FLORIDA INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

Miami, Florida

THE EFFECT OF SOCIALIZATION PRACTICES AND ONBOARDING ON NEWCOMER ADJUSTMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION

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To: Interim Dean William Harding
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This dissertation, written by Alex George Vilayil, and entitled The Effect of Socialization Practices and Onboarding on Newcomer Adjustment and Turnover Intention, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

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DEDICATION

To my family, and mentors.

Without your support my academic journey would not have been possible.

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I want to thank the Lord Almighty for this opportunity and for helping me achieve this success. I have received incredible support in my academic journey, and I am extremely grateful to all those who have supported me during this time.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

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New employee (newcomer) turnover is a severe problem in many organizations and inevitably leads to both operational and financial concerns. The hospitality industry, in particular, faces this challenge and struggles with acquiring and retaining talent. Studies have suggested that many newcomers leave their job due to inadequate socialization efforts on the employer's part. While several researchers have explored the relationship involving newcomer onboarding and turnover intention, the hospitality domain lacks research investigating the effect of socialization practices on turnover intention. This study attempts to fill this void by exploring the effectiveness of four different socialization practices on onboarding success and their impact on newcomer adjustment, including turnover intention. Furthermore, this study also investigates the indirect effects of occupational self-efficacy and role clarity, on turnover intention.

The study's objective was theory testing and hence used a covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) approach to test the research model. Participants were recruited using Amazon MTurk. Participants were screened to ensure they met the

study criteria. A total of 230 respondents were included in the data analysis. The data analysis was conducted using AMOS 26.0 and SPSS 26.0. A total of nine hypotheses was advanced; although some of the hypotheses were not supported, the results confirmed a strong positive relationship between onboarding success and occupational self-efficacy. Similarly, the relationship between onboarding success and role clarity was also confirmed.

The results of the study suggest that successful onboarding plays a crucial role in promoting a newcomer's occupational self-efficacy and role clarity leading to overall greater effectiveness. Based on the findings, I suggest implications for practitioners and offer recommendations for future research.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

JC	Job characteristics
NA	Newcomer adjustment
OS	Onboarding success
OSE	Occupational self-efficacy
OT	Orientation training
RC	Role clarity
SA	Socialization agents
SP	Socialization practices
SRT	Socialization resources theory
ST	Socialization tactics
TI	Turnover intention

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As Feldman (1976) noted, an employee's socialization process starts off well in advance of their organizational entry. Saks and Gruman (2012) referred to this key stage as anticipatory socialization. When new employees enter an organization, they often find themselves in an insecure and disorienting situation. For the most part, they are anxious about their new role and nervous about their performance on the job. They are unaware of the actions that are considered acceptable in the organization. In order to be accepted as productive constituents of the organization, they must learn to fit themselves as other members within the organization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Poor socialization activities are considered one of the main reasons for voluntary turnover among newcomers (Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). This is often due to the fact that newcomers do not have a clear idea of what is expected of them. Additionally, they may not have access to internal stakeholders to help them sustain the initial periods in the organization. When newcomers leave an organization because they feel isolated within their team, lack confidence in their ability to deliver service, and wander with no sense of purpose, it implies insufficient onboarding (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

In the hospitality industry, frontline service employees are the key differentiators of the business. An employee's knowledge and skill are directly related to the customer's positive experience. Guests engage and respond to employees who are knowledgeable and have the essential skills to deliver the service efficiently. Due to the continued growth of the hospitality industry, retaining competent employees is one of the major issues facing the industry, and this challenge is expected to increase with a shortage of

talent. There is a dearth of talent in the hospitality space due to record low unemployment, and therefore organizations must continue to invest in their human capital. In 2018 the U.S. unemployment rate was 3.7%, the lowest the nation has seen in the last 50 years (NPR.org, 2018). As the economy continues to add jobs and the competition for talent gets stronger, employees have more job options. Contrary to the general perception, the hospitality industry invests a considerable amount of dollars in recruitment, hiring, and training activities. However, new employee turnover continues to be at an all-time high. In order to ensure a return on investment (ROI), the retention of engaged employees is critical for employers.

Socialization practices

Socialization practices refer to activities that organizations use to acclimate and socialize newcomers (Louis et al., 1983). It is a learning process in which newcomers acquire and develop information, knowledge, and behaviors so as to adapt to their new role in the organization (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Wanberg, 2012). According to Katz (1980), in order to adjust to their new role, newcomers not only need to familiarize themselves with the technical aspects of their job but also study the acceptable social norms and behaviors of the organization. Organizational socialization relates to both newcomers joining an organization and experienced employees transferring to a new job within the organization (Wanberg, 2012). This research explores the organizational socialization practices of newcomers rather than experienced employees currently employed with the organization.

When planned effectively, socialization strategies can positively improve performance and create an engaged and inspired work environment. Research suggests

that socialization activities have a variety of positive outcomes, including job satisfaction (Bauer et al., 2007), organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and turnover (Bauer et al., 2007). The initial socialization practices that an employee experiences have a profound impact on the employee's level of commitment and loyalty to the organization. Recognizing the importance of socialization activities, organizations spend a considerable amount of money on new employee onboarding activities. However, for most newcomers, adjusting to their new organization continues to be a challenge. In a meta-analysis conducted by Bauer et al. (2007), the authors observed that social acceptance was an essential aspect of newcomer success. By tapping into the social network, new employees have greater access to information and resources (Harvard Business Review, 2017). In a study conducted among software professionals, new employees proactively acquired information when they were able to network with their colleagues in the organization (Nifadkar & Bauer, 2016). Socialization is important because it allows new employees to learn about the organization and its role within the organization (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Gruman, 2011). As expressed by Ashforth et al. (2007), it enables adjusting to the new workspace and impacts the long-term success and the career of the employees. It is one of the key means to communicate and maintain the organizational culture and can have a long-lasting influence on employee attitudes and behaviors (Bauer et al., 1998; Saks & Gruman, 2011). The high turnover observed in the hospitality industry continues to be one of the biggest challenges faced by organizations. Consequently, socialization efforts are important to ensure organizational goals are met and achieved.

Onboarding

Most organizations realize that onboarding is an essential task and is fundamental to a newcomer's future success (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). However, in many organizations, this important chapter in the employee lifecycle is either completely ignored or merely a transient phase leading to unproductive results. Onboarding refers to both formal and informal programs that organizations implement in order to make an impact and welcome new employees (Wanberg, 2012). It is a strategic initiative and requires a well thought out plan with a no-compromise attitude on the timeline. A 2016 study on onboarding by the Aberdeen Group indicates that an onboarding timeline that is less than a month is negatively related to retention rates (Aberdeen, 2016). Even though organizations acknowledge the time needed to commit to newcomer onboarding, most adopt only an abbreviated version. In the same study, the researchers found that only 37% of the organizations had onboarding programs that extended beyond one month, as against 15% of the organizations that limited their onboarding activities to just one day (Aberdeen, 2016). When employee onboarding is not conducted appropriately, it can lead to turnover intentions and subsequently turnover leading to increased operating costs, lower productivity, and a decrease in customer satisfaction (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). In a study conducted on hotels in the United States, Simons and Hinkin (2001) noted a negative connection between the decline in profits and employee turnover (Choi & Dickson, 2009). As the hospitality industry faces uncertainty amidst a major crisis, this is a strong detriment to organizational success.

Newcomer adjustment

Adjusting into an organization as a newcomer can be challenging. A recent survey by BambooHR, a leading provider of human resources software, indicated a 31% and 68% turnover rate in new hires within their first six and three months of joining the organization, respectively (BambooHR, 2018). Most newcomers are typically anxious and face a great amount of uncertainty during their initial period (Wanberg, 2012). The first few weeks help the newcomer adjust their behaviors and tactics within the organization (Wanberg, 2012). Although acquiring a new job is exciting, new employees are anxious, stressed, and apprehensive when they join a new organization. The recruiting, interview, and hiring process can be overwhelming. In addition, the thought of leaving a current job for a new job can be stressful. In many cases, they are leaving a job they have worked at for a few years and walking into unknown territory. They are anxious to show to the new organization the skills for which they were hired. Newcomers may face a reality shock (Hughes, 1958) or surprise (Louis, 1980) when they experience a disconnect between their expectations and the actual environment at the new organization (Jones, 1986). When they have a negative or challenging experience with their onboarding experience, they are more likely to reflect back on their decision to be a part of the organization (BambooHR, 2018). They may consider the possibility of leaving their job even before their introductory or probationary period.

Turnover

If an organization is facing constant turnover challenges, it affects organizational performance due to loss of knowledge and quality of services offered. Recruiting new employees and training them to the organizational standards is both costly and time-

consuming. Furthermore, the hiring process can be stressful even for hiring managers. Since the greatest challenge with turnover is the loss of tacit knowledge that employees take with them upon leaving the organization, retaining employees is one of the foremost challenges that organizations face today. Organizations are losing employees to competitors, particularly those who are experienced, and knowledgeable which results in a negative environment for existing employees (Tanwar & Prasad, 2016). Numerous studies have examined the quantitative costs of employee turnover within the hospitality industry (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017; Choi & Dickson, 2009; Dusek et al., 2014; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Simons & Hinkin, 2001; Wasmuth & Davis, 1983; Woods & Macauly, 1989). According to a study conducted by the National Restaurant Association (2017), out of a total of 50 hospitality organizations that participated in the study, the median cost of turnover within hourly employees was $2,494 per person. The significantly high cost of employee turnover has led organizations to take notice of their retention rates and voluntary turnover that could be easily avoided.

Contributions of the study

Employee turnover is an important measure of performance for leadership, and therefore a relevant outcome to study. Given the high costs (e.g., recruiting, training, lost productivity) linked to employee turnover, a better understanding of the factors associated with it can be of value for operational managers. Although there is considerable research exploring the relationship between socialization practices and turnover intention, there continue to be gaps in the existing literature. Most research in this area has focused on the effect of onboarding activities on job attitudes, specifically job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While some past studies have explored

the effect of organizational socialization practices on newcomer adjustment, intent to leave, and turnover, there are relatively few studies that have focused on the hospitality industry. In particular, research exploring the impact of socialization practices and onboarding success on newcomer adjustment and turnover intention in the hospitality industry has not yet been studied extensively. Specifically, this study's theoretical model identifies organizational socialization practices and explicitly addresses the impact of specific socialization practices on onboarding success, and subsequently, its effect on newcomer adjustment and turnover intention using the Socialization resources theory (SRT). This research also explores the two mediating paths of occupational self-efficacy and role clarity on the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention. This study views successful socialization as an essential prerequisite for newcomer success. The goal is to identify which socialization practices lead to successful onboarding, and how onboarding success is associated with newcomer adjustment, and the effect on the turnover when they are unable to adjust to the organization. Moreover, this research explores the impact among line-level employees in the hospitality industry, its biggest workforce. This is of interest since turnover in the hospitality industry, especially among line-level employees, is a chronic problem, and a better understanding of the above organizational and individual factors will provide important managerial implications. The effectiveness of socialization practices can be evaluated from two perspectives. For newcomers, the goal is to reduce uncertainty and increase role clarity, whereas the primary goal for organizations is to create job satisfaction and improve employee retention. This research position is known as the interactionist perspective (Reichers, 1987) since the researcher is considering the newcomer adjustment both from

the perspective of the newcomer and the organizational factors (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). The study also has the potential for meaningful business implications in comparable organizations that are willing to explore their current onboarding experience strategies.

Research question

Organizations can experience immediate benefits by ensuring their onboarding practices assist newcomers in adjusting to their new environment. This is true considering new employees can immediately become productive and start contributing to the organization. Considering this background, the following research question is addressed:

What is the effect of socialization practices and onboarding on newcomer adjustment and turnover intention?

Organization of the study

Chapter two is a review of the literature and provides an overview of the key constructs investigated in the research, including operational definitions. This is followed by chapter three, which provides an overview of the research model and utilizes the review of the literature to introduce the hypotheses proposed in this research. The next chapter discusses the methodology used in the study, including the participants and the context, data collection techniques, and measurement of constructs. Chapter five provides an overview of the data collection and analysis, including hypotheses testing. The final chapter discusses the limitations of the research, followed by managerial implications and a conclusion with recommendations for further research. The appendices section includes the measurement tools used in the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This section explores various theoretical concepts in organizational behavior literature to develop the framework of this research. The literature review is focused on investigating existing literature to explore the role of socialization practices, onboarding success, and its relationship to newcomer adjustment and turnover intention. Table 1 provides a summary of prior studies related to socialization practices.

In this chapter, the constructs are defined and operationalized. In order to warrant construct validity, this study followed the recommendations of Suddaby (2010), including the use of construct definition such that specific and definitive construct distinctions can be articulated. Referring to Johns (2006)'s seminal research, the impact of context on organizational behavior is explicitly considered and stated in this study.

Theoretical framework

A review of the literature indicates that researchers have relied on theories from a variety of disciplines to understand the context and practices in organizational behavior. As the subject of organizational socialization became more prominent in research, specific theories pertaining to organization socialization was developed.

Given that organizational socialization can be identified with newcomer knowledge and learning, some of the earlier theories have been based on social cognitive theory (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012; Bandura, 1986). According to the social cognitive theory (SCT), in addition to one's own learning activities, external influences

such as observing other people and the resulting actions influence learning (Bandura, 1986). Additionally, uncertainty reduction theory (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Chao, 2012) and desire for control theory (Ashford & Black, 1996) were also used to gain insights into socialization practices. According to Lester (1987), the theoretical foundation of socialization research is uncertainty reduction theory. As Van Maanen (1977) explains, when newcomers join an organization, they go through a series of process or periods of change which takes them from a known to an unknown condition. In other words, they go from a stable and secure status to an unstable and insecure position. When newcomers arrive at an organization, they are challenged with a number of tasks and face social and cultural demands (Ashford & Black, 1996). During this phase, newcomers feel vulnerable due to a diminished level of control. Katz (1980) associates what newcomers undergo as new members of the organization to that of entering unknown territory in which they must make sense of their new surroundings. Academic scholars have recognized through various studies that newcomers face uncertainties related to their task, roles, and overall organizational culture upon joining a new organization (Chao et al., 1994; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). The uncertainty motivates newcomers to gain control of their anxiety (Berger, 1979; Greenberger & Strasser, 1986) and develop their own identity (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Another theory used in socialization literature is the social identity theory (SIT). According to the tenets of this theory, newcomers identify themselves with other individuals based on various social categories, e.g., organizational membership, age, gender, etc., which helps express themselves in the social environment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Organizational socialization can be associated with the

need to build an identity in the new organization (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Ashforth et al., 2007). This identity facilitates organizational loyalty, commitment, and belief in the organization's vision, mission, and values (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Additionally, the social exchange theory (SET) has also been used to understand the socialization of newcomers. SET is described as an engaging relationship between individuals in which they exchange resources guided by a set of rules (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Korte, 2009). Another theory used to explain newcomer adjustment in organizations is the person-environment (PE) fit theory. PE fit theory is used to understand how newcomers adjust to their work settings (Caplan, 1987). According to the PE fit theory, misfit faced on the job is linked to several negative outcomes (Edwards, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). According to Cable and Parsons (2001), when newcomers go through an institutionalized socialization process, the prospects of a PE fit is greater.

In order to understand the relationship in the research model, this study adopts the socialization resources theory (SRT). SRT is a theoretical framework developed by exploring literature from psychology, management, and communication (Cranmer et al., 2016; Gupta et al., 2018). SRT's theoretical background is grounded on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to the JD-R model, the organization's work environment and resources (R) determines employee job demands (JD), i.e., the work environment (Demerouti et al., 2001). The basic premise of the JD-R model is that job demands are the key triggers of a negative work environment (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2004), whilst job resources are the key predictors of employee motivation and engagement (Hakanen et al., 2006). As a result, job demands are associated with job burnout and disengagement (Saks & Gruman, 2012), whereas job

resources are linked to work engagement and organizational commitment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Saks & Gruman, 2012). SRT centers around the idea that newcomers need resources in order to effectively adapt to their new job, colleagues, and organization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Newcomers can tap into these resources as they settle down into their new role. SRT posits that:

> The transition to a new job or role is inherently challenging and stressful, and that presenting newcomers with the resources they need to cope with this challenge is the most effective and efficient way to foster their adjustment and successful socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2012, p. 45-46).

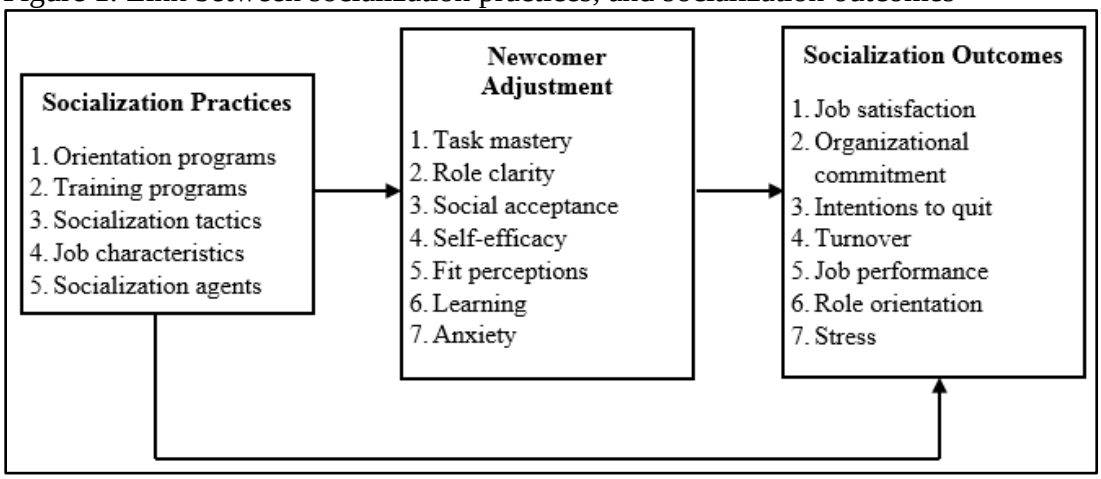
According to SRT, socialization resources can be exploited to establish newcomer confidence as they enter the organization. Although joining an organization in a new position has its own set of challenges and at times can be demanding, providing meaningful resources can assist employees in acclimation and socialization efforts (Gupta et al., 2018). The socialization process creates a structure for the employees that emphasis the organizational values and expectations (Mazzei et al., 2016). The theory is grounded in the notion that in addition to work behaviors the relationships employees build with their peers, supervisors, and managers influence their socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Therefore, SRT advocates that new employees use available resources to decrease their stress and anxiety. SRT comprises of five socialization dimensions that affect newcomer adjustment and organizational socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). The factors that influence the socialization practices are orientation programs, training programs, job characteristics, socialization tactics (social support), and socialization

agents (leadership) (Gupta et al., 2018; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Each socialization factor relates to a specific action and comprises distinctive behaviors (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Figure 1 shows the interlinked relationship of socialization practices, along with the proximal and distal socialization outcomes. Role clarity and task mastery are examples of proximal outcomes, which are also referred to as newcomer adjustment. By contrast, distal outcomes indicate socialization outcomes such as turnover intention and job satisfaction. The research model indicates that socialization practices are directly related to distal outcomes and also indirectly related (mediated effect) through proximal outcomes (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Socialization literature implies that socialization practices result in proximal effects, which in turn leads to distal socialization outcomes (Bauer & Green, 1998; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Consequently, as illustrated in figure 2, this research evaluates the effect of socialization practices on both proximal (newcomer adjustment) and distal outcomes.

In short, SRT "forces organizations to think about the socialization and onboarding process in terms of the resources that newcomers need, when they need them, and how best to provide them" (Saks & Gruman, 2012, p. 52). Using the theoretical aspects of SRT, organizations need to identify the resources that are required by newcomers and establish processes to provide them as newcomers come onboard (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Thus, SRT is "both a diagnostic and actionable tool" that can be deployed to assess socialization undertakings in organizations (Saks & Gruman, 2012, p. 46).

Figure 1. Link between socialization practices, and socialization outcomes



Adapted from Saks and Gruman (2012). Reproduced with permission.

Construct development

Socialization practices

Since new employees face the greatest adjustment issues (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Jones, 1983; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), organizations use various strategies to facilitate socialization (Louis et al., 1983; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). When newcomers join an organization, they are excited and look forward to showing their skills and talent. However, joining an organization as a newcomer has its own set of challenges. Newcomers must assimilate themselves into the cultural norms of the new organization. Furthermore, since they are looked upon as productive counterparts, they must actively seek information and learn their job (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Saks & Gruman, 2012; Vianen & De Pater, 2012). Consequently, adapting to their new environment and coworkers can be overwhelming and stressful (Vianen & De Pater, 2012). According to Vianen and De Pater (2012), the main objectives of socialization practices are to reduce the newcomers' uncertainties in relation to the specifics of their job, restrain social isolation, and advance organizational beliefs (Vianen & De Pater,

2012). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) considers socialization as a precursor to learning the basics of the job. In other words, it is the practice through which employees learn to adapt to their new job, position, and organizational culture (Fisher, 1986; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). It is an opportunity for new hires to learn how the organization thinks and behaves - an opportunity to align with the interests of the organization (Klein & Weaver, 2000). Saks and Gruman (2012) define organizational socialization practices as activities introduced by the organization with the specific goal of accelerating newcomers' learning and adjustment into the organization. The primary goal of these socialization activities is to ensure the newcomer is a productive member of the organizational community. Essentially these activities and events are facilitated by the organization. According to Louis (1980), through organizational socialization, newcomers become proficient with the cultural norms and working guidelines of the organization. By its very nature, socialization is a learning process through which newcomers acquire different skills that help them adjust to an organization (Feldman, 1981; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2012; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Simply put, socialization provides newcomers with a set of tools both for personal and organizational success.

According to Fisher (1986), socialization is the process of learning in which employees acquire a diverse set of information and behaviors to transform as effective members of the organization. It is the process that supports new employees to make the change from outsiders to members of the organization (Bauer et al., 2007; Tabvuma et al., 2015). Socialization helps reduce the uncertainty and anxiety new employees may have by developing their job competencies (Tabvuma et al., 2015). It helps provide role clarity and sets up the employee for success by providing realistic goals and expectations

of the job (Adkins, 1995; Bauer et al., 2007; Dean & Wanous, 1984; Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1985; Saks et al., 2007; Tabvuma et al., 2015). Furthermore, it helps new employees build and develop their people skills (interpersonal skills). Organizational socialization has advanced from just learning about the specifics of a job to a more well-defined formal process in which newcomers understand the organization based on the framework of values, culture, and expected behavior (Louis, 1980).

Socialization practices should not be restricted to the initial weeks of employment; rather, it should be an ongoing process, possibly until the end of the employee's career within the organization (Acevedo & Yancey, 2011; Wanous & Reichers, 2000). Without a doubt, the presence of socialization practices enriches the new employee's experience and leads to positive outcomes (Fan & Wanous, 2008; Holton, 2001). Based on past research, the key measures of organizational socialization efforts are learning, inclusion, and assimilation that takes place during the socialization practice (Chao et al., 1994; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Organizational socialization has also been associated with numerous important organizational outcomes, including affective organizational commitment (Fisher, 1986; Klein & Weaver, 2000) and turnover intention (Huselid, 1995). Grant and Bush (1996) found that the socialization process has a positive effect on motivation, job involvement, commitment, satisfaction, and performance, thus resulting in lower turnover. Several studies have identified the importance of an employee's initial work experience with an organization and its significance in determining the employee's work-related attitudes and behaviors (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Buchanan, 1974; Hall, 1976; Wanous, 1980). Socialization is the first step in an employee's journey in the organization during which the employee fits in.

It helps them assimilate into the organizational culture whilst developing their own individuality (Barge & Schlueter, 2004). Previous studies have shown a significant relationship between social support on the job and employee's job attitudes, namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (Bauer et al., 2007; Fisher, 1985; Louis et al., 1983). Organizational socialization practices validate uncertainty reduction theory since employees gain valuable practical information about various aspects of their work and have an opportunity to put to use the information received (Tabvuma et al., 2015).

Orientation training

Orientation programs support new employees in the socialization process. They are perhaps one of the most powerful tools in the newcomer development toolkit. In most organizations, socialization typically starts with an orientation program that introduces newcomers to their job, peers, and the organization (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Orientation programs tend to focus on organizational topics that ease concerns and are of the greatest importance for new employees (Saks & Gruman, 2012). According to Klein and Weaver (2000), orientation programs are employee training programs structured to facilitate information that new employees need, including job expectations, coworkers, and the organization in general. Orientation programs typically include both formal training programs and informal socialization activities by peers, including mentors, departmental trainers, and supervisors (Klein & Weaver, 2000). In addition to familiarizing newcomers to the organization and their work environment, the main objective of orientation is to share the "psychological contract" (Saks & Gruman, 2012, p. 30). Orientation is often thought to be similar to socialization, but they are two

separate processes. A review of extant literature suggests that the orientation and socialization process are not the same and actually differ in many aspects (Saks & Gruman, 2012; Wanous & Reichers, 2000). A major difference between the two is the length of time of the process. In comparison to the socialization process, the orientation period is generally short, lasting from a day to a few days (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Next, only a few members of the organization are associated with the orientation process compared to socialization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Additionally, orientation covers far fewer areas compared to socialization, which covers all work-related facets of one's life and involves broad-based changes in newcomers (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Finally, due to the short duration, orientation is typically focused on a few core themes, compared to socialization, which encompasses a series of activities in the newcomer's organizational journey (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Despite their differences, orientation programs are considered essential and aid the socialization process.

Training is an essential building block in the socialization of newcomers (Feldman, 1989) and has a decisive role in how newcomers approach and adjust to their new job environment (Cooper-Thomas & Burke, 2012; Feldman, 1989). Training programs are formal, planned socialization actions and are typically one of the initial interactions between a new employee and the organization (Saks, 1996; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Orientation training can be classified into "organizational-level, and job-centered orientation programs" (Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 49). The goal of orientation training is to build social relationships, communicate the organizational goals, specifically the vision, mission, values, and the organization's political environment (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Klein & Weaver, 2000). Orientation training is an effective tool to

promote organizational socialization in new employees. These training programs play an essential role in the socialization process by introducing employees to the right tools and providing adequate information (Anderson et al., 1996; Klein & Weaver, 2000). In most organizations, formal orientation training programs are among the most dominant training offerings and are the key driving forces of the socialization process (Bassi & Van Buren, 1998; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). A study by Klein and Weaver (2000) on 116 newcomers in an educational institution revealed that newcomers who attended orientation training were considerably socialized a few months later compared to those who did not attend similar training (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). In another study, Payne et al. (2008) suggest that the amount of time newcomers spend in training was linked to their behavior (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). The outcomes suggest that the success can be potentially attributed to the social facet of orientation training (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). This theory was further supported by the findings of Wesson and Gogus (2005), who found that newcomers who chose to attend in-person classroom orientation had higher success at socialization in comparison to those who chose to attend a virtual session (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Although orientation training consists of both "organizational-level, and job-centered orientation programs" (Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 49), the focus of this study was limited to the initial organizational-level orientation training.

Job characteristics

Although socialization practices such as orientation and training play an important role in a newcomer's socialization, the nature of the job is a key factor for socialization. Job characteristics give meaning to the job. They add clarity to what is expected of the

employee, increase knowledge, and make the job fun, easy and challenging. According to Morgeson and Humphrey (2006), job characteristics are motivational characteristics, ‘‘concerned with how the work itself is accomplished and the range and nature of tasks associated with a particular job’’ (p. 1323; Truxillo et al., 2012). They are distinctive factors that play a critical role in an employee’s job fulfillment. They give meaning to how employees can identify and relate to their task’s significance and ownership (Loher et al., 1985; Zhao et al., 2016). Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) are credited with identifying and developing the job characteristics. They based their findings on the job characteristics model (JCM), which shows five factors, namely, skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback that affects the results of the job (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Katz, 1980). The fundamental tenet of JCM is that the five dimensions of job characteristics collectively affect job satisfaction (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010).

Skill variety refers to the broad range of competencies a job demands to complete the task. Experienced employees can reflect back on their knowledge and skills and apply them on the job, thus leading to job satisfaction (Truxillo et al., 2012). As stated by Lin and Hsieh (2002), task identity is considered as the degree to which an employee completes the entire job from start to finish so as to recognize the results of his or her efforts. It is the degree to which an employee can relate to the end product of a job in its entirety. Prior studies suggest that when an employee’s ability and the level of task identity in a job do not match, it can lead to stress (French et al., 1982) and reduced organizational commitment (Fukami & Larson, 1984). Task significance is the amount of impact a job has on other people and society (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010; Truxillo et al., 2012). Research has shown that task significance is associated with improved job

performance (Grant, 2008) and job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007). Job autonomy is described as the extent to which one can make decisions regarding their job (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010). Autonomy in the general sense includes work decisions such as planning schedules, managing the job, etc. Studies have found that autonomy is related to job satisfaction and performance (Humphrey et al., 2007). Job feedback is a positive and constructive reaction that an employee receives from supervisors, coworkers, customers, etc., regarding his or her performance on the job. In short, it is direct feedback about the employee's performance when they conduct their work activities (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010). Past research has found some evidence that associates job feedback to a positive increase in job satisfaction (Humphrey et al., 2007).

The seminal research by Katz (1980) provides additional information on the role of job characteristics in socialization. Katz (1980) observed that the significance of job characteristics and their relation to employee attitudes and behaviors would depend on the employee's tenure in the job and organization (Saks & Gruman, 2012). According to Katz (1980), employees undergo three transitional stages of job longevity during their time with the organization. They include socialization, innovation, and adaptation. During the socialization stage, employees are new to the organization and are primarily focused on building relationships; in due course, employees move to the innovation stage where they are focused on influence and achievement; finally, in the adaptation stage, employees tend to lose focus of the task aspects of their job and focus on events outside of their work (Fulk & Cummings, 2013). According to Katz's (1980) job longevity model, the time one spends on the job or with the organization affects the significance of job characteristics and employee's response to them. This is mainly because each phase

of the job is fundamentally different with its unique set of challenges (Katz, 1980). Katz (1980) noted that during the socialization period, employees are primarily interested in building a sense of belonging and security while establishing their own identity through the social facets of their job. Hence task significance, task identity, and feedback are most important for new employees compared to the amount of challenging work (Saks & Gruman, 2012). In general, job characteristics has been found to affect employee motivation positively, leading to increased job satisfaction (Champoux, 1978; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991; Morris & Venkatesh, 2010; Singh, 1998; Singh et al., 1994; Tyagi & Wotruba, 1993).

Socialization tactics (social support)

Socialization tactics make it possible to reduce newcomer anxiety, define work roles, and is a key tool to ensure employees fit into the organization. According to Jones (1986), new employees need information related to the organization, their daily tasks, and the work environment in order to reduce anxiety, uncertainty, and insecurity, and socialization tactics can be a great way to influence them (Saks & Gruman, 2018). Socialization tactics are strategies adopted by the organization to navigate the socialization experiences of new employees (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). According to Bauer et al. (2007), socialization tactics are organizational strategies to distribute information so as to facilitate adjustment of new employees in their new role and to the organization as a whole. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) refers to socialization tactics as "people processing techniques" (p. 230). Additionally, they define socialization tactics as strategies developed by organizational insiders for newcomers when they come on board or transition into a new role. They significantly influence the new employees' belief in

the organization that they have chosen to work for. Socialization tactics facilitate the transfer of information to newcomers effortlessly. It helps lower the insecurity newcomers face in the early stages of socialization (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). They help provide role clarity, which in turn leads to positive experiences and enables adjustment (Allen, 2006; Bauer et al., 2007; Jones, 1986). Prior research supports the notion that social support can help newcomers withstand demanding work conditions (Truxillo et al., 2012). As such, a good social support system can significantly help newcomers as they get to know the organization. In short, social support is an indispensable socialization resource for newcomer adjustment. As such, insiders in the organization must be mindful of their role in providing newcomers and the overall organization with their support (Saks & Gruman, 2011). Saks and Gruman (2011) advocate that organizations must plan socialization events so that new employees and insiders can convene and build partnership immediately upon the new employee's arrival.

Forty years ago, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) made a significant contribution to the study of socialization tactics by classifying the tactics into six dimensions. They referred to the tactics as the ends of two extremities and used it to explain how it impacts the socialization of newcomers (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Saks & Gruman, 2012; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). They comprise the following six dimensions: collective versus individual, in which newcomers are either grouped, or isolated as they undergo the socialization process in the organization; formal versus informal, in which newcomers either undergo a formal learning process with their coworkers, or they do not and learn on-the-job on their own; sequential versus random, in which newcomers either undergo several pre-determined stages as they get trained for

their role, or undergo several steps that are ambiguous, unplanned and in a state of constant change; fixed versus variable, in which newcomers are either aware of the socialization timeline that they will undergo prior to starting the new job, or do not have any knowledge as to when they will start in their new role; serial versus disjunctive socialization, in this process newcomers socialize with experienced coworkers, who function as role models, or do not get the chance to socialize with experienced colleagues; and investiture versus divestiture, in which organizations either use the newcomer's personal characteristics, or outright reject the personal characteristics, and identity of the newcomer (Cooper-Thomas & Burke, 2012; Saks & Gruman, 2012; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Using Van Maanen and Schein's socialization classification Jones (1986) further categorized the tactics into three groups: context tactics, which includes the collective and formal dimensions and is associated with how organizations provide newcomers with information; content tactics, which includes the sequential and fixed dimensions and relate to the content of the information that newcomers receive; and social tactics, which consists of serial and investiture dimensions which utilize newcomer socialization during learning processes. Based on empirical evidence Jones (1986) established that social tactics are the most important of all tactics since they were strongly associated with the outcomes, subsequently content tactics, and context tactics (Saks & Gruman, 2012). In addition, Jones (1986) further classified the dimensions into two strategies: institutionalized (collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics) in which socialization takes the form of a formal and organized approach; and individualized (individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture

tactics) when socialization takes place by chance, and with no formal structure in place. An organization may choose to adopt either one of the above strategies. However, past studies have suggested that the outcome is dependent on whether organizations choose to socialize formally or informally (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). A formal approach allows the organization to communicate in a uniform and consistent style and helps accelerate the adjustment (Rollag et al., 2005). By way of contrast, since individualized socialization tactics are informal strategies, they may lead to increased uncertainty, role conflict, and ambiguity, anxiety, and intent to leave the organization (Cooper-Thomas & Burke, 2012; Jones, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Thus, it is apparent from the above studies that organizations should participate in formalized socialized approaches.

Socialization agents (leadership)

One of the key roles played in the socialization process of new employees is from organizational insiders (Saks & Gruman, 2011). Socialization agents are constituents of an organization who help expedite the newcomer adjustment process by making information and resources readily available (Klein & Heuser, 2008; Saks & Gruman, 2012). They are typically supervisors, colleagues, and customers who facilitate the newcomer's learning by helping understand their job roles and individual identity in the organizational unit (Reichers, 1987). Newcomers depend on their coworkers and supervisors for knowledge and skill transfer that is needed to perform the essential functions of their job and contribute to the organization (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2012; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). While orientation and training programs are extremely formal socialization initiatives, socialization agents are the opposite side of the coin - they

represent an important function that is entirely informal (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Although some individuals may formally play the role of socialization agents (e.g., mentors), the function of socialization agents is typically informal (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Most of the learning typically happens informally on the job through interactions with supervisors and peers (Feldman, 1989). Feldman (1989) points out that informal socialization plays a key role in filling the void that is left behind by formal newcomer training and orientation.

The role of socialization agents in the development of a newcomer cannot be underestimated. They are responsible for several major functions that help promote newcomer adjustment and socialization. In a study on the role of organizational insiders in the socialization process of newcomers, Slaughter and Zickar (2006) found that attitudes and behaviors exhibited by socialization agents have a significant effect on the newcomer's development. As a matter of fact, studies indicate that the role of socialization agents in the newcomer's adjustment process is greater than some formal socialization practices (Saks & Gruman, 2012). In other scholarly studies, the authors found that the helpfulness of peer networks was more important than formal approaches, namely orientation and training programs (Lundberg & Young, 1997; Nelson & Quick, 1991). Socialization agents help assist new employees in assimilating into the organization. First of all, they provide newcomers with information on the organization (Bauer et al., 1998; Saks & Gruman, 2011), which helps with learning (Major et al., 1995). The second purpose of socialization agents is to step forward and provide newcomers with social support (Bauer et al., 1998; Fisher, 1985; Katz, 1980). In many studies (Allen et al., 1999; Feldman & Brett, 1983; Fisher, 1985; Lundberg & Young,

1997), newcomers have cited supervisory and coworker support as one of the most important events that shaped their initial time in the organization. They enable the new employee to transition to the organization's values and goals by coordinating and taking ownership of various programs such as welcoming the new hire, providing information, feedback, and resources to be successful on the job (Klein & Heuser, 2008).

Since the success of socialization is determined by uncertainty reduction and learning (Bauer et al., 2007), proximal outcomes (e.g., self-efficacy, role clarity) are viewed as good predictors of successful newcomer adjustment. This is because these outcomes suggest the realization of essential knowledge and skills which help to bind newcomers to the organization and its objectives (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). According to research by Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003), the role of socialization agents in the adjustment transition process may differ, which in turn affects the proximal, and distal outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions). Prior research has found that supervisors have traditionally provided more information on the newcomer's role in the organization whilst coworkers provide information on social group behaviors (Ostroff & Kozlowksi, 1992). Additionally, evidence also shows that newcomers prefer to collaborate with coworkers for social information and rely on their supervisors for more formal activities such as seeking work performance feedback (Morrison, 1993). Thus, it is apparent that the role socialization agents play in the organization is associated with both proximal and distal socialization outcomes (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Onboarding success

Onboarding is the perfect opportunity to solicit the newcomers to model the characteristics and behavior that the organization expects from them (Mazzei et al., 2016). Studies have shown that it is an ideal intervention to support newcomer organizational socialization efforts (Jones, 1986; Myer & Bartels, 2017). During onboarding, the organization has an opportunity to share its purpose and the culture it would expect from the new employees (Mazzei et al., 2016). Based on research conducted by the Brandon Hall Group, organizations that have notable onboarding practices increased newcomer retention by 82% and productivity by over 70% (Glassdoor, 2015; Sapling, 2019). A recent survey by Digitate suggests that newcomers who experienced poor onboarding were twice as much open towards a new job opening (Digitate, 2018; Sapling, 2019). One in five newcomers also reported that they would not recommend the organization to their friends or family members (Digitate, 2018).

In general, onboarding includes "all formal and informal" activities committed by the organization to support the entry of newcomers (Klein & Polin, 2012, p. 268). According to Stimpson (2009) and Dixon et al. (2012), onboarding is the process of integrating newcomers both from within and outside the organization, with the intent of providing support for their learning and productivity. The term onboarding has been in use for only the last two decades and therefore needs clarity in explanation. Many times, onboarding and socialization are commonly used as substitutes. According to Klein and Polin (2012), onboarding and socialization are two independent terms and should not be used interchangeably. In comparison to socialization, onboarding has a narrow definition (Wanberg, 2012). It refers to practices retained by an organization to assist newcomers in

adjusting to their job (Klein & Polin, 2012) so that they can be successful in their new job (Bauer, 2010; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). On the other hand, socialization is a broader term and comprises of practices that include onboarding, acclimatizing to the environment, and obtaining information (Wanberg, 2012). As suggested by Sharma and Stol (2020), onboarding success is a short-term event since it is related to a newcomer's experience from the first few months on the job.

Besides promoting the new work culture, onboarding helps play a critical role in the newcomer's long-term success and career opportunities (Ashforth et al., 2007). It is an essential activity that has a profound effect on employees, their networks, and the organization (Saks & Gruman, 2018). Since organizations spend a substantial amount of time in advertising, recruiting, and developing talent, new employee onboarding plays an essential role in employee retention and ensures their readiness for the organization (Graybill et al., 2013). Although most key stakeholders realize the importance of successful onboarding, not all organizations engage in a formal process (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). A 2019 survey found that 68% of the organizations treat onboarding as a static event and not as an ongoing process (SilkRoad Technology, 2020).

Onboarding experience is the employee's perception of their interaction with the organization and their overall impression of the onboarding. It is a sentiment or response that can lead to a positive, negative, or neutral effect on the employee. The direct result of experiencing a notable onboarding is productive employees with lower turnover intentions, which benefits three key stakeholders - the employee, the group of individuals who work with the employee, and the organization (Culture Amp, n.d.). When employees have a positive onboarding experience, they feel accepted and welcomed. When

newcomers acknowledge they are comfortable in their new position, it can be deemed that the onboarding was successful (Sharma & Stol, 2020). Bauer (2010) defined four short-term outcomes that reflect a successful onboarding experience. According to her research, the four building blocks of a successful onboarding are 1) self-efficacy, or self-confidence in job performance, 2) role clarity - the new employee's understanding of the role and expectations (Feldman, 1981), 3) social integration (Morrison, 2002), and 4) understanding and identifying with the organizational culture (Bauer, 2010). Based on their previous research, Bauer et al. (2007) suggest that role ambiguity in a role leads to stress, and consequently, dissatisfaction. In the transition to joining an organization, newcomers' experience stress indicators as they transition into their new roles (Katz, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In addition, following the recent work of Sharma and Stol (2020), I utilized the absence of stress as another short-term outcome of successful onboarding. For onboarding to be successful, organizations should maximize their efforts in all five areas. Studies have shown that there is a direct correlation between the support newcomers receive to a successful onboarding (Graybill et al., 2013; Gupta et al., 2018; Klein et al., 2015; Myer & Bartels, 2017; Sharma & Stol, 2020). The success (or failure) of the onboarding process greatly determines organizational success in terms of performance indicators such as productivity and customer satisfaction.

Newcomer adjustment

When newcomers join an organization, they have some basic expectations and needs. In their study, Lundberg and Young (1997) identified these fundamental expectations as the initial arrival experience, training opportunities, receiving tasks appropriate to their experience, and access to supervisory support. Saks and Gruman

(2012) identified five elements that newcomer's need during their socialization: first, newcomers need support in learning how to do their job, and thus reducing their uncertainty; next, they need to decrease their anxiety so that they can accomplish their assigned tasks successfully; thirdly they want to build the confidence to execute their job; fourth they need feedback about their job performance; and lastly, social support to cope with the demands, and challenges of their new job. Saks and Ashforth (1997a) identified information seeking and social support as two antecedents of newcomer adjustment. Studies show that both receiving information and getting social support in terms of helpful coworkers and supervisors are known to reduce stress (Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Naturally, when their expectations are not met, newcomers tend to find a way out of the organization.

According to Wanberg and Choi (2012), newcomer adjustment is described as the degree to which newcomers can identify themselves with the demands of their new job. It is essentially a new employee's transition to his work climate. Many times, socialization and newcomer adjustment are used interchangeably. However, they are two distinct constructs. According to Hurst et al. (2012), socialization is the process during which newcomers receive information and social support to adjust to the organization, while newcomer adjustment is the individual's personal journey of establishing him or her as an insider within the organization. Newcomers undergo two shifting phases when they join an organization. They go through both task and social shifts (Bauer et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986). During the adjustment process, newcomers become experts in the task-related areas of their new jobs and also develop social connections with their peers and society at their organization (Bauer et al., 2007; Nifadkar & Bauer, 2016; Saks et al., 2007).

According to Feldman (1981), there are three facets to newcomer adjustment. First, the resolution of role demands, i.e., role clarity, indicates an understanding of how to do the tasks, prioritizing the tasks, and managing time to accomplish the tasks (Feldman, 1981). Second, task mastery means attaining proficiency over the tasks, which in turn leads to confidence, i.e., self-efficacy (Feldman, 1981). Third, adjustment or social acceptance within the group leads to a feeling of acceptance by one's peers (Feldman, 1981). Following Feldman's (1981) research, subsequent research in this area has focused on role clarity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance as predictors of newcomer adjustment.

Both attitudinal and behavioral effects have been used to associate newcomer adjustment to their job and the socialization efforts (Feldman, 1981; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2012). The success of newcomer adjustment can be assessed by indicators such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to stay (Bauer et al., 2007), and voluntary turnover (Feldman, 1981; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2012). According to Jokisaari and Nurmi (2012), voluntary turnover is considered as one of the key predictors of a failed socialization. When organizations provide newcomers with the resources they need to adjust, it creates a positive impact on both proximal and distal socialization outcomes (Saks & Gruman, 2012). According to Saks and Gruman (2012), the effectiveness of the resources on the proximal and distal outcomes may vary depending on the time of the socialization process.

Proximal outcomes

Proximal outcomes, also known as "adjustment or accommodation indicators," measures newcomers' acceptance levels in adjusting to their new environment (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012, p. 100). A good measure of proximal outcomes is the organization's level

of acceptance as perceived by the newcomer. Common indicators include the extent to which they have role clarity and the level of performance self-efficacy to accomplish tasks (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). These outcomes are measured early in the newcomer adjustment timeline, typically beginning from the date of hire and then every three months until the completion of one year (Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a key measure of newcomer adjustment. As defined by Bandura (1977), self-efficacy is an individual's perceived ability to successfully perform a task. An individual's self-efficacy controls their actions and choices in their life (Gupta et al., 2018). It influences their expectation about their ability to perform successfully in new situations (Jones, 1986). In other words, an individual's experience, and knowledge gained from dealing with different situations may influence their choices and ability to respond to new situations (Jones, 1986). Depending on their source, Bandura (1977a, 1977b, 1982, 1997) classified self-efficacy into four types namely 1) mastery experience, 2) vicarious experience, 3) verbal or social persuasion, and 4) emotional and physiological states. When an individual's self-efficacy increases as a direct result of successfully implementing a behavior it can be identified to mastery experience (Bandura 1977a, 1982). Vicarious experience results when an individual's self-efficacy increases by watching another person model a certain behavior (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). Verbal or social persuasion emanates when an individual is told that they will accomplish a particular behavior (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). In this case newcomers' task self-efficacy increases and they are ready to implement the behavior (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). In an

organizational context, supervisors and peers who motivate and support newcomers can increase their self-efficacy. The fourth source of self-efficacy - emotional and physiological state, signifies the overall health and well-being of an individual, and its role in the development of self-efficacy in an individual (Bandura, 1977a, 1982). Employees with a significant degree of self-efficacy will be proactive and passionate about their career choice with the organization and will take charge of their opportunities. Employees with high self-efficacy can easily adapt and often tend to take a positive approach of their job and thus have lower turnover intentions. Self-efficacy impacts one's perceived ability to successful execute in a new setting (Jones, 1986). Past experiences play a key role in one's self-efficacy, and thus to a large extent determines future success. Given their experience, newcomers with high self-efficacy levels are better at adapting to new roles and demands of the job (Jones, 1986).

Studies show that self-efficacy is linked to attitudinal workplace effects like job performance and organizational commitment, and behavioral workplace effects, notably job satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Green, 1998; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Gruman et al., 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). In a study on newcomers at a financial accounting firm McNatt and Judge (2008) found that engaging newcomers through ongoing written communication from recruiting managers and firm partners enhanced their self-efficacy, elevated job attitudes, and reduced turnover. In a longitudinal study that investigated the adjustment of new accountants in an organization, Saks (1995a) found that the training newcomers received was strongly related to post-training self-efficacy, ability to cope, and intent to quit newcomers who initially had low self-efficacy. Self-efficacy has also been linked to an individual's

performance in various instances involving dealing with fear, managing stress, motivation at work, and job performance (Locke, 1986).

Occupational self-efficacy

Bandura's (1986, 1997) theory did not postulate self-efficacy as a trait, rather it was described as a construct that is context specific i.e., an individual's perception of self-efficacy varies from one situation to another (König et al., 2010). As per Bandura (1977b), it is essential to identify the task under consideration when assessing self-efficacy. According to the specificity-matching principle (Swann et al., 2007), "specific predictors should be used to predict specific behaviors, and general predictors should be used to predict general behaviors" (p. 92). As a result, in addition to general self-efficacy, it is important to consider domain specific and task specific self-efficacy. However, in organizational behavior research these constructs have limitations since comparing employees and tasks within different organizations requires a broader context (Rigotti et al., 2008). Occupational self-efficacy addresses this gap since it can be applied as a broad construct in an organizational context. According to Rigotti et al. (2008), occupational self-efficacy is defined as an individual's awareness of their competency, and perceived ability to complete the tasks directly associated to their job. From an applied perspective this is advantageous since it helps draw a comparison among employees from different organizational contexts (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). On the contrary task- specific assessment of self-efficacy is associated with examining each task and is therefore constrained to a particular competency or job (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). Furthermore, each task's specifics are bound to be different depending on factors such as the organization, type of industry, hierarchy, and distinctive interpretation of the task at

hand by each employee (Schyns & von Collani, 2002). As such in this study, I focus on the context specific form of self-efficacy, i.e., occupational self-efficacy so that a wide range of employees working in different sectors of the hospitality industry can be compared.

Role clarity

In addition to self-efficacy, another newcomer adjustment indicator is role clarity. Role clarity is "the extent to which required information is communicated and understood" (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975, p. 72). It represents a person's understanding of responsibilities and tasks at hand. It is the opposite of role ambiguity. Role clarity should be looked beyond the concept of an individual's clarity of their job; instead, it also involves the coworker's role clarity of their job and responsibilities (Effectory, 2019). It makes employees doubt the quality of their work and potentially reduces their impact on the organization. New employees who have role clarity, i.e., know what to expect, have a significantly higher chance of performing better in their job (Bauer et al., 2007).

Past studies have documented that socialization with coworkers is positively linked to role clarity (Cooper-Thomas & Burke, 2012; Gruman et al., 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011; Saks et al., 2011; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Role clarity is one of the key antecedents of productivity and its absence can lead employees to a state of anxiety and disorientation (Effectory, 2019). According to a recent survey conducted by Effectory a provider of employee feedback solutions, the efficiency, and effectiveness of employees who had role clarity increased by 53% and 27% respectively (Effectory, 2019). The same research also indicated that job performance, and intent to stay with the organization increased by 25%, and 84% respectively (Effectory, 2019). A

2018 survey by Gallup (2018) ranked absence of role clarity as the third reason for job burnout. Studies have found role clarity to be a key indicator of distal socialization outcomes (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Role clarity has been linked to outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Adkins, 1995; Bauer & Green, 1998; Menguc et al., 2007), positive newcomer adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Erdogan, 2012; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), and job performance (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012).

Distal outcomes

Distal measures represent the ultimate effect of organizational socialization (Bauer & Erdogan, 2012). Scholars have documented evidence of a positive relation between distal outcomes of socialization (e.g., turnover, turnover intention) to organizational commitment (Bauer & Green, 1998; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Saks et al., 2007) and job satisfaction (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks et al., 2007).

Turnover intention

Turnover intention is when an employee willingly decides to leave the job and organization (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017; Tett & Meyer, 1993). It is perceived as a deliberate, and mindful action by the employee to depart from the organization. It is typically associated to a specific interval, the time within which the employee plans to leave the organization and is considered as the final step in a series of withdrawal cognitions ranging from planning to quit and search for an alternative employment (Mobley et al., 1978; Tett & Meyer, 1993; Xu & Payne, 2014). Studies show that turnover intention is the strongest antecedent of turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993) and directly affects turnover (Bedeian et al., 1991; Chang, 1999). Earlier research on turnover indicates that actual turnover increases with the intention to quit (Chang, 1999; Mobley,

1977; Mobley et al., 1978). The intent to quit is an employee's emotional answer to a feeling of disconnect to the organization (Dusek et al., 2014; Kraut, 1975). According to Maertz and Campion (1998), voluntary turnover is an event when an employee decides to leave the organization in good credibility and had a choice to continue employment with the organization (Lee et al., 2006). Voluntary turnover suggests that there was no pressure from the organization to leave due to a disorderly conduct. Previous studies have shown a strong correlation between turnover intention, and actual turnover (Abrams et al., 1998; Gupta et al., 2018; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2007; Michaels & Spector, 1982). These studies give support to the use of turnover intention in exploring newcomer's turnover behavior.

Studies have confirmed that effective human resources practices such as hiring, orientation, training, performance management reviews etc. can affect employee turnover (Selden & Sowa, 2015). Arthur (1994) was one of the foremost researchers who observed the effects of human resource practices on organizations and suggested two pragmatic solutions - 1) control and 2) commitment (Lee et al., 2006). The study results showed that controls systems have limited effectiveness compared to commitment systems that can considerably lower turnover (Lee et al., 2006). The study by Gupta et al. (2018) further establishes the success of commitment systems. In their study the authors concluded that the use of social resources during the onboarding stages led to a significantly better employee experiences thus lowering their intent to leave the organization.

Role of provider-recipient (two actors)

While organizational socialization tactics tend to concentrate on the newcomer's specific role and overall new hire process, their supervisors (providers) also play a very

important role in the process (Chong et al., 2020). The newcomer's supervisor has a distinct responsibility in the overall socialization efforts since they are better equipped to provide the required knowledge and feedback thus shaping their job assignments (Ashforth et al., 2007; Chong et al., 2020; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009). This was further documented by Graen's (1976) research that established the critical role of supervisors in newcomer's organizational socialization. As noted in previous scholarly reviews, supervisors are one of the most significant groups that have a profound impact on the newcomer's learning journey (Graen, 1976; Schein, 1978). Additionally, Schein's (1978) work indicated that supervisory support was directly related to newcomer's role clarity and job satisfaction. It must be comprehended that the above results cannot be achieved if the relationship was single i.e., a one-way process. For this process to work, newcomers (recipients) must be willing and motivated and play their part. In other words, a dyadic relationship must exist between the provider, and recipient.

Linking corporate strategy and turnover

An additional literature review was undertaken to understand how low turnover can add value and be adopted as part of its corporate strategy. Understanding how and what creates value will help organizational leaders focus on the right strategy. Employee relations and brand value are among some of the factors that drive value creation. The relationship between these assets and value creation is corporate strategy (Kaplan & Norton, 2004). Pragmatically speaking, low turnover (i.e., high employee retention) leads to lower hiring and training costs of newcomers, thereby contributing to its bottom line (Kashyap & Verma, 2018). As such, employer branding is a corporate strategy that many organizations have adopted. Measuring employer branding from the perspective of

current employees of an organization (Schlager et al., 2011; Biswas & Suar, 2013) links this corporate strategy and turnover intentions. By developing and designing appropriate newcomer intervention strategies such as socialization tactics, organizations can build a strong and positive brand, which will help retain current employees and attract new talent.

Table 1. Selection of prior empirical work on socialization practices

Study	Method	Findings
Jones (1986)	A two-time longitudinal research study examined the effects of both individual and organizational factors on newcomer adjustment. The first survey was completed after obtaining a contingent job offer; a second survey was administered after five months on the job	The type of socialization that newcomers experience ultimately influence how they adjust within the organization. Newcomers who experienced the institutionalized, i.e., formal form of socialization tend to conform to all the guidelines established by the organization. In contrast, those who experienced individualized socialization i.e., unstructured form manages to innovate and learn their roles and processes independently. Individuals with low self-efficacy are more likely to conform the established conventions of the organization.
Allen and Meyer (1990)	A longitudinal study of undergraduate and graduate students. Data was collected after the students spent six months into the new job. A follow up survey was administered after 12 months on the job.	Socialization tactics was positively linked to organizational commitment. Specifically, institutionalized tactics (formal, and organized approach) was related to higher levels of commitment. Among the six dimensions of socialization, the investiture-divestiture dimension i.e., using the newcomer's personal characteristics as socialization tactics had the greatest impact.
Ashforth and Saks (1996)	A longitudinal study that utilized three time points (2 to 3 months prior to obtaining the job, 6 months on the job, and 12 months on the job) to explore newcomer's efforts in gaining personal control upon joining the organization.	The results suggest that newcomers' individualized socialization activities viz. developing relationships with direct supervisors, discussing job changes, positive framing, and general socialization were significantly related to job performance and job satisfaction. The newcomers/ activities during the first six months on the job predicted their desire for control.
Klein and Weaver (2000)	A field study using quasi-experimental methodology that studied the effect of organizational level new hire orientation. Six dimensions of socialization were measured before and after attending the orientation training.	New hires who went through organizational-level orientation were considerably socialized on the three dimensions of 1) goals/values, 2) history, and 3) people, compared to newcomers who did not attend such trainings. Newcomers who attended the trainings also had a higher level of affective organizational commitment.

Gupta et al. (2018)	Qualitative study examining the relationship between onboarding experience of newcomers and turnover intention. The study also examined the mediating effect of onboarding experience on self-efficacy and turnover intention, and locus of control and turnover intention. Study participants were mid-level managers who had spent three to 12 months on the job.	Newcomers who had a notable onboarding experience had lower turnover intentions. The onboarding process should be designed by being mindful of the newcomer's locus of control. Onboarding experience mediates the positive relationship between motivation-based self-efficacy and turnover intention. Low self-efficacy leads to decreased turnover intention whist higher levels of self-efficacy led to turnover intentions possibly due to confidence in one's ability.
Sharma and Stol (2020)	Examines the association of onboarding success with turnover intention within the software domain. This qualitative study investigates how job satisfaction and workplace relationship quality (collectively addressed as organizational fit) mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention. Respondents were recruited through professional networks and social media. A total of 102 responses were collected.	Among the three antecedents of onboarding success, providing support i.e., the extent to which organizations assists newcomers during the onboarding process, had the most significant influence on onboarding success. The constant change experienced in the software industry could be attributed to this finding. On the contrary orientation, and training had limited influence on onboarding success. Onboarding success was also associated with organizational fit of newcomers. Although there was no direct evidence of lower turnover intention due to increased workplace relationship quality, social fit resulting from successful onboarding can help reduce workplace conflicts.

CHAPTER III

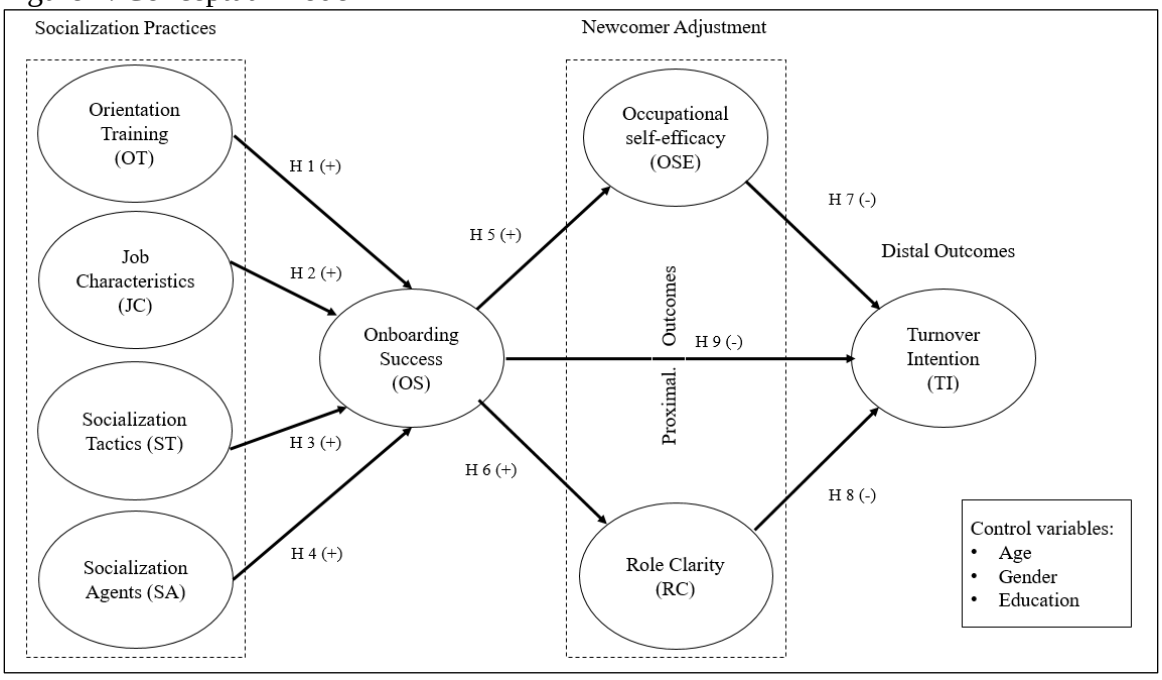
RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Overview

Chapter three describes the research model and includes additional literature review that justifies the hypotheses development. This study utilizes a variance model that examines the relationships between the independent and dependent variables. The hypotheses are developed using Toulmin's method of argument development. Figure 2 provides an overview of the hypotheses.

For this inquiry, I followed a deductive reasoning approach. Based on the literature review (a priori knowledge, and hypotheses based on theory), the following research model is proposed:

Figure 2. Conceptual model



Hypotheses development

Orientation training and onboarding success

The training new employees receive provides them with the confidence to do their job and a greater understanding of their responsibilities. The results of a cross-sectional study by Klein and Weaver (2000), indicated a significant correlation between orientation training, and socialization. The researchers found that orientation training was positively correlated to socialization efforts, and employees who attended orientation training were notably socialized compared to those who did not attend the training (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Tabvuma et al., 2015). In a study focusing on training as a socialization practice, Tannenbaum et al. (1991) noticed that employee training and satisfaction were positively linked to organizational commitment, training initiatives, and academic and physical self-efficacy. Saks (1996) found that the more training new hires received, the more helpful it was for them on the job. Choi and Dickson (2009) conclude that impactful training programs improve employee job satisfaction and decrease turnover.

In their prior research study Saks and Gruman (2012), indicated that orientation programs influence newcomer's socialization, and have been proven to lower anxiety and stress. In their study, Klein and Weaver (2000) examined the role of orientation program on newcomer socialization and organizational commitment. The results of their study suggested that newcomers who attended orientation programs had higher affective organizational commitment (AOC). Furthermore, these newcomers had an in-depth knowledge of the organization's history and goals (Klein & Weaver, 2000; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Evidence from a study by Gomersall and Myers (1966), indicates that the

information provided in orientation training helped reduce anxiety in newcomers, which was associated with increased productivity and job attendance.

Organizational orientation training is one of the first formal contacts that a newcomer has with the organization. The orientation training's content-rich design helps newcomers feel comfortable within the new organization and ease into their new roles. Orientation training also tends to be highly interactive, providing newcomers opportunities to ask questions or address any concerns. This systematic approach also ensures organizations can communicate responsibilities, goals, and expectations with the newcomer enabling a smoother transition into their new position. When organizational leaders lead orientation activities as planned, the result is newcomers who feel welcomed and appreciated. It also empowers the newcomer to become comfortable and productive from day one. Because of the transparency involved in this process, well-planned and executed orientation training can also reduce new employee turnover due to misunderstood or unmet expectations. These notions suggest that when newcomers attend orientation training, they have increased role clarity and reduced stress, indicating a successful onboarding. Thus, naturally, one would expect and assume orientation training to be linked to onboarding success. From this discussion, I derive the following theoretical hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Orientation training will have a positive association with onboarding success.

Job characteristics and onboarding success

Previous studies have found that job characteristics play an essential role in employee satisfaction and performance (Katz, 1980; Saks & Gruman, 2011). While all

the dimensions of job characteristics are essential, studies have found task significance and feedback to play a crucial role in newcomer socialization (Katz, 1980; Saks & Gruman, 2011). Positive feedback can inspire new employees, which in turn helps strengthen employee self-efficacy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Saks & Gruman, 2011). Additionally, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy can help develop the newcomer's self-efficacy by providing them with a sense of mastery related to role clarity (Saks & Gruman, 2011). Research has shown that autonomy and job feedback positively affect job outcomes, specifically job attitude and behavior (Bakker et al., 2004; Colarelli et al., 1987; Saks & Gruman, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Studies also found a positive correlation between job design characteristics and job attitudes (Feldman & Weitz, 1990). The study conducted by Zhao et al. (2016) indicated that autonomy, task identity, and task significance reduced job stress, while feedback increased job satisfaction, and task significance greatly enriched life satisfaction. Previous studies have demonstrated a significant correlation between job characteristics, and stress, burnout, which ultimately leads to employee turnover (Lingard, 2003). Katz's (1978, 1980) studies concluded that newcomers' receptivity to each of the dimensions of job characteristics is dependent on their socialization experiences.

In his study, Katz observed that all the five dimensions of job characteristics were positively associated with job satisfaction for newcomers who were in their position for up to four months (Katz, 1978; Saks & Gruman, 2012). In a study of students on a summer internship in retail organizations, Feldman and Weitz (1990) found that job autonomy was significantly correlated (positive) to motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, while task identity and skill variety were both significantly

related to job satisfaction. The study's results imply that the work design was instrumental in the success of the internship (Saks & Gruman, 2012). In another study on newcomers in accounting firms, Saks (1995b) found that job feedback was positively related to organizational commitment and job performance. The same study indicated that coworkers, supervisors, and managers' feedback was negatively related to turnover intention. Thus, it can be affirmed that newcomers whose expectations are not met will have a lower organizational commitment and increased intent to leave (Dean et al., 1988).

Job characteristics lead to lower stress and anxiety while increasing organizational commitment, an antecedent of onboarding success. Skill variety in a job demands different skills and talents, thereby giving newcomers the feeling that they are making a difference. Similarly, job autonomy engages an individual; in the case of highly motivated employees, this helps with retention since they want to stick with an organization that trusts them to perform higher-level duties. All of the above are essential job enrichment interventions that make existing jobs more motivating. When newcomers are motivated, they perceive onboarding as a positive intervention and want to make it successful. Therefore, I propose the following research hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Job characteristics will have a positive association with onboarding success.

Socialization tactics (social support) and onboarding success

The socialization process that new employees go through when they join the organization plays a crucial role. It is directly linked to employee job satisfaction, job commitment, role conflict, role clarity, and reduced turnover while controlling labor costs (Bauer et al., 2007; Jones, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Tang et al., 2014). Previous

studies by Van Schein and Schein (1979) and Louis (1980) have shown that new employees want clarity in terms of what can be expected in the organization, and the socialization methods that an organization uses can greatly influence how the new employee react to these efforts (Jones, 1986). Results of the study by Jones (1986) suggest that different socialization tactics lead to different outcomes. Organizational socialization tactics that are well planned and executed assist employees in their new roles by providing job clarity and is a key driver to ensure they fit into the organization schema (Ashforth et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2014).

In their study, Feldman and Weitz (1990) found that investiture tactics are far superior to divestiture tactics; the same results were found when comparing formally structured orientation training to informal programs. Studies show that this may be attributed to the uncertainty and anxiety associated with informal, unstructured orientation training (Baker & Feldman, 1990; Feldman & Weitz, 1990). Feldman and Weitz's (1990) work show that students in a summer internship who had realistic job previews and positive expectations of the job began their internship with an open mind, and as a result, had a positive experience. When viewed as a bilateral continuum, on the one hand, institutionalized socialization tactics were negatively related to role ambiguity, role, and conflict, while on the other side was positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Jones, 1986; Saks & Gruman, 2012). This was further confirmed in independent meta-analytic studies by Bauer et al. (2007) and Saks et al. (2007).

From a pragmatic perspective, for socialization to be successful, the right strategies must be incorporated into the onboarding program. 'Formal' socialization

tactics have an advantage over 'informal' programs due to their systematic approach. Due to their strict guidelines, institutionalized socialization makes a more significant impact on newcomers versus other tactics. For example, a welcome message sent to a newcomer before their first day on the job helps them prepare for the onboarding day. Regardless of the type of socialization tactics engaged, they make a meaningful impact on how newcomers perceive onboarding. Successful socialization of newcomers leads to better communication, generates strong workgroup networks, and helps break-in into the company culture. Newcomers at all levels within the organization are more likely to be productive and stay with the organization if their socialization experiences help them bond with their corporate culture. Socialization also helps accelerate the understanding of how different sub-groups work within the organization. This stimulates a healthy work culture and cultivates trust within the group. On the basis of these studies, I present the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Socialization tactics (social support) will be positively associated with onboarding success.

Socialization agents and onboarding success

The primary role of socialization agents is to facilitate a better relationship between employees and the organization. Besides, they are often the principal source of information (Major et al., 1995). Furthermore, they provide social support essential for employees venturing into a new organization (Bauer et al., 1998). Leadership behavior was directly related to new employee's role clarity, performance efficacy, and feelings of acceptance (Bauer & Green, 1998). In another study, it was found that leadership influenced new employee turnover (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

Past studies have acknowledged that social support from supervisors and coworkers helps employees adapt quickly to their new environment (Fisher, 1985; Rollag et al., 2005). Furthermore, Saks et al. (2007) found that social support is significantly related to new employee adjustment. Social exchange with coworkers and supervisors is considered the most helpful among many socialization practices (Louis et al., 1983; Saks & Gruman, 2012). Korte (2010) investigated new engineers' socialization efforts and found that the quality of coworker and supervisory relationships was one of the key contributing factors for successful newcomer learning and socialization. In a study by Louis et al. (1983) on undergraduate business school alumni, the authors found that newcomers' relationships with their supervisors and coworkers were the primary reasons that helped them adjust to the organization. In a study by Fisher (1985), coworkers and immediate supervisor's support decreased any unmet expectations stress. In the same study, it was also found that coworkers and supervisor support led to increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment and a decrease in turnover intentions. Studies have also found that a mentor can help facilitate newcomer adjustment by meeting newcomers' expectations and increased role clarity and organizational commitment (Blau, 1988). The extent to which newcomers experienced mentorship from their more experienced coworkers was associated with success within their work relationships and the job (Allen et al., 1999; Toh et al., 2012). In yet another study, Chatman (1991) found that a mentor can positively affect the newcomer's person-organization fit. Having a mentor is linked to the newcomer's desire to learn more about the organization (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). This is because mentors provide their proteges with information and

support, leading to reduced stress and positive job attitudes (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993; Saks & Gruman, 2012).

The above evidence and arguments support the idea that co-workers and supervisors impact newcomer attitudes of various work constructs and, consequently, onboarding success. Newcomers have an incredible appetite for settling into the organization, and hence they tend to develop these attitudes relatively quickly. This is true especially since co-workers and supervisors are the powerhouse of knowledge and become interpreters of expertise necessary for learning about the new environment. Socialization also results in mutuality or reciprocity, i.e., newcomers feel comfortable sharing information with their co-workers and supervisors. This shifts socialization from the traditional one-way transactional model to create newcomers who are affectively committed to the organization. Thus, socialization agents and their work influence the onboarding. On the basis of this research evidence, I hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Socialization agents will be positively associated with onboarding success.

Onboarding success and newcomer adjustment

The relationship between onboarding success and self-efficacy has been the topic of many studies (Britto et al., 2018; Gupta et al., 2018). It can be plausibly predicted that newcomers who have experienced poor onboarding have concerns regarding their abilities to perform on the job. Prior research shows that new employees develop attitudes and beliefs towards their organization early in their career, typically during the first few days of their hire (Bauer & Green, 1994; Wanous, 1973). According to Bauer et al. (2007), the degree of adjustment is usually associated with the socialization outcomes.

Therefore, it is essential for organizations to ensure new hires successfully adjust to their new position as early as possible. A meta-analysis study led by Nifadkar and Bauer (2016) identified a strong correlation between task competency, developing social connections, and the ability to adjust to the new job. Additionally, prior research suggests that newcomer adjustment is associated with job performance, attitudes, and retention (Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 2007). Past studies have also identified role clarity and self-efficacy as important predictors of newcomer adjustment (Feldman, 1981). Studies have shown that job characteristics are associated with newcomer' self-efficacy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). As discussed earlier, job characteristics are correlated to onboarding success, which has a positive influence on self-efficacy. Recent research on newcomer' supervisory support showed that the extent of socialization support from supervisors was significantly associated with newcomer's role clarity and job satisfaction (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2017). Employees who experienced a lack of role clarity have lower satisfaction levels and have active turnover intentions (Bauer et al., 2007). The absence of role clarity leads to dissatisfaction, which has been linked to job stress and burnout (Bauer et al., 2007; Kahn et al., 1964).

A proactive and engaging onboarding program creates newcomers who are well-rounded and ready to handle any situation. First, onboarding helps newcomers become assertive mainly due to the newly acquired information. This fills in the void that existed when they came onboard the organization. Primarily, this is because onboarding creates an emotional connection between the newcomer and the organization. Second, onboarding programs that are well-planned and developed go beyond the job description and help newcomers with clearly defined tasks and their job scope. Furthermore,

successful programs also include learning the supervisor's expectations, which defines success on the job. During onboarding, job expectations and follow-up evaluations are outlined. Effective onboarding programs also address the different departments' roles and how the newcomer fits in, i.e., they get to know what other employees work on, their role, and how all tasks are eventually related. When executed effectively, onboarding programs help newcomers thrive, and the organization gets the best out of them. Hence, I posit the following two hypotheses, linking onboarding success to newcomer occupational self-efficacy and role clarity.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): The degree of onboarding success will be positively associated with occupational self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): The degree of onboarding success will be positively associated with role clarity.

Newcomer adjustment and turnover intention

Studies show that when employees complete socialization training, there is a considerable increase in their self-efficacy levels (Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Self-efficacy is a good indicator of job performance and intention to stay with the organization (Bauer et al., 2007). This is consistent with previous studies that established a correlation between training and self-efficacy (Gist et al., 1989; Louis et al., 1983; McNatt & Judge, 2008). In his research on training and newcomer adjustment, Saks (1995a) found that training was positively related to an individual's self-efficacy, ability to cope, job performance, and turnover intention (Gupta et al., 2018). The study by McNatt and Judge (2008) indicated that socialization activities such as written communications from management increased employee self-efficacy, increasing job attitudes, thus reducing

newcomer turnover. As discussed earlier, successfully onboarding resulting from effective organizational socialization practices is the key contributor to newcomers' self-efficacy and role clarity. Supportive peers and supervisors provide positive feedback and encouragement, consequently helping newcomers meet work demands and lower stress (Saks & Gruman, 2011). Newcomers who have a good social acceptance in the organization tend to perform well, thus lowering their turnover intentions (Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Green, 1994). In their study, Gruman et al. (2006) identified a positive link between newcomers' self-efficacy and the level of socialization that they had experienced. Employees with high self-efficacy are less likely to leave the organization since they are confident in their job capabilities (Bauer et al., 2007) and are more likely to invest in their career development (Schyns, 2004). They are less likely to breakdown under stress. As a result, these newcomers experience job satisfaction and are committed to the organization. Scholarly research has implied that the occupational self-efficacy scale is linked to some aspects of job satisfaction (Rigotti et al., 2008). In their research, Schyns and von Collani (2002) noted that occupational self-efficacy predicted job satisfaction better than general self-efficacy. This implies that when newcomers believe in their job skills, it increases job satisfaction, perhaps due to higher motivation levels. In their research, Park and Jung (2015) found evidence of a positive relationship between occupational self-efficacy and commitment to career and an indirect effect on turnover intention. Likewise, Meyer and Allen (1991) observed that one's confidence in their ability to perform at a higher level in their chosen occupation is indicative of both their commitment to their job and organization, leading to lower turnover intentions both towards their chosen occupation and organization. Occupational self-efficacy was also

positively linked to job motivation, job satisfaction, and was influential in predicting future performance on the job (Paggi & Jopp, 2015).

In a study of registered nurses, Lyons (1971) found a negative correlation between role clarity and voluntary turnover. Similarly, in a study on the sales workforce Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975) found that role clarity is positively related to innovation and job satisfaction, and the tendency to leave. The same study also showed that role clarity was more important for line-level employees (salesmen) than supervisors (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975). The absence of role clarity among newcomers can lead to role conflicts. Extant literature has associated role conflict with negative newcomer adjustment and socialization outcomes (Nelson et al., 1988; Saks & Ashforth, 2000; Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Because successful onboarding leads to increased knowledge and skills, it is most likely the driver of positive performance outcomes in the workplace. As a result, there is an increase in self-efficacy and role clarity, which is associated with an increase in job performance and satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001; Truxillo et al., 2012), and intent to stay with the current organization (Bauer et al., 2007; Wanberg, 2012). In their meta-analysis, Bauer et al. (2007) found a mediating relationship between role clarity, self-efficacy, socialization tactics, and socialization outcomes.

High occupational self-efficacy is predictive of high self-esteem and optimism. From the social cognitive career theory, it can be deduced that career decisions and occupational self-efficacy are linked. Subsequently, lack of occupational self-efficacy can lead to mediocre on-the-job performance and even abandonment of one's chosen career and desired goals. Newcomers who have developed high occupational self-efficacy

because of onboarding work hard to build their knowledge and skills further and focus on their career goals. Hence, they tend to stay with the organization since it aids in their development. Role clarity is a significant antecedent of turnover. Clear guidelines help minimize communication breakdowns and ensure proper facilitation takes place among all the constituents. Lack of role clarity often results in newcomers negotiating their responsibilities leading to low productivity, workplace incivility, and hostility. The lack of collaboration and independence was yet another side effect of role ambiguity. Role clarity also assists in the newcomer's career pathing and builds the motivation for the next role. Consequently, job burnout can be drastically reduced as a result of well-structured positions (job roles). These evidence supports that high occupational self-efficacy and role clarity will lead to lower turnover intentions.

Based on the preceding discussion, the following two hypotheses are advanced:

Hypothesis 7 (H7): Occupational self-efficacy will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

Hypothesis 8 (H8): Role clarity will be negatively associated with turnover intention.

Onboarding success and turnover intention

Successful onboarding helps promote organizational socialization leading to a decrease in turnover intention. According to the social exchange theory and reciprocity norm theory, if the organization takes care of their employee's needs, then employees have a sense that the organization cares for them, thus leading to lower turnover while increasing their loyalty towards their job and organization (Akgunduz & Sanli, 2017). Studies have shown that onboarding success is inversely related to key employee decisions such as intent to stay with the organization (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). Myer

and Bartels (2017) have shown that positive onboarding experience is directly related to employee attitude on the job and is independent of other influences such as the job level, tenure, or the business domain. The results of the study suggest that an employee's outlook is influenced dramatically by their onboarding experiences. As organizations invest more time and resources in their onboarding plans, employees will recognize the action as worthwhile (Myer & Bartels, 2017). Onboarding experience influences employee satisfaction, turnover, productivity, and customer satisfaction; studies have shown that the relationship is inversely related (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). Successful onboarding had a positive influence on many organizational areas, including but not limited to employee engagement, performance, and reduced turnover (Cable et al., 2013; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Snell, 2006).

Usually, newcomers who have joined an organization do not contemplate leaving the organization. On the contrary, most of them look forward to being part of the organization for a long time. The onboarding experienced by newcomers cannot be immediately linked to turnover intention, a distal outcome, instead occupational self-efficacy and role clarity (proximal outcomes) act as mediating factors. Although proximal outcomes are relatively early newcomer adjustment indicators, they are considered to affect turnover intentions only three months onwards (up to one year). Therefore, I propose that occupational self-efficacy and role clarity mediate and negatively affect newcomer turnover intentions. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9 (H9): Occupational self-efficacy and role clarity will mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention.

Table 2. Hypotheses explanation

Claim	Reason	Evidence	Reference(s)
H1: Orientation training will have a positive association with onboarding success.	The training that newcomers receive during orientation can help them adjust to their new surroundings and give them a greater understanding of their responsibilities and consequently confidence to perform their job.	Research indicated that the information provided in orientation training helped manage stress, which was associated with job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Studies suggest that due to newcomers attending orientation training, they have increased role clarity and reduced stress, indicating a successful onboarding.	Klein and Weaver, 2000; Payne et al., 2008; Saks and Gruman, 2012
H2: Job characteristics will have a positive association with onboarding success.	The presence of job characteristics in the newcomer's job will reduce stress, anxiety, and increased organizational commitment, thus paving the path for successful onboarding.	Feedback plays a crucial role in newcomer socialization; additionally, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy can help develop the newcomer's self-efficacy by providing them with a sense of mastery, which is related to role clarity. Previous studies have demonstrated a significant correlation between job characteristics and stress.	Katz, 1980; Saks and Gruman, 2011; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2004; Colarelli et al., 1987; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Lingard, 2003
H3: Socialization tactics will be positively associated with onboarding success.	Socialization tactics help newcomers reduce their anxiety, define work roles, and is a crucial tool to ensure they fit into the organization. Furthermore, they provide job clarity and are	Studies have shown that newcomers want clarity regarding what can be expected in the organization. The socialization methods that an organization uses can significantly influence how the new employees react to these efforts.	Jones, 1986; Saks and Gruman, 2018; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979; Louis, 1980;

	key drivers to ensure they fit into the organization schema.		Feldman and Weitz, 1990
H4: Socialization agents will be positively associated with onboarding success.	Socialization agents help facilitate new employees' adjustment to the organization by assisting with resources, training, and assimilation into the new culture.	Past studies have acknowledged that social support from supervisors and coworkers helps employees adapt quickly to their new environment. Support from coworkers and immediate supervisor decreased any unmet expectations stress; it was also found that coworkers and supervisor support led to increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment.	Fisher, 1985; Rollag et al., 2005; Saks et al., 2007; Louis et al., 1983; Saks and Gruman, 2012; Fisher, 1985
H5: The degree of onboarding success will be positively associated with occupational self-efficacy.	Successful onboarding leads to an increase in knowledge and skills. The newly gained knowledge and skill influence the newcomers' ability to perform successfully in new situations.	Studies have demonstrated that knowledge gained from dealing with different situations may influence newcomers' choices and ability to respond to new situations; studies have established a strong correlation between task competency, developing social connections, and adjusting to the new job.	Jones, 1986; Nifadkar and Bauer, 2016
H6: The degree of onboarding success will be positively associated with role clarity.	Successful onboarding ensures newcomers' expectations about their behavior and role at work is communicated and understood.	Research has indicated that new employees who have role clarity, i.e., know what to expect, have a significantly higher chance of performing better in their job. Studies have recognized that socialization with coworkers is positively related to role clarity.	Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas and Burke, 2012; Gruman et al., 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller et al.,

			2011; Saks et al., 2011; Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000
H7: Occupational self-efficacy will be negatively associated with turnover intention.	Onboarding success resulting from effective organizational socialization practices is the key contributor to newcomer's occupational self-efficacy and role clarity. Employees with high occupational self-efficacy can quickly adapt and often tend to take a positive approach to their job and have lower turnover intentions.	Newcomers with high levels of self-efficacy are better at adapting to new roles and demands of the job. Employees with high self-efficacy are less likely to leave the organization since they are confident in their job capabilities.	Jones, 1986; Gist et al., 1989; Louis et al., 1983; McNatt and Judge, 2008; Bauer et al., 2007
H8: Role clarity will be negatively associated with turnover intention.	Role clarity is one of the key antecedents of productivity, and lack of it can lead employees to a state of anxiety and disorientation.	Studies have found a negative correlation between role clarity and voluntary turnover; studies have also found that role clarity is positively related to innovation and job satisfaction, and the tendency to leave. Additionally, studies have also found that employees with higher role clarity expressed an increase in job satisfaction.	Lyons, 1971; Donnelly and Ivancevich, 1975; Nelson et al., 1988; Saks and Ashforth, 2000; Saks and Gruman, 2012; Judge and Bono, 2001; Truxillo et al., 2012; Bauer et al., 2007; Wanberg, 2012

H9: Occupational self-efficacy and role clarity will mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention.	Employees with high levels of self-efficacy will be proactive and passionate about their career choice with the organization and will take charge of the opportunity provided to them. New employees who have role clarity, i.e., know what to expect, have a significantly higher chance of performing better in their job. Consequently, this leads to a significantly better experience for newcomers, thus lowering their intent to leave the organization.	When newcomers experience successful socialization, there is a considerable increase in their levels of self-efficacy. When employees have role clarity job performance, and intent to stay with the organization increase greatly. Studies have found role clarity to be a key indicator of distal socialization outcomes.	Gupta et al., 2018; Saks, 1995; Cooper-Thomas and Burke, 2012; Gruman et al., 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2011; Saks et al., 2011; Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Bauer and Erdogan, 2012

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Overview

Chapter 4 provides specifics of the research design, model, data collection process, and instruments used to test the hypothesized relationships.

Research design

A quantitative methodology framework incorporating a cross-sectional survey was used in the research design. Cross-sectional self-report methodology is common in organizational behavior studies (Spector, 1994; Spector, 2019). The survey is divided into two sections. In the first part of the survey, respondents were asked to answer the research constructs' questions. In the second section of the survey, the respondent's demographic information was collected.

Research model

This study's research model incorporates eight latent variables, 47 observed variables, and a total of nine hypotheses. All the constructs in the research model are latent variables. A latent variable cannot be observed directly; therefore, indicators or manifest variables are used to measure latent variables (Sharma & Stol, 2020). In this study, all the latent variables are reflective. In other words, any change in the latent variables causes changes in its indicators (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). This is in contrast to formative constructs in which the indicators cause a change in the latent variable. When defining the indicators as reflective, I followed the decision rules established by Jarvis et al. (2003).

The constructs in this model represent both exogenous and endogenous variables. An exogenous variable is an external variable whose value is not dependent on the model's variables; instead, the value is influenced by variables outside the model (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). In other words, exogenous variables are not caused by variables in the model (David Kenny, 2011). On the contrary, the value of endogenous variables is influenced by the model's independent variables (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004). The exogenous variables in the model are orientation training, job characteristics, socialization tactics, and socialization agents; while onboarding success, occupational self-efficacy, role clarity, and turnover intention are the endogenous variables.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

A Covariance-Based approach to Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) was used to test the hypotheses. CB-SEM is appropriate for confirmatory theory-development research (SmartPLS, n.d.a) and is often preferred in confirmatory research since it often tolerates complex models and allows to model the measurement error of latent variables (Statistics Solutions, n.d.a). Another SEM methodology that researchers often use is the Partial-Least Squares approach (PLS-SEM). PLS-SEM, however, is reserved for exploratory research. PLS-SEM is primarily used in marketing research (Albers, 2010)) and its use in organizational behavior has been limited. There are several CB-SEM statistical tools, e.g., AMOS, LISREL, Mplus, and R. Data analysis was conducted using AMOS 26.0 and SPSS 26.0.

Sample selection, and context

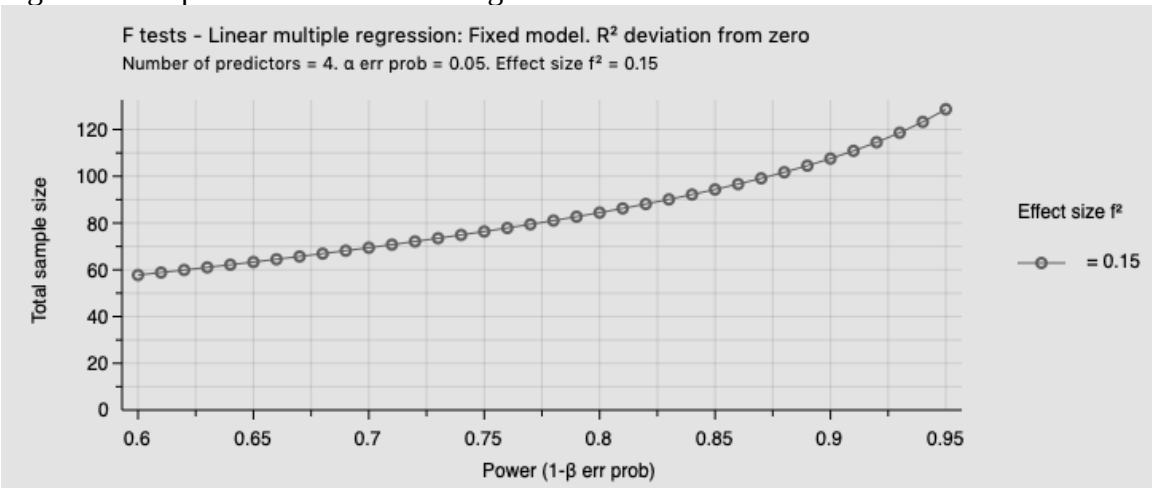
The unit of analysis in this research is the individual. Individuals are hourly (line-level) employees who assume various functional roles within the hospitality industry,

e.g., food and beverage servers, front desk agents, housekeepers, etc. Survey respondents were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). Since cognitive errors can be made recalling previous socialization practices, only respondents who have been employed with an organization for less than 12 months (newcomers) were selected and considered in the sampling frame. For their meta-analytic study on newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization, Bauer et al. (2007) identified newcomers as employees who had been on the job for 13 months or less. Hsiung and Hsieh (2003) also used a similar time interval in their study, recognizing those who had spent one year or less with the new company. In a study of socialization of newly hired engineers, Korte (2009) described newcomers as participants who have been with an organization for at least six months, but not more than 18 months. Additional literature review supported the notion that socialization activities in the first 12 months have the greatest impact on newcomers (Bauer & Green, 1994; Feldman, 1994; Fisher, 1986; Gupta et al., 2018).

To ensure the minimum threshold sample size was met, sample size tests were carried out before the study (a priori). Barclay et al. (1995) recommend using the 10-times rule for establishing the sample size, i.e., 10-times the maximum number of structural paths to a latent variable in the model. In this study, the maximum number of structural paths to a latent variable is four (four structural paths from socialization practices to onboarding success), indicating a sample size of 40. Several recent studies have also recommended power analysis as another method for determining the sample size (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2019; Marcoulides & Chin, 2013). Consequently, as Faul et al. (2009) suggested, I used the free power analysis program G*Power (version 3.1.9.2) to conduct a power analysis. The following test and parameters were used to

calculate the sample size: Test family: F -tests; statistical test: linear multiple regression with fixed model, R2 deviation from zero; type of power analysis: a priori analysis. Based on suggestions from extant literature, I used the following settings: medium effect size = 0.15 (Cohen, 1988); significance level = 0.05; power (1 −β) = 0.8 (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006); number of predictors = 4. Using these settings yielded a minimum sample size of 85. When adjusted for a higher power (1 −β) = 0.9 (default setting), the minimum recommended sample size was 108.

Figure 3. Sample size calculation using G*Power



Additionally, based on Soper's (2014) sample size calculator, the minimum recommended sample size for SEM with eight latent variables, 47 observed variables, a p-value of 0.05, power (1 −β) = 0.8 (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006), and a medium effect size of 0.3 (Cohen, 1988; 1992) was 183 (Daniel Soper, n.d.). Previous studies have used Soper's model as a recommended tool to conduct a priori sample calculation for SEM models (Adedeji et al., 2016; Hazen et al., 2015).

Data collection process

Data was collected using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) using a survey instrument. Since 2012 there is a growing tendency to use MTurk in scholarly research, with an increase of 800% from 2012 to 2015 (Keith et al., 2017). In their meta-analysis, Keith et al. (2017) observed that out of the 138 articles identified for their study, 66 (47.83%) were published in Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes (OBHDP), an A* journal according to the Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC). Recently a group of researchers found that data collected from online convenience sampling platforms like MTurk is at par with probability sampling (Jeong et al., 2019). The survey was administered using Florida International University's Qualtrics survey platform - www.Qualtrics.com.

Instruments

The research was conducted using instruments that have already been used in the existing literature.

Orientation training: OT was measured using a five-item scale based on a modified instrument from Gupta et al. (2018). A 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was used to gather feedback. The Cronbach's alpha for this measure in the current study was 0.76.

Job characteristics: JC was measured using a 15-items scale developed by Morris and Venkatesh (2010). The version used by Morris and Venkatesh (2010) was a modified version of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) with no reverse-coded items. A 7-point Likert scale is used (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.85.

Socialization tactics: ST was measured using a four-item scale adapted from Gupta et al. (2018). A 5-point scale is used (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.77.

Socialization agents: SA was assessed using a five-item scale based on a modified instrument from Gupta et al. (2018). A 5-point scale is used (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.81.

Onboarding success: OS was measured by using an instrument developed by Sharma and Stol (2020). Answers on the five-item scale are rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.76.

Occupational self-efficacy: The occupational self-efficacy scale developed by Rigotti et al. (2008) was used to measure the OSE construct. The scale had six items and was rated on a 6-point scale (1 = not at all true to 6 = completely true). The Cronbach's alpha in the current study was 0.82.

Role clarity: RC was measured by using a four-item scale developed by Lyons (1971). The instrument comprises a 5-point scale (from 1 = not clear at all to 5 = perfectly clear). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure in the current study was 0.72.

Turnover intention: TI was measured using a three-item scale from Xu and Payne (2014) based on scales from Cammann et al. (1983); and Mayfield and Mayfield (2007). It was rated on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The Cronbach's alpha in the current study was 0.92.

This study does not use any items that are reverse coded. Reverse coded items are used in research as interventions to avoid automatic or same response patterns (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Reverse coding has been associated with misresponse, and past studies have

found considerable misresponse due to difficulty and not due to inattention (Baumgartner et al., 2018; Marsh, 1996; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Swain et al., 2008). Studies have shown that respondents typically do not understand negative items (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). All the constructs in this study are measured with at least three item measures since multiple item measures have better psychometric properties (Fisher et al., 2016). Additionally, past studies indicate that multiple item measures help improve predictive validity (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). Furthermore, multiple items improve the study's reliability and construct validity (DeVellis, 2003; Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). When conducting SEM analysis for models with multiple factors and a small sample size, Kline (2015) recommends using at least three to five indicators to prevent data analysis issues.

Control variables

As with most organizational behavior research, age (Caillier, 2016; Gupta et al., 2018; Haueter et al., 2003) and gender (Caillier, 2016; Haueter et al., 2003; Hsiung & Hsieh, 2003) were used as control variables. Prior studies have used respondent's education (Caillier, 2016; Hsiung & Hsieh, 2003) as control variables, and therefore education was also used as a control variable to test the relationships hypothesized in this study.

Validity

Internal Validity

Internal validity is associated with the evidence that determines a cause and effect. It is one of the most important validities because it helps understand the causal processes (Antonakis et al., 2010; Vancouver & Warren, 2012). Since this study utilizes survey sample data, the cause-effect (causal) relationship usually is not plausible. Causal

relationships can only be established in a controlled experimental study. Consequently, this study's hypotheses suggest associations among the constructs in the model instead of causal relationships (Sharma & Stol, 2020). Although there is temporal precedence, i.e., the cause (socialization practices such as orientation training, job characteristics, socialization tactics, and socialization agents)) is before the effect (turnover intention), turnover could also be related to other plausible explanations, e.g., family obligations, relocation, a job offer with a competitor, and other career advancement opportunities.

External validity

External validity explores the degree to which the outcomes of a study can be generalized in different contexts, i.e., settings (Calder et al., 1982). It is the extent to which the study can be generalized across various groups (Vancouver & Warren, 2012). Simply put, it is an indicator of whether the study results can be generalized in another study with a different set of samples. In this study, Amazon MTurk was used to collect data from the respondents. Studies have indicated that respondents recruited from MTurk pay more attention to survey instructions compared to undergraduate students (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016), are more diverse and representative (Mason & Suri, 2012), and generates reliable results (Behrend et al., 2011; Berinsky et al., 2012; Buhrmester et al., 2011; Paolacci et al., 2010). This diverse and representative sample helps in the generalizability of the data. Additionally, appropriate actions were taken to ensure only participants who met all the eligibility requirements participated in the research. The demographic breakdown in table 5 shows that the study represents respondents with diverse backgrounds (age, gender, and educational qualification). As such, there is evidence that the sample meets the requirements of the study.

Construct validity

The measurement instruments used in this study were used in several previous studies and generated empirical evidence. In the case of adapted instruments, items were adapted based on extant literature. The pilot study helped assess the construct validity of the measures. An evaluation of the measurement model reaffirmed the convergent and discriminant validity of the constructs.

Content validity

All the scales used in this study are established scales and has been validated in prior studies. The scales were selected with caution to ensure they matched the definition of the constructs.

Face validity

To assess the survey instrument's face validity and clarity, the survey instrument was pretested (informed pilot) before the data collection. This helped further validate the content and face validities of the construct measures (Churchill, 1979; Straub, 1989). The survey instrument was peer-reviewed by nine doctoral students. The group consisted of senior professionals in business and academia who had an adequate understanding of the subject area to provide feedback. The feedback from the group led to some changes in the survey instrument. The combination of the anchors and questions for the scale 'job characteristics' was not logical for some respondents. This was remedied by adjusting the anchors of the scale. Another feedback provided was that it is plausible that turnover intention may result from unsatisfactory onboarding and other factors such as family obligations, relocation, career advancement opportunities, etc. It was, therefore, necessary to isolate these factors. A screening statement, 'To what extent have you

considered leaving your job due to/as a result of your onboarding experience,' was presented before the turnover intention questions to ensure respondents answered the questions from their recent onboarding experience perspective. A third suggestion was to avoid multiple questions per page to reduce the chance of straight lining. The updated informed pilot did not raise any further questions or comments from the respondents.

Non-response bias

Non-response bias occurs when the survey results are biased because there may be a difference among the group of respondents who responded to the survey against the individuals who did not respond. There are two types of non-response bias - item and unit non-response. When respondents choose not to answer all the questions in a survey, it leads to item non-response. On the contrary, a unit non-response occurs when an individual who was a random sample did not participate in the survey. In order to minimize non-response bias, no personal or sensitive information was collected in the survey. Furthermore, the Qualtrics survey was optimized for mobile usage to account for the respondents who prefer to take the survey via a mobile or tablet device. MTurk presents a unique challenge in calculating response rates in that the number of potential participants who viewed the survey but failed to respond cannot be calculated (Chambers et al., 2016).

Common method bias (CMB)

One of the most common biases in social research is common method bias (CMB). It is often a problem with self-reported measures (Gardner et al., 1998). CMB materializes when the methods (instruments) used to measure the constructs have a potential problem (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This bias tends to be more common when both

the independent and dependent variables are measured from the same respondent (Fuller et al., 2016; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Self-reported data such as online surveys have the potential for bias that may cause common method variance, and the outcome is a false relationship (amplified or underrepresented) among the constructs (Conway & Lance, 2010). Since CMB is common and can often be problematic in cross-sectional surveys, both research design (procedural remedies) and statistical controls (statistical remedies) were used to mitigate the concern (Podsakoff et al., 2003). According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), the primary approach to controlling CMB is identifying and removing the common measures between the independent and dependent variables. It is also possible to reduce CMB during the design of the items (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The best action plan to avoid CMB is to collect data from multiple sources (Chang et al., 2010). Another strategy is to separately collect the predictor and criterion variables' measures by asking the respondents complete the survey at different times and circumstances (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Another potential solution that can be incorporated into the survey design phase is to mix the order of the questions and use different types of Likert scales (Chang et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition, using psychological separation is another way to minimize CMB. In this approach, the predictor and criterion variables' measures are separated from each other into two sections implying that there are no relationships between the two sections (Cheraghalizadeh & Tümer, 2017). Additionally, to assure anonymity and motivate respondents to answer questions without fear of retribution, they were informed that the survey information would be anonymous and confidential. Furthermore, respondents were advised to answer the questions truthfully since there were no right and wrong answers (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted to assess the measures' validity and reliability after pretesting the survey instrument. The main goal of the pilot study was to (a) become aware (early) of any problems with the design and setup, (b) get some preliminary sense of how well the design works, how long it takes to complete the survey, the respondents' willingness to participate in the study, how many respondents answered the survey, etc., and (c) to gather some preliminary data for data analyses. Additionally, the pilot also helped assess the risk of survey fatigue. Based on the pilot results' factor loading, I removed two items from orientation training and socialization agents.

CHAPTER V

DATA ANALYSIS (RESULTS)

Overview

This chapter provides details of the data analysis. A CB-SEM was used to analyze the data and test the hypotheses. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and Cronbach's alpha were used to ascertain the constructs' validity and reliability. The findings from the hypotheses testing are reported in this section.

Sample size

Participants recruited from MTurk were required to meet two qualifying criteria. Specifically, only participants who were currently employed in the hospitality industry and attended a new hire onboarding in the past 12 months had access to the survey. Qualified participants were directed to the Qualtrics platform to complete the survey.

A total of 578 responses were recorded. Only participants who met the eligibility criteria were presented with the study questions. This resulted in a total of 290 responses. All participants who completed the survey were compensated $2.00 for their time and contribution to the research. The survey data from Qualtrics was exported using a Comma Separated Values (CSV) file into an Excel spreadsheet. The data were examined for incomplete answers, duplicate, and inconsistent records. Out of 290 responses, there were three invalid entries (1%). I excluded submissions from respondents who completed the survey in less than three minutes (n = 39, 13%). Straight-lining and failed instructed response was identified in three (n = 3, 1%) and 12 (n = 12, 4%) cases respectively. In total, 57 participant responses were rejected from the final analysis. Overall, 80% of the

responses were accepted, and the average time spent completing the survey was approximately ten minutes. A total of 233 responses (64% male; 36% female) was used in the analyses. The number of responses (sample size) for the data analysis was above the minimum sample size established a priori by G*Power analysis (n = 108) and Soper's (2014) sample size calculator (n = 183).

Measures were taken to examine for potential outliers in the data. The guidelines laid out by Buhrmester et al. (2011) were followed to isolate careless responders. Most notably, as suggested by DeSimone et al. (2015), I used a special scale (direct technique) in the survey to flag respondents who did not carefully read the items. I used an instructed response item in the survey – To monitor quality, please respond with a two for this item. Straight-lining is a potential issue in surveys, especially on MTurk. To minimize this, I presented only one question per page. In order to maintain methodological rigor and to produce high-quality data, I had used the following criteria for selecting MTurk survey takers: 1) Human Intelligence Task (HIT) approval rate of more than 95; 2) number of HITs approved greater than 5000, and 3) masters qualification (a qualification granted by MTurk to survey takers who deliver only top quality work).

Multivariate normality

The multivariate normality of the dataset was assessed using Mardia's coefficient, a multivariate kurtosis measure. When the critical ratio (c.r.) is greater than 1.96, it implies a significant Mardia's coefficient, and the data set is likely not normally distributed (Gao et al., 2008). It has been found that Mardia's coefficient is influenced by a large sample size (Seber, 1984; Statistics Solutions, n.d.b). Sample sizes greater than

200 are at risk of producing significant results (Statistics Solutions, n.d.). Thus, Mardia's coefficient's significance test is not an accurate assessment of normality, particularly in SEM, where sample sizes are generally > 200 (Statistics Solutions, n.d). Assessing the kurtosis values for individual variables is therefore recommended in such situations (Stevens, 2009). If the kurtosis values for the variables are greater than 3.0, the data is not normally distributed (Bentler, 2006; Byrne, 2010; Westfall & Henning, 2013).

Preliminary analysis revealed that the data did not meet multivariate normality assumptions. Twenty-six items had a critical ratio greater than 1.96, and rc_1 had a kurtosis value of 3.18. To obtain a multivariate normal distribution, I deleted three responses (cases 2, 25, and 207), grounded on the Mahalanobis distance. After deleting the three observations, the multivariate kurtosis dropped from 456.06 to 355.60. The resulting data set met all multivariate normality requirements. Although 21 items had a critical ratio greater than 1.96, all individual variables had kurtosis values below 3.0, thus meeting multivariate normality criteria (Bentler, 2006; Byrne, 2010; Westfall & Henning, 2013). Table 3 shows that the data meets the multivariate normality conditions.

Univariate normality

In order to meet univariate normality assumptions, skewness and kurtosis values must be between -2 and +2, and -7 and +7, respectively (George & Mallery, 2019; Cohen et al., 2003; Curran et al., 1996; Ryu, 2011; Bryne, 2016; Hair et al., 2010). Table 3 shows that the data meets the univariate normality conditions.

Table 3. Multivariate and univariate normality

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
ot_4	1.000	5.000	-.955	-5.915	.408	1.262
ot_5	2.000	5.000	-.925	-5.725	.295	.913
os_1	1.000	5.000	-1.109	-6.867	1.657	5.129
ti_3	1.000	5.000	.487	3.017	-1.118	-3.462
ti_2	1.000	5.000	.268	1.657	-1.109	-3.432
ti_1	1.000	5.000	.591	3.659	-.915	-2.832
rc_1	3.000	5.000	-.142	-.878	-.501	-1.551
rc_2	2.000	5.000	-.496	-3.069	-.108	-.333
rc_3	2.000	5.000	-.777	-4.811	.381	1.179
rc_4	2.000	5.000	-.708	-4.380	.128	.396
ose_6	2.000	6.000	-.617	-3.821	.004	.011
ose_5	2.000	6.000	-.712	-4.410	.177	.547
ose_4	1.000	6.000	-1.021	-6.321	1.724	5.337
ose_3	3.000	6.000	-.556	-3.441	-.577	-1.785
ose_2	2.000	6.000	-.288	-1.783	-.473	-1.465
ose_1	1.000	6.000	-.666	-4.124	1.529	4.733
os_5	2.000	5.000	-.569	-3.524	.269	.833
os_4	1.000	5.000	-1.120	-6.934	1.592	4.927
os_3	2.000	5.000	-.944	-5.846	.587	1.817
os_2	1.000	5.000	-1.052	-6.513	.937	2.899
sa_1	1.000	5.000	-1.166	-7.220	1.520	4.705
sa_2	1.000	5.000	-.931	-5.765	.776	2.402
sa_3	1.000	5.000	-1.007	-6.233	.725	2.245
sa_4	1.000	5.000	-.849	-5.257	.397	1.228
sa_5	1.000	5.000	-.900	-5.575	.887	2.744
st_1	1.000	5.000	-1.277	-7.907	2.800	8.668
st_2	1.000	5.000	-.819	-5.072	.401	1.243
st_3	1.000	5.000	-.701	-4.338	-.507	-1.568
st_4	1.000	5.000	-.844	-5.225	.597	1.849
jcsv_1	2.000	7.000	-1.283	-7.946	1.980	6.129
jcsv_2	1.000	7.000	-.733	-4.536	-.150	-.464
jcsv_3	1.000	7.000	-.312	-1.935	-.938	-2.905
jcti_1	1.000	7.000	-.979	-6.062	1.245	3.854
jcti_2	2.000	7.000	-1.068	-6.611	.671	2.078
jcti_3	1.000	7.000	-1.218	-7.540	1.480	4.580
jcts_1	1.000	7.000	-1.110	-6.870	.667	2.064
jcts_2	1.000	7.000	-1.067	-6.608	.501	1.551
jcts_3	1.000	7.000	-1.316	-8.149	1.228	3.802
jcja_1	1.000	7.000	-.771	-4.774	-.344	-1.065
jcja_2	1.000	7.000	-.686	-4.249	-.585	-1.812
jcja_3	1.000	7.000	-.976	-6.042	.605	1.872
jctf_1	1.000	7.000	-1.299	-8.041	1.921	5.947
jctf_2	1.000	7.000	-1.054	-6.528	1.115	3.453

jctf_3	1.000	7.000	-1.423	-8.812	2.805	8.683
ot_1	2.000	5.000	-.684	-4.238	1.439	4.454
ot_2	2.000	5.000	-.820	-5.077	.128	.396
ot_3	1.000	5.000	-1.129	-6.991	1.543	4.776
Multivariate					355.606	39.732

Analysis method

This study employs the two-step modeling method suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In the two-step modeling method, the measurement model is first evaluated, followed by the theoretical or structural model. While the measurement model evaluates the relationship between the latent variables and their measures (Hall, 2008), the theoretical or structural model tests the hypotheses advanced in this study.

Common method bias (CMB)

To ensure no systematic bias is influencing the data, I tested for CMB. I used Harman's single factor test, which indicated that the first factor explained 29.91% of the total variance, which is significantly below the tolerable threshold of 50%. This indicated that CMB was not a problem in conducting the SEM analysis (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). The marker variable test introduced by Lindell and Whitney (2001) is commonly used as a standard test in determining CMB in management research. However, the effectiveness of this approach has been criticized by several scholars based on conceptual and empirical issues (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and the potential to faultily detect CMB (Richardson et al., 2009).

Table 4. CMB using Harman's single factor test

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14.058	29.910	29.910	14.058	29.910	29.910
2	3.773	8.028	37.939			
3	2.458	5.230	43.168			
4	2.343	4.986	48.154			
5	1.945	4.138	52.292			
6	1.611	3.428	55.721			
7	1.360	2.895	58.616			
8	1.257	2.674	61.289			
9	1.168	2.484	63.774			
10	1.081	2.300	66.074			
11	1.040	2.212	68.286			
12	.892	1.899	70.184			
13	.859	1.829	72.013			
14	.797	1.695	73.708			
15	.738	1.571	75.279			
16	.710	1.511	76.790			
17	.659	1.402	78.192			
18	.632	1.345	79.537			
19	.618	1.314	80.851			
20	.570	1.213	82.064			
21	.545	1.159	83.224			
22	.526	1.119	84.343			
23	.515	1.096	85.439			
24	.494	1.051	86.489			
25	.455	.969	87.458			
26	.431	.917	88.376			
27	.421	.896	89.272			
28	.396	.843	90.114			
29	.387	.824	90.939			
30	.374	.795	91.733			
31	.357	.760	92.493			
32	.326	.693	93.186			
33	.322	.685	93.871			
34	.307	.654	94.525			
35	.295	.629	95.153			
36	.284	.604	95.757			
37	.263	.559	96.316			
38	.241	.513	96.830			

39	.235	.501	97.331
40	.215	.456	97.787
41	.211	.450	98.237
42	.188	.400	98.637
43	.163	.347	98.983
44	.148	.315	99.299
45	.141	.300	99.599
46	.105	.223	99.822
47	.084	.178	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Respondent demographics

Table 5 provides information on the respondent's demographics. The most response was from male respondents 144 (63%), while only 86 female respondents (37%) participated in the survey. Among both female and male respondents, most were between 23 to 38 years with a 35% and 65% response rate, respectively. In relation to education, 153 respondents (66%) stated that they had a community college degree; 24 (10%) reported that they had a technical diploma; a total of 20 respondents (9%) indicated they had a college degree; 18 respondents (8%) stated they had some college; 4% (n = 10) of the respondents indicated grade school while 5 (2%) responded with high school. None of the respondents indicated that they had an advanced degree.

Table 5. Gender, age, and education

Demographics	Frequency N	Power %
Gender		
Male	144	63
Female	86	37
Total	230	100
Age		
18-22 years	1	0.4
23-38 years	175	76.1
39-54 years	49	21.3
55-73 years	5	2.2
74-91 years	0	0.0
Total	230	100
Education		
Grade school	10	4.3
High school	5	2.2
Technical diploma	24	10.4
Some college	18	7.8
Community college degree	153	66.5
College degree	20	8.7
Advanced degree	0	0.0
Total	230	100

Note: Gender is coded 0 for males and 1 for females. Age is coded 1 for age group 18-22 years; 2 for age group 23-38 years; 3 for age group 39-54 years; 4 for age group 55-73 years; and 5 for age group 74-91 years. Education is coded 1 for grade school; 2 for high school; 3 for technical diploma; 4 for some college; 5 for community college degree; 6 for college degree; and 7 for advanced degree.

Evaluation of the measurement model

Before evaluating the structural model, I analyzed the measurement model to assess the latent constructs' validity and reliability. In the measurement model analysis, I discuss model fit, internal consistency reliability, construct reliability, average variance extracted (AVE), convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

Model fit

The first step in analyzing the measurement model was to conduct a CFA using full maximum likelihood. Each item was loaded to only one factor, and the pattern coefficient of one item in each factor was fixed at 1.0. The items were assessed based on

the significance of the indicator's estimated pattern coefficient on its construct factor and if the standardized regression weight exceeded 0.50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). All item loadings on the initial model were significant; however, the model showed a modest fit with six standardized regression weights (jcts_2, jcti_1, jcsv_3, jcsv_1, os_1, and ot_5) below 0.5. The model fit did not improve by dropping the six items; hence the original estimated model was retained.

The first model fit index I used to assess the model fit was CMIN/DF (Chi-Square/df ratio). CMIN/DF < 3 implies an acceptable fit (Kline, 2011). However, the Chi-Square statistic is influenced by large sample sizes (> 200), and therefore likely to return a significant result suggesting a poor fit model (Box, 1979; MacCallum, 2003; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Shi et al., 2019). Therefore, Chi-Square alone is no longer considered for model fit evaluation (Schlermelleh-Engel et al., 2003, Vandenberg, 2006). Following the recommendations of Hu and Bentler (1999), the following five indices were also used in assessing the model fit: 1) comparative fit index (CFI), 2) incremental fit index (IFI), 3) Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), 4) standardized root mean residual (SRMR); and 5) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). CFI ≥ 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; West et al., 2012), IFI > 0.90 (Bollen, 1989), and TLI ≥ 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; West et al., 2012) are considered as a good fit. The value of these indices can range from 0 to 1, with a value closer to 1 an indicator of a better fitting model. Both SRMR and RMSEA less than 0.08 imply good fits (Hu & Bentler, 1999; MacCallum et al., 1996). CMIN/DF and two of the five indices (SRMR and RMSEA) met and exceeded the prior literature standards. The model fit indices for CFI, IFI, and TLI are moderately short of the recommended thresholds. This may be attributed to the complexity of the model and

the large sample size. The above criteria are generally accepted guidelines for established models. The model in this study is an experimental model and, as indicated by (Bollen, 1989) should be considered an advancement of knowledge in this field of study. Model fit statistics of the study are reported in table 6 below.

Table 6. Fit statistics for the measurement model

Measures	Recommended	Measurement model
Chi Square/df ratio ($\chi 2$/df)	< 3.00	2.61
Comparative fit index (CFI)	≥ 0.95	0.71
Incremental fit index (IFI)	> 0.90	0.71
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	≥ 0.95	0.69
Standardized root mean residual (SRMR)	< 0.08	0.08
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< 0.08	0.08
N = 230		

Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability indicates the extent to which the test items measure the constructs in the study reliably and consistently. I used Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability tests to measure internal consistency reliability. It should be noted that, in general, Cronbach's alpha values are considered conservative in comparison to composite reliability, which tends to overestimate the values (Hair et al., 2016). The Cronbach's alpha values for all constructs were above the threshold of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). In addition, I used the CFA outputs to test the composite reliability (CR) using standardized factor loadings and the error variance from CFA outputs (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2016), CR values between 0.6 and 0.7 are acceptable; however, values between 0.7 and 0.9 are desirable. CR values below 0.6 indicate an absence of internal consistency reliability, while values greater than 0.95 means that the items are

very similar (Sharma & Stol, 2020). Table 7 shows the results of Cronbach alpha and composite reliability tests. All values are within the acceptable range of 0.7 to 0.9.

Table 7. Internal consistency reliability (CR)

Construct	Cronbach α	Composite Reliability
Orientation training - OT	0.76	0.83
Job characteristics - JC	0.85	0.75
Socialization tactics - ST	0.77	0.80
Socialization agents - SA	0.81	0.86
Onboarding success - OS	0.76	0.85
Occupational self-efficacy - OSE	0.82	0.87
Role clarity – RC	0.72	0.83
Turnover intention - TI	0.92	0.88

Construct validity

To determine the construct validity, I tested both convergent, and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity

Convergent validity indicates the extent to which the different test items of a construct positively correlate with each other. It is the degree to which the same trait is measured using various processes (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). All the constructs in this study are reflective latent variables. Therefore, all the different indicators measure the same construct, and hence they converge and share a substantial amount of variance among themselves (Sharma & Stol, 2020). Convergent validity is measured by the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and the construct's indicators' outer loadings. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), AVE values should be at a minimum of 0.5 to indicate good convergent validity. The AVE for each factor was calculated using Microsoft Excel. I used CFA output and loaded them into Microsoft Excel to calculate the AVE. The AVE values (table 8) of OT, JC, SA, ST, OS, OSE, and RC are below 0.5, and

TI has a value of above 0.5. Although AVE values are below the recommended value of 0.5, given that composite reliability (CR) is greater than 0.6, convergent validity requirements are met (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Lam, 2012). Fornell and Larcker (1981) noted that AVE might be viewed as a conservative approach to the validity of the model, and CR values on their own are sufficient to establish convergent validity.

Table 8. Average variance extracted (AVE)

Items	Arrow	Construct	Estimate	Squared Loading	AVE
jcja_1	<---	JC	0.5080	0.2581	0.295
jcja_2	<---	JC	0.5640	0.3181	
jcja_3	<---	JC	0.5310	0.2820	
jcsv_1	<---	JC	0.3630	0.1318	
jcsv_2	<---	JC	0.5530	0.3058	
jcsv_3	<---	JC	0.4110	0.1689	
jctf_1	<---	JC	0.6520	0.4251	
jctf_2	<---	JC	0.5960	0.3552	
jctf_3	<---	JC	0.5600	0.3136	
jcti_1	<---	JC	0.4660	0.2172	
jcti_2	<---	JC	0.5840	0.3411	
jcti_3	<---	JC	0.5400	0.2916	
jcts_1	<---	JC	0.6280	0.3944	
jcts_2	<---	JC	0.4250	0.1806	
jcts_3	<---	JC	0.6690	0.4476	
os_1	<---	OS	0.4940	0.2440	0.420
os_2	<---	OS	0.6970	0.4858	
os_3	<---	OS	0.7050	0.4970	
os_4	<---	OS	0.6020	0.3624	
os_5	<---	OS	0.7150	0.5112	
ose_1	<---	OSE	0.6370	0.4058	0.442
ose_2	<---	OSE	0.6670	0.4449	
ose_3	<---	OSE	0.6780	0.4597	
ose_4	<---	OSE	0.6190	0.3832	
ose_5	<---	OSE	0.7240	0.5242	
ose_6	<---	OSE	0.6590	0.4343	
ot_1	<---	OT	0.7150	0.5112	0.414
ot_2	<---	OT	0.6970	0.4858	
ot_3	<---	OT	0.6270	0.3931	
ot_4	<---	OT	0.7000	0.4900	
ot_5	<---	OT	0.4380	0.1918	
rc_1	<---	RC	0.5490	0.3014	0.410
rc_2	<---	RC	0.7070	0.4998	

rc_3	<---	RC	0.5950	0.3540	
rc_4	<---	RC	0.6950	0.4830	
sa_1	<---	SA	0.6860	0.4706	0.478
sa_2	<---	SA	0.6640	0.4409	
sa_3	<---	SA	0.6390	0.4083	
sa_4	<---	SA	0.7190	0.5170	
sa_5	<---	SA	0.7450	0.5550	
st_1	<---	ST	0.7680	0.5898	0.479
st_2	<---	ST	0.7090	0.5027	
st_3	<---	ST	0.5920	0.3505	
st_4	<---	ST	0.6890	0.4747	
ti_1	<---	TI	0.8950	0.8010	0.818
ti_2	<---	TI	0.8530	0.7276	
ti_3	<---	TI	0.9620	0.9254	

Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity evaluation is a standard expectation when studying relationships between latent variables. It is the degree to which traits are distinct (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). To put it another way, it seeks to measure how distinct a construct is in comparison to others in the study (Sharma & Stol, 2020). The purpose of conducting a discriminant validity assessment is to corroborate that a reflective construct's strongest relationship is with its own indicators compared to others in the model (Hair et al., 2017). The first step was to use the Fornell-Larcker criterion to examine for discriminant validity. According to literature, when establishing the Fornell-Larcker criterion for CB-SEM, the square root of a construct's AVE should be compared to the construct's correlation with other constructs in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2016; Hui & Wold 1982; Lohmöller 1989). According to the criterion, the square root of a construct's AVE should have a greater value than the correlations with other variables. That is, the construct ought to have a large amount of variance among its own indicators versus other constructs in the model (Sharma & Stol, 2020). Table 9 and

10 show the construct's AVE's square roots and their correlation with other variables. The results indicated a lack of discriminant validity among the constructs. However, further evaluation of content validity showed that all the scales have been used in previous research and are distinct and nomologically valid. Therefore, I concluded that the model's constructs are reliable and valid.

Recent studies have also shown that the above method by Fornell and Larcker (1981) does not reliably establish discriminant validity. Extensive research by Henseler et al. (2015) supports this theory. According to Henseler et al. (2015), heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) method should be used to assess discriminant validity. It measures the extent of similarity among the latent variables (Henseler, n.d.). The HTMT criterion is preferred to the traditional Fornell-Larcker criterion since, in some cases, it may not be able to detect discriminant validity concerns (SmartPLS, n.d.b). Based on the results of their study, Voorhees et al. (2016) recommend using both the Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT to detect discriminant validity when CB-based SEM is used for analysis. Although some researchers adopt a threshold of 0.90, particularly when the constructs are conceptually similar (Franke & Sarstedt, 2019; Gold et al., 2001; Henseler et al., 2015; Teo et al., 2008; Voorhees et al., 2016), in general, discriminant validity can be established if HTMT is less than one (Henseler, n.d.). Table 11 shows that most HTMT ratios are below 0.85, the conservative cut-off suggested by some scholars (Clark & Watson, 1995; Hair et al., 2016; Kline, 2011) with two ratios between 0.85 and 0.90. Only four ratios (orientation training/onboarding success, socialization agents/onboarding success, socialization agents/ orientation training, and socialization tactics/socialization

agents) are above 0.90 but below 1.0. Since the HTMT ratios are below 1.0 (Henseler et al., 2015; Henseler, 2017; Henseler, n.d), discriminant validity has been established.

Table 9. AVE and square root of AVEs

Construct	Items	AVE	Square root of AVE
Orientation training - OT	5	0.414	0.644
Job characteristics - JC	15	0.295	0.544
Socialization tactics - ST	4	0.479	0.692
Socialization agents - SA	5	0.478	0.692

Table 10. Correlations

Construct	Relation	Construct	Estimate
OT	< -- >	JC	0.664
OT	< -- >	ST	0.917
OT	< -- >	SA	0.946
JC	< -- >	ST	0.684
JC	< -- >	SA	0.715
ST	< -- >	SA	0.956

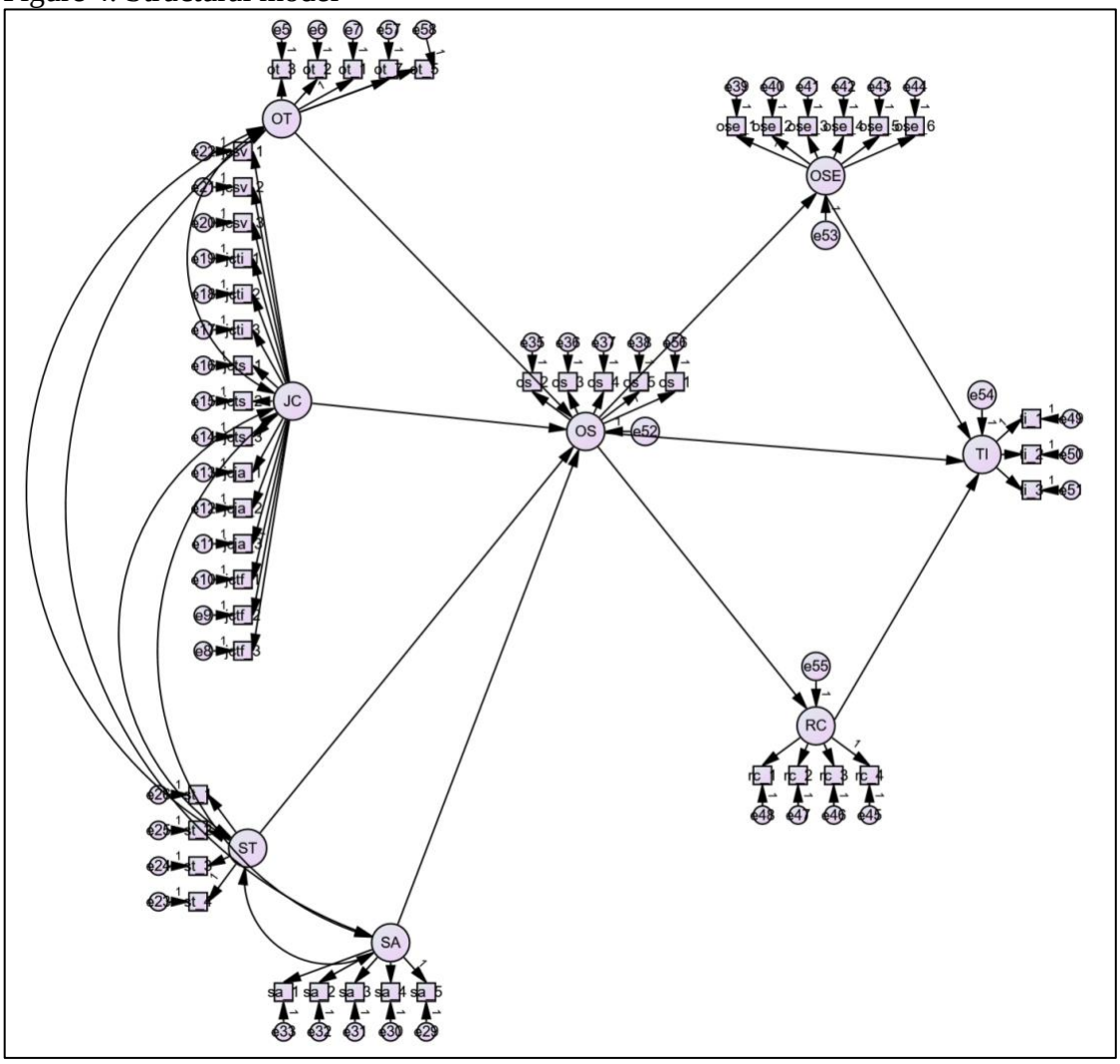
Table 11. Heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT)

	JC	OS	OSE	OT	RC	SA	ST	TI
JC								
OS	0.634							
OSE	0.609	0.879						
OT	0.638	0.906	0.683					
RC	0.534	0.826	0.826	0.729				
SA	0.697	0.927	0.634	0.939	0.707			
ST	0.654	0.798	0.536	0.879	0.632	0.960		
TI	0.163	0.283	0.261	0.305	0.184	0.194	0.225	

Evaluation of the structural model

After testing the model for validity and reliability, I analyzed the structural model to test the hypotheses (figure 2). In the path SEM I tested whether OT, JC, SA, ST influenced OS. I also tested if OS influenced OSE and RC. In addition, I also tested whether OSE and RC mediated the relationship between OS and TI.

Figure 4. Structural model



Multicollinearity

The structural model contains eight constructs, of which four are exogenous (orientation training, job characteristics, socialization tactics, and socialization agents). To assess the multicollinearity of the exogenous constructs, I used Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance measures. The lower the VIF, the lower the chances of correlation among the exogenous variables. Ringle et al. (2015) established a maximum VIF value of 5.0 and tolerance values greater than 0.2 as acceptable. According to Hair et

al. (2010), if the VIF value exceeds 4.0, there is a multicollinearity problem. In this model, all VIF values are below the conservative threshold established by Hair et al. (2010). The values are between 1.5 and 3.3, indicating that multicollinearity is not an issue among the independent variables. Tolerance values are greater than 0.2, and hence there are no issues with multicollinearity (refer to table 12).

Table 12. Collinearity diagnostics

Coefficients[a]								
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.066	.837		6.055	.000		
	OT	.334	.055	.363	6.033	.000	.415	2.410
	JC	.018	.011	.078	1.637	.103	.655	1.526
	ST	.046	.061	.048	.763	.446	.388	2.579
	SA	.346	.059	.416	5.871	.000	.299	3.341
a. Dependent Variable: OS								

Path coefficients and significance

The significance of the paths was evaluated by examining the standardized regression weights. An evaluation of the structural model showed that the two paths were significant at $p < 0.001$ level. The standardized regression weights of the paths in the model ranged from 0.053 to 0.828. The results of the hypotheses testing are displayed in table 13. On analyzing the data, I found that hypotheses H5 and H6 were supported. Hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H4, H7, and H8 were not supported. H9 advances the hypothesis that occupational self-efficacy and role clarity mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention. To examine this mediating relationship, I compared both the indirect and direct paths of the mediators. The indirect relationship amongst onboarding success and turnover intention with occupational self-efficacy as a

mediator is -0.432 and is not statistically significant (p = 0.195, and zero lies between the lower and upper bounds). The two-tailed significance test showed that the lower and upper bounds were -1.440, and 0.250 respectively. The indirect association between onboarding success and turnover intention mediated by role clarity was also not statistically significant (0.119; p = 0.707, and zero lies between the lower and upper bounds). The two-tailed significance test showed that the lower and upper bounds were -0.716, and 1.023 respectively. The direct association between onboarding success and turnover intention is -0.144 and is not significant (p = 0.530). The results indicate that occupational self-efficacy and role clarity do not mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention.

Table 13. Standardized regression weights and the corresponding p-values

H	Construct	Path	Construct	Standardized path coefficient	p-value
H1	Orientation training	→	Onboarding success	0.714	0.078
H2	Job characteristics	→	Onboarding success	0.122	0.230
H3	Socialization tactics	→	Onboarding success	-0.647	0.234
H4	Socialization agents	→	Onboarding success	0.736	0.300
H5	Onboarding success	→	Occupational self-efficacy	0.828	< 0.001
H6	Onboarding success	→	Role clarity	0.807	< 0.001
H7	Occupational self-efficacy	→	Turnover intention	-0.187	0.260
H8	Role clarity	→	Turnover intention	0.053	0.753
H9	Direct effect Onboarding success	→	Turnover intention	-0.144	0.530

H	Construct	Path	Construct	Path	Construct	Standardized path coefficient	p-value
H9	Indirect effect						
	Onboarding success	→	Occupational self-efficacy	→	Turnover intention	-0.432	0.195
	Onboarding success	→	Role clarity	→	Turnover intention	0.119	0.707

Coefficient of determination

These are the percent of variance explained by the predictor variables. The coefficient of determination provides an overview of the model's predictive capabilities. Table 14 lists the R2 values of onboarding success, role clarity, occupational self-efficacy, and turnover intention. Scholars have recognized R2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 as substantial, moderate, and weak, respectively (Hair et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2016; Henseler et al., 2009). I found substantial values for onboarding success

and moderate values for role clarity and occupational self-efficacy. The value for the turnover intention was weak.

Table 14. Coefficients of determination of endogenous constructs

Construct	R^2
Onboarding success (OS)	0.856
Role clarity (RC)	0.652
Occupational self-efficacy (OSE)	0.686
Turnover intention (TI)	0.078

Control variables

This study controlled for three demographic variables, namely age, gender, and education. Direct paths were added between the control variables and turnover intention (dependent variable). The analyses showed that only education was significantly related to turnover intention. The results below suggest that each increase in education level is associated with a 0.134 increase in turnover intention.

Table 15. Control variables

Control variable	Path	Construct (DV)	Standardized path coefficient	p value
Gender	→	Turnover intention (TI)	0.063	0.332
Age	→	Turnover intention (TI)	-0.067	0.307
Education	→	Turnover intention (TI)	0.134	0.04

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Overview

In this chapter, I present a discussion of results followed by theoretical and managerial implications, along with limitations, and opportunities for future research.

Discussion of results

The purpose of this research was to examine the effects of socialization practices on onboarding success and the mediating role of occupational self-efficacy and role clarity on turnover intention. It was hypothesized that successful onboarding would lower employee turnover intention. Table 16 provides an overview of the findings of the study.

An evaluation of the structural model provided an understanding of the impact different factors have on newcomer onboarding. The first hypothesis (H1) I proposed in the study was the positive association between orientation training and onboarding success. A weak statistical support was found for this relationship ($p = 0.078$). The findings are contrary to previous literature findings. Orientation training is one of the most important interventions in a newcomer's onboarding process. During orientation training, employees are provided with company information, and including but not limited to culture, mission, vision, policies, and procedures and these seems to have an influence on onboarding success. I also found no support for H2 ($p = 0.230$), which implied that job characteristics had no positive association with onboarding success. This finding is also not consistent previous research studies (Katz, 1980; Zhao et al., 2016) that provides evidence that job characteristics influence newcomers' sense of belongingness with the organization. H3 advanced the hypothesis that there is a positive

association between socialization tactics and onboarding success. Unlike what was hypothesized, the study results showed a negative association; additionally, this study was unable to validate the hypothesis ($p = 0.234$). Socialization tactics come in the form of social support that newcomers need to ease their concerns when joining an organization. These social support systems are the pathway to a successful onboarding; however, this study lacks empirical evidence to demonstrate that association. I did not find support for H4 ($p = 0.3$), which advanced the hypothesis that socialization agents will be positively associated with onboarding success. The lack of support for the above four hypotheses may be attributed to the complex model proposed in this study. Another possible explanation is that the latent constructs are highly correlated. I found support for H5 ($p < 0.001$) and H6 ($p < 0.001$), which suggested that onboarding success is positively associated with occupational self-efficacy, and role clarity, respectively. There is evidence that successful onboarding creates a strong foundation that leads to job role clarity. The results of hypotheses H5 and H6 are consistent with previous research outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Feldman, 1981; Kahn et al., 1964; Nifadkar & Bauer, 2016) and are consistent with the norms of the SRT theory. As expected, occupational self-efficacy was negatively associated with turnover intention (H7), but it was not confirmed ($p = 0.260$). H7 was based on the rationale that newcomers who have had experienced a successful onboarding had higher occupational self-efficacy levels and are better prepared to handle the new job's ups and downs and thus have lower turnover intentions. Role clarity (H8) had a positive association (contrary to hypothesis) with turnover intention, and it was not significant ($p = 0.753$). In this context, we can interpret that occupational self-efficacy and role clarity on their own was not sufficient to preclude

newcomers from considering leaving the organization. Finally, I proposed that occupational self-efficacy and role clarity mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention (H9). This hypothesis was not supported. Specifically, I did not find support for the direct effect ($p = 0.530$), which predicted a negative association linking onboarding success to turnover intention. Regarding the indirect effects, occupational self-efficacy did not mediate the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intention. This finding was contrary to the literature suggesting that although onboarding success leads to high occupational self-efficacy levels, it may not lower the newcomer's intent to leave the organization. Similarly, there was no indirect effect of role clarity; while successful onboarding was positively associated with role clarity (H6), it did not lead to lower turnover intentions.

In general, there is evidence (H5 and H6) that the newcomer's occupational self-efficacy and role clarity is considerably increased when the organization proactively adopts engagement strategies. As such, this study adopts the notion that effective socialization practices led to positive onboarding experiences. Therefore, organizations need to commit to creating socialization efforts for their new hires. It is recommended that members of the organization act as socialization agents to help adjust new employees to the organization. In addition, organizations need to adopt socialization tactics that help promote the employee's onboarding experiences, e.g., making it mandatory to attend company orientation before starting work or using a buddy support system to orient new employees. Since job characteristics influence how employees perceive their day-to-day tasks, managers must ensure that there are measures to ensure that the essential elements of skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback are

incorporated. The findings may have significant implication for corporate strategy and hence valuation.

Table 16. Summary of results

Hypotheses	Findings
H1: Orientation training → Onboarding success	Not significant; weak support
H2: Job characteristics → Onboarding success	Not significant; not supported
H3: Socialization tactics→ Onboarding success	Not significant; not supported
H4: Socialization agents → Onboarding success	Not significant; not supported
H5: Onboarding success → Occupational self-efficacy	Significant; supported
H6: Onboarding success → Role clarity	Significant; supported
H7: Occupational self-efficacy → Turnover intention	Not significant; not supported
H8: Role clarity → Turnover intention	Not significant; not supported
H9: Occupational self-efficacy and role clarity mediate onboarding success → Turnover intention	Not significant; not supported

Theoretical implications

In this research, I created a model to explore how newcomer socialization practices and onboarding collaborate to influence turnover intention and the mediating role of occupational self-efficacy and role clarity. Grounded on socialization resources theory norms, I put forth four antecedents to onboarding success: orientation training, job characteristics, socialization tactics, and socialization agents. Although the influence of newcomer socialization practices and onboarding on turnover intentions have been investigated separately, most research has not thoroughly studied how socialization practices and onboarding work in tandem to influence turnover intentions. Although only two of the nine hypotheses were supported, the results extend the current literature. In particular, the results validated that successful onboarding positively influenced

newcomer occupational self-efficacy and role clarity and advances empirical evidence to support the relationship. Specifically, the results suggest that successful onboarding augments the newcomer's ability to do well (because of increased occupational self-efficacy and role clarity). Thus, this study extends prior literature by establishing the role of onboarding success in occupational self-efficacy and role clarity.

In analyzing the findings, I found that this study has implications beyond socialization resources theory by incorporating theoretical constructs from psychology, management, and communication. This study challenges scholars to consider a cross-disciplinary approach. Specifically, to fully explore the influence of socialization practices in fostering newcomer adjustment, it is imperative to accommodate theories from the communication domain (uncertainty reduction theory) and sociology-organizational behavior (social exchange theory). The urge to reduce uncertainty and the innate drive to find rewards while minimizing costs toward coworkers and supervisors may be roadblocks, and therefore it is essential to consider this theory too in the socialization process. Thus, the theoretical model and findings extend the research beyond socialization resources theory. Likewise, research on antecedents to onboarding success should consider a broad theoretical standpoint that includes various disciplines (e.g., organizational behavior, marketing, strategy, and management information systems). Although the two socialization hypotheses were not confirmed, this research calls on scholars to study both the constructs of socialization tactics (social support) and socialization agents as probable predictors of onboarding success. Previous studies have usually combined these two constructs into one (i.e., socialization). Thus, this study brings forth the value of exploring a two-construct perspective.

Managerial implications

The literature review and hypotheses confirmation suggest practical ways to improve the newcomer experience. From a pragmatic point of view, various factors, including onboarding training, job characteristics, socialization tactics, and socialization agents, influence onboarding success. For this reason, organizations should design and develop newcomer programs using these guidelines. Should this not be the case, the time, money, and resources organizations devote to recruitment and selection will be meaningless. As discussed earlier, the anticipatory socialization phase is the key to a newcomer's success.

SRT suggests that newcomers should be provided with resources as soon as they enter the organization and prior to starting their work (Saks & Gruman, 2018). Therefore, it is imperative that organizations adopt a formal policy of allowing new employees into the workforce only after they experience onboarding. In most cases, it can begin with a quick phone call or welcome text to the new employee. As discussed previously, even experienced employees can quickly feel overwhelmed in a new organization. A buddy can help break the ice and help the employee socialize with their peers. Job descriptions, training guides, and employee evaluations must be updated to ensure all the essential elements of job characteristics are incorporated. There should be absolutely no compromise on on-the-job training (OJT). Well-structured orientation trainings are the cornerstone of an employee's longevity on the job. This is because new employees arrive at the organization from different backgrounds and experience levels. Formal structured training programs ensure employees are familiar with the organization's practices and expectations. When done right, these building blocks enhance newcomers' confidence in

their job abilities and inspire them to stay with the organization. This newly gained understanding can help organizations develop enterprise-wide strategies to successfully onboard new employees. Although the sample was obtained from MTurk since most hospitality organizations have a similar framework, the insights gained from this study can potentially be applied to other comparable organizations.

Limitations

All research studies have some limitations, and this study is no exception. First, this study obtained a sample from a crowdsourced survey platform. There are some limitations to using this approach, mainly because the sample obtained from online survey respondents may not necessarily represent the entire hospitality industry's characteristics. Since a non-probability sampling method was used, the generalizability of this study is questionable. Second, it is a known fact that respondents participating in a crowdsourced survey platform are usually computer literate participants. Some groups of respondents may be underrepresented or entirely omitted since they may not have an online presence and are hard to recruit for the survey. In the future, additional distribution channels like paper surveys, telephone, etc., should be considered to include newcomer groups that may be overlooked due to their limited access to technology and openness to survey participation. Third, the participants identified for this research are newcomers who have been employed for 12 months or less. As such, this study does not take into account feedback from more experienced employees. Another aspect to consider is how the data was collected. This study relied on the self-report data; the study could have additionally asked for feedback from the newcomer's supervisor to gain a 360-degree view of the newcomer's journey. Since the research design did not include data collection

from other sources (supervisors), there is a risk of common method bias (CMB). Although Harman's single factor test suggested that CMB was not an issue, some bias may innately exist. Due to the complexity of the model and the number of latent variables in the study, recruiting a larger sample is suggested to perform the SEM analysis. Another limitation of this study was the use of established scales that were not related to the hospitality industry. It is recommended that for future studies, researchers develop scales grounded on a review of literature specific to the hospitality industry or utilize established scales developed for research within the hospitality sector or the tourism industry.

Future research

As indicated earlier, it is recommended that future researchers consider respondents from multiple organizations and a representative population. The hospitality industry is not homogenous; for example, there is a wide range of offerings from limited service to luxury within hotel and resort operations. The newcomer onboarding at these organizations is innately different. Even within one sector, e.g., luxury hotels, the onboarding process within each department differ considerably. Another direction for future research is to consider an experiment (in place of a self-report survey) with a group of newcomers experiencing organizational onboarding (experimental group). In contrast, the other group does not experience any onboarding activities (control group). A comparison of the two groups will provide an understanding of the relationship between onboarding success and turnover intentions and its implications on the enterprise. Another aspect to consider is the research design. This study followed a cross-sectional design. Since socialization practices and newcomer adjustments are a longitudinal

phenomenon, a longitudinal design is recommended for future research. Another opportunity for future researchers is to consider the organization as a unit of analysis. This study did not represent supervisors, i.e., management personnel, a key group of employees in an organization. This group of employees is typically underrepresented in organizational behavior research since most research involves convenience sampling. Management employees are an integral part of hospitality operations but are quite often neglected during the onboarding process since many senior leaders assume that they will automatically fit into the organization's culture. It would also be interesting to see if the two proximal outcomes, occupational self-efficacy, and role clarity, influence each other, i.e., two-way interaction and their influence on turnover intention and the overall model. Another possibility for future research would be to study the role of two actors, notably supervisors and newcomers in a provider-recipient relationship, respectively, and its impact on onboarding success and turnover intentions. Understanding this relationship will significantly assist organizational leaders design effective onboarding programs. Lastly, future researchers may want to contrast specific education levels by dummy coding the education variable and treating it as a categorical variable. This will allow testing specific contrasts between education levels. To summarize, while there are some inherent limitations, the findings and discussions presented in this study can be used as a precursor for future scholarly work.

Conclusion

This research relied on previous studies focused on organizational socialization, onboarding, and turnover intention and utilized organizational behavior theories to understand better the effect of different socialization practices and onboarding on

newcomer adjustment and turnover intention. Although all the proposed hypotheses were not supported, the study results contribute to the literature. Specifically, the results highlight the importance of an onboarding program and its successful influence on newcomers. Recalling prior studies, it can be established that organizations need to integrate different socialization strategies to ensure onboarding success. Specifically, it is crucial to direct resources on orientation training and socialization tactics. It is time for the industry to take a paradigm shift and consider the contributions of two essential socialization practices. The newcomer's immediate supervisor and co-workers will continue to be the biggest influencers. Designing and building a program around them will drive the onboarding process in the right direction. Additionally, it is essential that organizations measure the impact of these activities. This will help justify the investment and provide ROI for ongoing discussions. The hospitality industry is typically a late entrant when it comes to technology and onboarding practices. Perhaps practitioners should look at other industries, viz., technology for inspiration.

Never before has the study of newcomer socialization and turnover been so important in the hospitality industry. Given the current business context, more employees are leaving the industry than ever before. Therefore, a robust onboarding process is critical to sustaining the changes. As the industry emerges out of the pandemic crisis, this study's contributions will be useful for practicing professionals.

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APPENDICES

Description of measures (scales)

Orientation training:

Orientation training was measured using a modified 5-items scale developed by Gupta et al. (2018). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Orientation Training	ot_1. In the orientation session, clear information was provided. ot_2. The information I received on benefits and policies on the first day of the job was helpful and complete. ot_3. The information I received on ethics and key human resources policies (e.g. equal opportunity, sexual harassment, etc.) was clear and helpful. ot_4. My manager/trainer was prepared for my arrival and I received appropriate details on the first day of my job. ot_5. The orientation program for new hires covered many issues and topics.	Gupta et al. (2018)

Job characteristics:

Job characteristics was measured using a 15-items scale developed by Morris and Venkatesh (2010). All items are rated on a 7-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = moderately agree, 7 = strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Job Characteristics	Skill variety jc_1. My job has variety (having variety means you are required to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and	Morris and Venkatesh (2010)

talents).
jc_2. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.
jc_3. The job is complex and non-repetitive.

Task identity
jc_4. My job involves doing a whole and identifiable piece of work (a whole and identifiable piece of work means a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning, and end rather than only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines).
jc_5. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I begin.
jc_6. The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.

Task significance
jc_7. My job is significant in general (a significant job means that the results of your work are likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people).
jc_8. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.
jc_9. The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.

Job autonomy
jc_10. I have autonomy in my job (having autonomy means that you are allowed to decide on your own how to go about doing the work).
jc_11. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
jc_12. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work.

Task feedback
jc_13. My job itself provides me with information about my work performance (that is, the actual work itself provide clues about how

	well I am doing - aside from any feedback coworkers or supervisors may provide). jc_14. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing. jc_15. After I finish a job, I know whether I performed well.

Socialization tactics:

Socialization tactics was measured using a 4-items scale developed by Gupta et al. (2018). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Socialization Tactics	Socialization st_1. I was satisfied with the support and information I received before my first day on the job. st_2. The information sent to me before my first day helped me know what to expect, where to go, and other key information needed on the day I reported to work. st_3. My manager/supervisor contacted me in advance of my first day and made me feel welcome. st_4. I had a helpful, knowledgeable point of contact for my questions before I reported to work.	Gupta et al (2018)

Socialization agents:

Socialization agents was measured using a modified 5-items scale developed by Gupta et al. (2018). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Socialization Agents	sa_1. I was welcomed by my buddy/mentor. sa_2. On my first day, my workspace was organized and I had everything that I needed to start working (or knew where to get it). sa_3. My supervisor quickly integrated me into the team *(e.g., lunch with coworkers, introduction at pre-shift meeting).* sa_4. The performance management system was clearly explained to me. sa_5. My supervisor/manager was helpful in providing me with information on my department's goals.	Gupta et al (2018)

Onboarding success:

Onboarding success was measured using a 5-items scale developed by Sharma, and Stol (2020). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Onboarding Success	os_1. The initial orientation program helped me feel less stressful about joining a new workplace. os_2. I got a good idea about the organizational culture during my onboarding. os_3. I clearly understand the expectations and responsibilities of my job. os_4. I am confident that I am capable of excelling in my job. os_5. I can say I am socially integrated in my workplace.	Sharma and Stol (2020)

Occupational self-efficacy:

Occupational self-efficacy was measured using a 6-items scale developed by Rigotti et al. (2008). All items are rated on a 6-point scale: 1 = not true at all, 2 = not very true, 3 = somewhat untrue, 4 = somewhat true, 5 = very true, 6 = completely true. High values reflect high occupational self-efficacy.

Construct	Items	Source
Occupational Self-efficacy	ose_1. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in my job because I can rely on my abilities. ose_2. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions. ose_3. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it. ose_4. My past experiences in my job have prepared me well for my occupational future. ose_5. I meet the goals that I set for myself in my job. ose_6. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.	Rigotti et al. (2008)

Role clarity:

Role clarity was measured using a 4-items scale developed by Lyons (1971). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = not clear at all, 2 = not clear, 3 = not sure, 4 = clear, 5 = perfectly clear.

Construct	Items	Source
Role Clarity	rc_1. How clear are you about the limits of your authority in your present job? rc_2. Do you feel you are always as clear as you would like to be about how you are supposed to do things on this job? rc_3. Do you feel you are always as clear as you would like to be about what you have to do on this job?	Lyons (1971)

	rc_4. In general, how clearly defined are the policies and the various rules and regulations of the workplace that affect your job?

Turnover intention:

Turnover intention was measured using a 3-items scale from Xu, and Payne (2014), which consists of scales from Cammann et al. (1983); Mayfield and Mayfield (2007). All items are rated on a 5-point scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. Responses are anchored from 1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree.

Construct	Items	Source
Turnover Intention	To what extent have you considered leaving your job due to/as a result of your onboarding experience: ti_1. I often think about quitting this job. ti_2. I will probably look for a new job during the next year. ti_3. I am actively looking for another job.	Xu and Payne (2014)

Demographic information

Gender:

- Male
- Female

Age:

- 18-22
- 23-38
- 39-54
- 55-73
- 74-91

Educational level:

- Grade school
- High school
- Technical diploma
- Some college
- Community college degree
- College degree
- Advanced degree

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