vs.	<i>Disjunctive</i>
	“one in which experienced members of the organization groom newcomers who are about to assume similar kinds of positions in the organization”		“when newcomers are not following the footsteps of immediate or recent predecessors, and when no role models are available to recruits to inform them as to how they are to proceed in the new role”
	<i>Investiture</i>		<i>Divestiture</i>
	“[it] ratif[ies] and document[s] for recruits the viability and usefulness of those personal characteristics they bring with them to the organization”	vs.	“[it] seek[s] to deny and strip away certain personal characteristics of a recruit”

Adapted from Bauer et al. (2007, p.708), Jones (1986, p. 263), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979, pp. 232-251)

Appendix 3: Development of Social Capital Theory

Table 1. Theories of Capital

	The Classical Theory	The Neo-Capital Theories			
		Human Capital	Cultural Capital	Social Capital	
Theorist	Marx	Schultz, Becker	Bourdieu	Lin, Burt, Marsden, Flap, Coleman	Bourdieu, Coleman, Putnam
Explanation	Social relations: Exploitation by the capitalists (bourgeoisie) of the proletariat	Accumulation of surplus value by laborer	Reproduction of dominant symbols and meanings (values)	Access to and use of resources embedded in social networks	Solidarity and reproduction of group
Capital	A. Part of surplus value between the use value (in consumption market) and the exchange value (in production-labor market) of the commodity. B. Investment in the production and circulation of commodities	Investment in technical skills and knowledge	Internalization or misrecognition of dominant values	Investment in social networks	Investment in mutual recognition and acknowledgment
Level of Analysis	Structural (classes)	Individual	Individual/class	Individual	Group/individual

Appendix 4: Social Capital Definitions

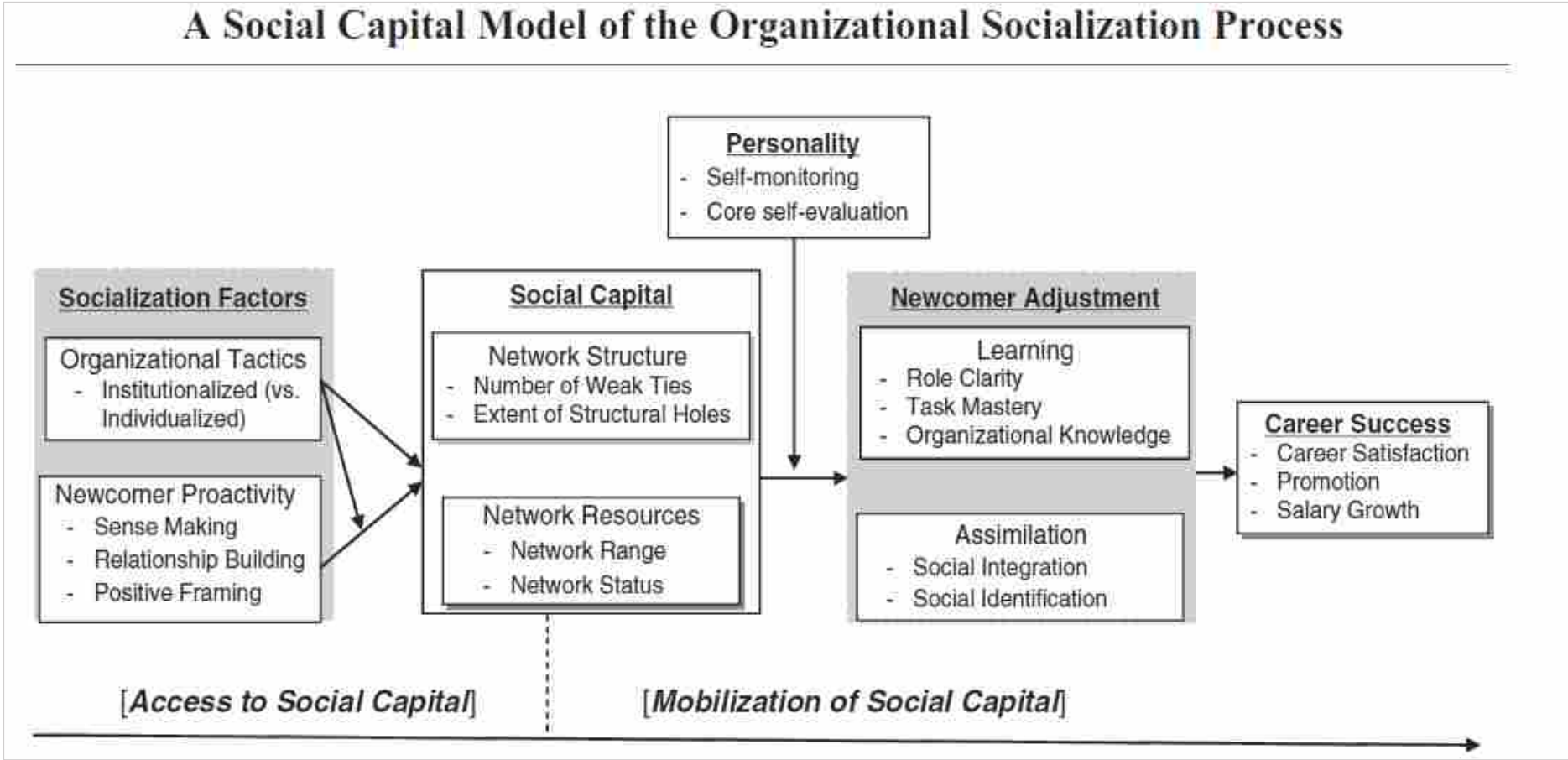
TABLE 2
Definitions of Social Capital

External versus Internal	Authors	Definitions of Social Capital
External	Baker	"a resource that actors derive from specific social structures and then use to pursue their interests; it is created by changes in the relationship among actors" (1990: 619).
	Belliveau, O'Reilly, & Wade	"an individual's personal network and elite institutional affiliations" (1996: 1572).
	Bourdieu	"the aggregate of the actual or potential resources which are linked to possession of a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance or recognition" (1985: 248). "made up of social obligations ('connections'), which is convertible, in certain conditions, into economic capital and may be institutionalized in the form of a title of nobility" (1985: 243).
	Bourdieu & Wacquant	"the sum of the resources, actual or virtual, that accrue to an individual or a group by virtue of possessing a durable network of more or less institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition" (1992: 119).
	Boxman, De Graaf, & Flap	"the number of people who can be expected to provide support and the resources those people have at their disposal" (1991: 52).
	Burt	"friends, colleagues, and more general contacts through whom you receive opportunities to use your financial and human capital" (1992: 9). "the brokerage opportunities in a network" (1997b: 355).
	Knoke	"the process by which social actors create and mobilize their network connections within and between organizations to gain access to other social actors' resources" (1999: 18).
	Portes	"the ability of actors to secure benefits by virtue of membership in social networks or other social structures" (1998: 6).

Internal	Brehm & Rahn	"the web of cooperative relationships between citizens that facilitate resolution of collective action problems" (1997: 999).
	Coleman	"Social capital is defined by its function. It is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities having two characteristics in common: They all consist of some aspect of social structure, and they facilitate certain actions of individuals who are within the structure" (1990: 302).
	Fukuyama	"the ability of people to work together for common purposes in groups and organizations" (1995: 10). "Social capital can be defined simply as the existence of a certain set of informal values or norms shared among members of a group that permit cooperation among them" (1997).
	Inglehart	"a culture of trust and tolerance, in which extensive networks of voluntary associations emerge" (1997: 188).
	Portes & Sensenbrenner	"those expectations for action within a collectivity that affect the economic goals and goal-seeking behavior of its members, even if these expectations are not oriented toward the economic sphere" (1993: 1323).
	Putnam	"features of social organization such as networks, norms, and social trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit" (1995: 67).
	Thomas	"those voluntary means and processes developed within civil society which promote development for the collective whole" (1996: 11).
Both	Loury	"naturally occurring social relationships among persons which promote or assist the acquisition of skills and traits valued in the marketplace . . . an asset which may be as significant as financial bequests in accounting for the maintenance of inequality in our society" (1992: 100).
	Nahapiet & Ghoshal	"the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may be mobilized through that network" (1998: 243).
	Pennar	"the web of social relationships that influences individual behavior and thereby affects economic growth" (1997: 154).
	Schiff	"the set of elements of the social structure that affects relations among people and are inputs or arguments of the production and/or utility function" (1992: 160).
	Woolcock	"the information, trust, and norms of reciprocity inhering in one's social networks" (1998: 153).

Adler, P. S., & Kwon, S. W. (2002). Social capital: Prospects for a new concept. *Academy of management review*, 27(1), 17-40.

Appendix 5: Social Capital Model of the Organizational Socialization



Appendix 6: Mobley's (1977) Turnover Process Model

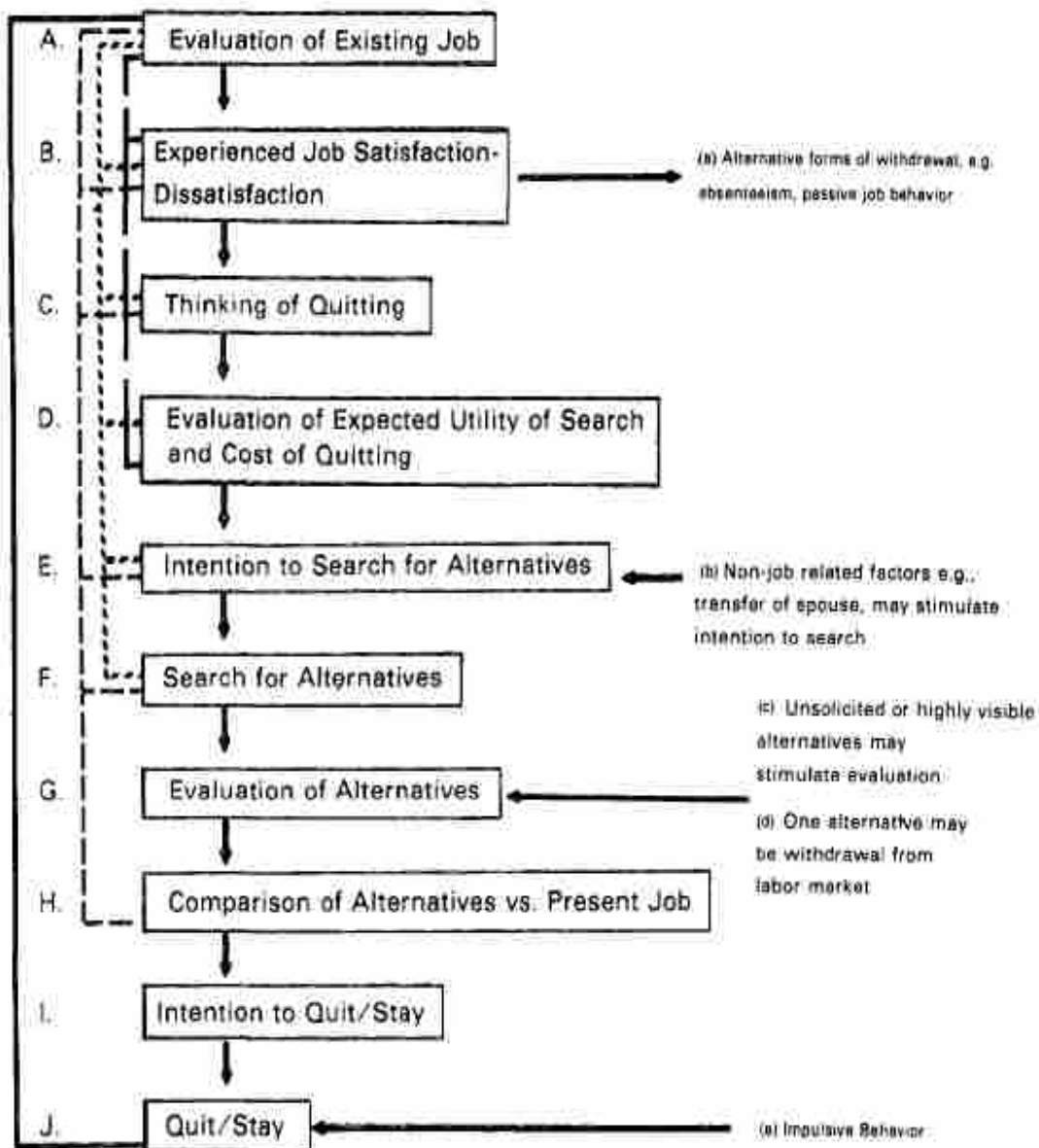


Figure 1: The employee turnover decision process.

Appendix 7: Newcomer Socialization and Social Network Research Design

Research Design for Changes in Newcomer Socialization and Social Networks Literature

	Study	Number of Waves	Time 1	Time Interval	Total Length
<i>Socialization</i>	Boswell et al. (2009)	4	1st day of employment (during an orientation)	3 months (T1 & T2, T2 & T3) 6 months (T3 & T4)	1 Year
	Chan & Schmitt (2000)	4	End of the 1st month	1 month	4 months
	Lance et al. (2000)	3	1st day of employment (during an orientation)	3 months	6 months
	Jokisaari & Nurmi (2009)	4	6 months after graduation	6 months	2 Years
	Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013)	14	Within the first 2 weeks of employment	1 week	3 months
<i>Social Networks</i>	Asendorf & Wilpers (1998)	4	2nd week after a new semester	6 months	18 months
	Brissette et al. (2002)	2	During the first 3 weeks in a new semester	End of semester (12-16 weeks)	1 semester
	Burkhardt (1994)	3	3 months before adapting a new computer system	6 months (T1 & T2) 1 year (T2 & T3)	1.5 year
	Burkhardt & Brass (1990)	4	3 months before adapting a new computer system	6 months (T1 & T2) 3 months (T2 & T3) 3 months (T3 & T4)	1 year
	Sasovova et al. (2010)	2	3 months before a new information system	9 months	9 months
	Shah (2000)	1	6 months after layoff	n.a.	n.a.

Appendix 8: Tables 5.2 & 5.3

Table 5.2: Social Network by Age

Dependent Variable: SN							
	(I) Age	(J) Age	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	18-24 Years	25-34	1.02121*	.32697	.006	.2473	1.7952
		35 and Above Years	.47967	.82403	.830	-1.4709	2.4302
	25-34	18-24 Years	-1.02121*	.32697	.006	-1.7952	-.2473
		35 and Above Years	-.54154	.83621	.794	-2.5209	1.4378
	35 and Above Years	18-24 Years	-.47967	.82403	.830	-2.4302	1.4709
		25-34	.54154	.83621	.794	-1.4378	2.5209
Bonferroni	18-24 Years	25-34	1.02121*	.32697	.006	.2296	1.8128
		35 and Above Years	.47967	.82403	1.000	-1.5153	2.4746
	25-34	18-24 Years	-1.02121*	.32697	.006	-1.8128	-.2296
		35 and Above Years	-.54154	.83621	1.000	-2.5660	1.4829
	35 and Above Years	18-24 Years	-.47967	.82403	1.000	-2.4746	1.5153
		25-34	.54154	.83621	1.000	-1.4829	2.5660

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.3: Mean of Age Categories and Social Network

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
18-24 Years	88	3.8705	1.98326
25-34	60	2.8493	1.98021
35 and Above Years	6	3.3908	.68928
Total	154	3.4540	2.00189

Appendix 9: Tables 5.5 & 5.6

Table 5.5: Analysis for Sector by Social Network

Dependent Variable: SN

	(I) Sector	(J) Sector	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Tukey HSD	Government	Private	.74261	.35393	.094	-.0952	1.5804	
		Semi- Government	.30260	.55891	.851	-1.0204	1.6256	
	Private	Government	-.74261	.35393	.094	-1.5804	.0952	
		Semi- Government	-.44002	.52605	.681	-1.6852	.8052	
	Semi- Government	Government	-.30260	.55891	.851	-1.6256	1.0204	
		Private	.44002	.52605	.681	-.8052	1.6852	
	Bonferroni	Government	Private	.74261	.35393	.113	-.1142	1.5995
			Semi- Government	.30260	.55891	1.000	-1.0505	1.6557
Private		Government	-.74261	.35393	.113	-1.5995	.1142	
		Semi- Government	-.44002	.52605	1.000	-1.7135	.8335	
Semi- Government		Government	-.30260	.55891	1.000	-1.6557	1.0505	
		Private	.44002	.52605	1.000	-.8335	1.7135	

Table 5.6: Mean of Sector and Social Network

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Maximum
Government	49	3.9117	1.32549	7.91
Private	88	3.1691	1.78754	7.70
Semi- Government	17	3.6091	3.81622	11.61
Total	154	3.4540	2.00189	11.61

Appendix 10: Table 5.7

Table 5.7: Mean of Proactive personality

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PP_AVG	154	4.2740	.47483	.03826
PP1	154	4.4545	.68686	.05535
PP2	154	4.0000	.82446	.06644
PP3	154	4.2857	.78144	.06297
PP4	154	4.5195	.63884	.05148
PP5	154	4.0390	.79937	.06442
PP6	154	4.1364	.80900	.06519
PP7	154	4.2403	.75887	.06115
PP8	154	4.2727	.73452	.05919
PP9	154	4.3052	.77820	.06271
PP10	154	4.5065	.70708	.05698

Appendix 11: Tables 5.9 & 5.10

Table 5.9: Analysis for Sector by Turnover Intention

Dependent Variable: TI_AVG

		(I) Sector	(J) Sector	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	Government	Private		-.53332*	.16206	.004	-.9169	-.1497
		Semi-Government		-.32053	.25592	.424	-.9263	.2852
	Private	Government		.53332*	.16206	.004	.1497	.9169
		Semi-Government		.21279	.24087	.652	-.3574	.7829
	Semi-Government	Government		.32053	.25592	.424	-.2852	.9263
		Private		-.21279	.24087	.652	-.7829	.3574
Bonferroni	Government	Private		-.53332*	.16206	.004	-.9257	-.1410
		Semi-Government		-.32053	.25592	.637	-.9401	.2990
	Private	Government		.53332*	.16206	.004	.1410	.9257
		Semi-Government		.21279	.24087	1.000	-.3703	.7959
	Semi-Government	Government		.32053	.25592	.637	-.2990	.9401
		Private		-.21279	.24087	1.000	-.7959	.3703

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 5.10: Mean of Sector and Turnover Intention

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Government	49	1.6599	.82353	.11765
Private	88	2.1932	.95455	.10176
Semi- Government	17	1.9804	.90116	.21856
Total	154	2.0000	.93507	.07535

Appendix 12: Survey One & Two

الموضوع: دور شبكة العلاقات الاجتماعية في سرعة تكيف الموظفين الجدد والنجاح المهني

عزيزي المشارك/ة،

ندعوكم للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية عنوانها " دور شبكة العلاقات الاجتماعية في سرعة تكيف الموظفين الجدد والنجاح المهني". تعمل على إعداد هذه الدراسة الأنسة ياسمين جمعة المهيري بهدف إتمام رسالة الدكتوراه الخاصة بها في إدارة الأعمال.

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على مدى تأثير التأقلم الاجتماعي داخل المؤسسة على سرعة تكيف الموظفين الجدد في مكان العمل والنجاح المهني. سيطلب من المشاركين في الدراسة تعبئة استبيانين:

- 1) يجب تعبئة الاستبيان الأول بعد مرور شهر واحد على وجود الموظف في مكان العمل الجديد؛
 - 2) يجب تعبئة الاستبيان الثاني بعد مرور 3 أشهر على وجود الموظف في مكان العمل الجديد.
- يستغرق إتمام كل استبيان بين 10 و 15 دقيقة تقريباً.

تجدد الإشارة إلى أن مجلس المراجعات الأكاديمية (IRB) في جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة قد وافق على الاستبيانين واعتمدهما. لا يوجد أي مخاطر مرتبطة بمشاركةكم في هذه الدراسة، إذ أنها لا تهدف إلى جمع أي معلومات تعريفية عن أي من المشاركين. نتعهد بأن كافة الإجابات التي يتم جمعها في هذه الدراسة ستبقى سرية. إن مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة اختيارية بالكامل، إذ أنكم تملكون الحق في التراجع عن قرار مشاركتكم أو وقف المشاركة في أي وقت تشاؤون، من دون أن يترتب عن ذلك القرار أي غرامة.

تؤكدون من خلال إتمام هذين الاستبيانين وتقديمهما موافقتكم على المشاركة في هذه الدراسة. قد لا تكتسبون أي فائدة/ فوائد مباشرة من خلال مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة، إلا أن المعلومات التي سيتم جمعها في هذا الإطار من شأنها أن تضيف قيمة ملحوظة ومحتوى قائم على أدلة ملموسة إلى رسالة الدكتوراه الخاصة بي.

إذا كان لديكم أي استفسار أو كنتم بحاجة إلى أي معلومات إضافية ذات الصلة بالاستبيانين المشار إليهما أعلاه أو الدراسة بشكل عام، الرجاء التواصل معي في أي وقت على yjalmehairi@hotmail.com. نتقدم منكم بجزيل الشكر والتقدير على مشاركتكم.

لا تمثل هذه الدعوة أي تأييد من جانب المشارك على مضمون هذا البحث و/أو نتائجه، حيث تقع مسؤولية محتوى الاستبيانين ونتائجها على عاتق الشخص الذي يقوم بإعداد هذه الدراسة وحده لا غير.

مع تحيات،
ياسمين المهيري
طالبة دكتوراه في إدارة الأعمال
جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة

First Survey (after 1 Month of joining the organization)

الاستبيان الأول (بعد مرور شهر على الانضمام إلى الشركة)

This survey will be answered by participants twice at two different times. In order to maintain anonymity and still be able to link survey one and survey two, we would like to ask you the following questions to generate a unique code for each participant. Please write the initials of your first name, middle name and last name followed by the month and year of your birth.

Example: Yasmin Saeed Al Jabri, month and year of birth: July 1988

سيقوم المشاركون بتعبئة هذا الاستبيان مرتين في وقتين مختلفين. وللحفاظ على سرية هوية المشاركين والتمكن في الوقت نفسه من ربط الاستبيان الأول بالاستبيان الثاني، نود أن نطرح عليكم الأسئلة التالية بهدف منح كل مشارك رمزاً مميزاً. الرجاء كتابة الأحرف الأولى من الاسم الأول، واسم الأب واسم العائلة متبوعاً بشهر وسنة ولادتك.

مثال: ياسمين سعيد الجابري، شهر وسنة الميلاد: يوليو 1988

Y S J 0788

Please fill in the letters requested in English:				الرجاء كتابة الأحرف المطلوبة باللغة الانجليزية:
ID رقم	Initial of First Name الحرف الأول من الاسم الأول	Initial of Middle Name الحرف الأول من اسم الأب	Initial of Last Name الحرف الأول من اسم العائلة	DOB/M/Y تاريخ الميلاد الشهر/السنة

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer.

الرجاء تحديد مدى موافقتك على الجمل التالية. ضع دائرة حول الإجابة الأنسب.

Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5
لا أوافق أبداً	لا أوافق	حيادي	أوافق	أوافق بشدة

لا أوافق أبداً (SD)	لا أوافق (D)	حيادي (N)	أوافق (A)	أوافق بشدة (SA)	Item	البند
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	1. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.	1. يُشعرتني الآخرون بأن مهاراتي وقدراتي هي ذات أهمية كبرى في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	2. Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.	2. أظهر معظم زملائي في العمل دعمهم لي شخصياً.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	3. I did not have to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization.	3. لم أكن مجبراً على تغيير سلوكي ومبادئ لي تقبلني الآخرون في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	4. My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.	4. بادر زملائي في العمل إلى بذل جهود إضافية لمساعدتي في التأقلم مع بيئة العمل في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	5. I feel that experienced organizational members have not held me at a distance.	5. لم أشعر قط أنني بعيداً عن موظفي المؤسسة ذوي الخبرات.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	6. Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization.	6. يعتبر موظفو المؤسسة ذوو الخبرات أن تقديم النصائح والمشورة إلى الموظفين الجدد أو تدريبهم يدخل ضمن نطاق مسؤولياتهم الأساسية في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	7. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues.	7. إنني أفهم دوري في هذه المؤسسة بشكل جيد من خلال مراقبة زملائي في المناصب الأعلى.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	8. I have received guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job.	8. تلقيت توجيهاً من موظفي المؤسسة ذوي الخبرات حول كيفية أداء وظيفتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	9. I have access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization.	9. أستطيع الوصول إلى الأشخاص الذين كانوا يقومون بوظيفتي في السابق في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	10. I have not been left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization.	10. لم أترك لوحدي لاكتشاف ما هو دوري في هذه المؤسسة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	11. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	11. إنني في بحث مستمر عن طرق جديدة لتحسين حياتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	12. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	12. كان لدي دافع قوي للتغيير البناء أينما كنت.

Orientation Program					البرنامج التعريفي
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes نعم <input type="checkbox"/> No كلا					Have you attended any orientation program at the company? هل حضرت أي برنامج تعريفي في هذه المؤسسة؟
If yes, after how many days of joining the company was the orientation program conducted? Please specify the number of days (_____). إذا كانت إجابتك نعم، بعد كم يوم من انضمامك إلى الشركة تم القيام بالبرنامج التعريفي؟ الرجاء تحديد عدد الأيام (_____).					
If your answer is yes, please respond to the questions below. إذا كانت إجابتك نعم، الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة أدناه.					
لا أوافق أبدا	لا أوافق	حيادي	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	Item
(SD)	(D)	(N)	(A)	(SA)	البند
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	32. The orientation made me feel good about the company. 32. منحني البرنامج التعريفي شعوراً جيداً حيال الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	33. The orientation gave me useful information about the company. 33. زودني البرنامج التعريفي بمعلومات مفيدة حول الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	34. The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations of this company. 34. ساعدني البرنامج التعريفي في وضع توقعات واقعية حيال هذه الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	35. The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations concerning this job. 35. ساعدني البرنامج التعريفي في وضع توقعات واقعية حيال هذه الوظيفة.

Basic Information		معلومات أساسية
Please put (✓) in the box next to the best answer to each question below:		الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) في المربع الخاص بالجواب الأنسب في كل من الأسئلة التالية:
<input type="checkbox"/> Female أنثى	<input type="checkbox"/> Male ذكر	Gender الجنس
<input type="checkbox"/> Under 18 years - دون 18 عاماً	<input type="checkbox"/> 18 to 24 years - بين 18 و24 عاماً	What is your age? حدّد عمرك؟
<input type="checkbox"/> 25 to 34 years - بين 25 و34 عاماً	<input type="checkbox"/> Age 35 or older - 35 عاماً أو أكثر	
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than high school - ما دون الثانوي	<input type="checkbox"/> High school graduate - شهادة ثانوية	What is your educational background? ما هو تحصيلك العلمي؟
<input type="checkbox"/> Diploma /(includes equivalency) - شهادة دبلوم (وما يعادلها)	<input type="checkbox"/> Higher Diploma - شهادة دبلوم عالي	
<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's degree - شهادة بكالوريوس	<input type="checkbox"/> Master's degree - شهادة ماجستير	
<input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D./Doctorate - شهادة دكتوراه	<input type="checkbox"/> Other degree - شهادة أخرى	
<input type="checkbox"/> Private - خاصة	<input type="checkbox"/> Government - حكومية	What business sector do you work for? في أي نوع من المؤسسات تعمل؟
<input type="checkbox"/> Semi- Government - شبه حكومية		
<input type="checkbox"/> Entry Level - موظف جديد	<input type="checkbox"/> Senior- مسؤول	Which of the following most closely matches your job title? أي من التالي يتطابق إلى حد كبير مع المسمى الوظيفي الخاص بك؟
<input type="checkbox"/> Manager - مدير قسم	<input type="checkbox"/> Director - مدير إدارة	
<input type="checkbox"/> Less than 3 Months - أقل من 3 أشهر	<input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 Months - 4-6 أشهر	How many years /months of full-time work experience do you have, in any occupation? ما هو عدد أشهر أو سنوات الخبرة (بدوام كامل) في أي مهنة سابقة؟
<input type="checkbox"/> 7-11 Months - 7-11 شهراً	<input type="checkbox"/> 1 Year - سنة	
<input type="checkbox"/> +1 Year - أكثر من سنة		
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes - نعم	<input type="checkbox"/> No - كلا	Were you referred to apply to your new position by someone at your current organization? هل حصلت على وظيفتك في هذه المؤسسة بموجب توصية من أحد موظفيها الحاليين؟
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes - نعم	<input type="checkbox"/> No - كلا	Do you have anyone from your relative at your current organization? هل لديك أي أحد من أقربائك في مؤسستك الحالية؟
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes - نعم	<input type="checkbox"/> No - كلا	Do you have any of your friends at your current organization? هل لديك أي من أصدقائك في مؤسستك الحالية؟
If your answer "Yes" for any of the above 3 questions, please list their names as the following (e.g., Mohammed AlMehairi- friend/ family member/referral). Please be assured that all of your responses are completely confidential.		
إذا كانت إجابتك "نعم" لأي من الأسئلة الثلاثة أعلاه، يرجى ذكر أسمائهم على النحو التالي (على سبيل المثال، محمد المهيري - صديق / الأقارب / موصي). نؤكد لك أنّ جميع الإجابات الواردة في هذا الاستبيان ستبقى سرية.		
----- (6)	----- (1)	
----- (7)	----- (2)	
----- (8)	----- (3)	
----- (9)	----- (4)	
----- (10)	----- (5)	

Thank you for your support and completing the survey

نشكركم على دعمكم ومشاركتكم في هذا الاستبيان

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer					الرجاء تحديد مدى موافقتك على الجُمْل التالفة. ضع دائرة حول الإجابة الأنسب.
أبدا	نادرا	في بعض الأحيان	غلبا	في كثير من الأحيان	Item
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	البند
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	1. To what extent do people in your immediate work group help you find ways to do a better job? 1. أذكر إلى أي مدى يساعدك أفراد فريق عملك المباشر في إيجاد طرق للقيام بعمل أفضل؟
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	2. To what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group? 2. أذكر إلى أي مدى يمكنك أن تتناقش مشاكلك الشخصية مع أفراد فريق عملك المباشر؟
غير لطفاء	لطفاء قليلا	لطفاء بعض الشيء	لطفاء	لطفاء كثيرا	Item
Not at all friendly	Slightly friendly	Somewhat friendly	Friendly	Very friendly	البند
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	3. What would you say about the atmosphere in your immediate work group in terms of friendliness? 3. كيف تصف بيئة العمل في مجموعتك المباشرة من حيث لطافة أفرادها؟
لا أوافق أبدا	لا أوافق	حيادي	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	Item
(SD)	(D)	(N)	(A)	(SA)	البند
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	4. I feel comfortable around my co-workers. 4. أشعر بالارتياح عندما أتواجد مع زملائي في العمل.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	5. My co-workers seem to accept me as one of them. 5. أشعر أن زملائي في العمل يتقبلونني كواحد منهم.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	6. I know exactly what is expected of me at my work. 6. إنني أدرك تماما المهام التي يتوقعها الآخرون مني في عملي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	7. I know that I have divided my time properly at my work. 7. أعلم أنني قمت بتقسيم وقتي على الشكل الصحيح في عملي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	8. Explanation is clear of what has to be done at my work. 8. أحصل على شرح واضح للمهام المتوقعة علي في عملي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	9. I feel certain about how much authority I have at my work. 9. إنني على يقين تام بالصلاحيات التي أتمتع بها في عملي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	10. I know what my responsibilities are at my work. 10. إنني أعلم ما هي المسؤوليات المترتبة علي في عملي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	11. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job. 11. توجد أهداف وغايات واضحة ومدروسة لوظيفتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	12. I find real enjoyment in my job. 12. أشعر بمتعة كبيرة عند القيام بعملتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	13. I like my job better than the average worker does. 13. أحب عملي أكثر مما يحبه الموظف العادي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	14. I am seldom bored with my job. 14. نادرا ما أشعر بالملل في وظيفتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	15. I would not consider taking another job. 15. لا أفكر بتغيير وظيفتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	16. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job. 16. أشعر بالحماس تجاه عملي في معظم الأيام.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	17. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job. 17. أشعر بالرضا عن وظيفتي إلى حد معين.

لا أوافق أبداً	لا أوافق	حيادي	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	Item	البند
(SD)	(D)	(N)	(A)	(SA)		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	18. I will not be working for this organization one year from now.	18. لن أعمل في هذه الشركة بعد عام واحد من الآن
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	19. I frequently think of quitting my job.	19. غالباً ما أفكر بالاستقالة من وظيفتي.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	20. I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.	20. إنني عازم على البحث عن وظيفة جديدة خلال الأشهر الاثني عشر (12) المقبلة.
Orientation Program					البرنامج التعريفي	
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes نعم					<input type="checkbox"/> No كلا	
					Have you attended any orientation program at the company? هل حضرت أي برنامج تعريفي في هذه المؤسسة؟	
If yes, after how many days of joining the company was the orientation program conducted? Please specify the number of days (_____).						
إذا كانت إجابتك نعم، بعد كم يوم من انضمامك إلى الشركة تم القيام بالبرنامج التعريفي؟ الرجاء تحديد عدد الأيام (_____).						
If your answer is yes, please respond to the questions below. إذا كانت إجابتك نعم، الرجاء الإجابة على الأسئلة أدناه.						
لا أوافق أبداً	لا أوافق	حيادي	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	Item	البند
(SD)	(D)	(N)	(A)	(SA)		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	36. The orientation made me feel good about the company.	33. منحني البرنامج التعريفي شعوراً جيداً حيال الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	37. The orientation gave me useful information about the company.	34. زودني البرنامج التعريفي بمعلومات مفيدة حول الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	38. The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations of this company.	35. ساعدني البرنامج التعريفي في وضع توقعات واقعية حيال هذه الشركة.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	39. The orientation helped me develop more realistic expectations concerning this job.	36. ساعدني البرنامج التعريفي في وضع توقعات واقعية حيال هذه الوظيفة.

شبكتك المتواصل
<p>Communication Network</p> <p>We will provide you with the list of people you provided with us about a couple of months ago. Based on your previous response, please create a list of people that represents how you would answer the question today. Your responses may differ from last time. You can:</p> <p>KEEP the same people in your new list DROP people out of your previous list if you think it is necessary ADD new people in the new list if you think it is necessary</p> <p>Please write next to the name of the people (Keep/Drop/Add)</p> <p>سنقدم لك قائمة بالأشخاص الذين زودتنا بها منذ بضعة أشهر. بناء على ردك السابق، يرجى إنشاء قائمة بالأشخاص الذين يمثلون كيف ستجيبون على السؤال اليوم. قد تختلف إجاباتك عن آخر مرة. تستطيع:</p> <p>إبقاء نفس الأشخاص في قائمتك الجديدة إلغاء الأشخاص من القائمة السابقة إذا كنت تعتقد أن ذلك ضروري إضافة أشخاص جدد إلى القائمة الجديدة إذا كنت تعتقد أن ذلك ضروري</p> <p>يرجى الكتابة إلى جانب أسماء الأشخاص (إبقاء / إلغاء / إضافة)</p>

After finalizing the names , please answer the following based on the example given

بعد الانتهاء من الأسماء، يُرجى الإجابة على ما يلي استناداً إلى المثال المعطى.

Please select the right number to your answers

الرجاء اختيار الرقم الأنسب لإجابته.

Frequency of Communication عدد مرات التواصل	Hierarchical Status الدرجة في السلم الوظيفي	Same Department ضمن الإدارة نفسها	Name الاسم
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Yasmin ياسمين
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا
1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily يشكل يومي	1 = First year staff موظف سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff موظف ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا

1. Do these individuals you listed know each other?

هل يعرف الأشخاص الذين أوردت أسماءهم أعلاه بعضهم البعض؟

(1) None لا أحد (2) Some بعضهم (3) Most معظمهم (4) All جميعهم

2. Please indicate the number of employees in your work group (the number of people with whom you would interact in a typical week).

الرجاء تحديد عدد الموظفين ضمن مجموعة عملك (عدد الأفراد الذين تتعامل معهم في أسبوع عادي).

[.....]

Thank you for your support and completing the survey

نشكركم على دعمكم ومشارككم في هذا الاستبيان

Additional page for the names

صفحة إضافية للأسماء

After finalizing the names , please answer the following based on the example given

بعد الانتهاء من الأسماء، يُرجى الإجابة على ما يلي استناداً إلى المثال المعطى.

Please select the right number to your answers

الرجاء اختيار الرقم الأنسب لإجابته.

Frequency of Communication عدد مرات التواصل	Hierarchical Status الدرجة في السلم الوظيفي	Same Department ضمن الإدارة نفسها	Name الاسم
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1 = Less than once a month أقل من مرة واحدة في الشهر 2 = Once or twice a month مرة أو اثنتين في الشهر 3 = 3-5 times a month من 3 إلى 5 مرات في الشهر 4 = A few times a week بضع مرات في الأسبوع 5 = Daily بشكل يومي	1 = First year staff مرتبط سنة أولى 2 = Experienced staff مرتبط ذو خبرة 3 = Senior مسؤول 4 = Manager مدير	1- Yes نعم 2- No كلا	Add Name here أدخل الاسم هنا
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