THE ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SOCIALIZEES'

ADJUSTMENT DURING THEIR ORGANIZATIONAL

ASSIMILATION: AN INTEGRATIVE STUDY

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The Antecedents and Consequences of Socializees' Adjustment During Their Organizational Assimilation: An Integrative Study

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Certificate of Originality

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it produces no material previously published or writt en, nor m aterial that has been acc epted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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ABSTRACT

Abstract of thesis entitled "The Antecedents and Consequences of Socializees' Adjustment During Their Organizational Assimilation: An Integrative Study"

Organizational assimilation (OA) refers to the process by which socializees or employees become integrated into their employment organization following their organizational entry. Neglecting to assimilate socializees has substantial negative consequences, with socializees often poorly adjusting to their job, role, cultural, and/or psychosocial systems, in turn leading to lower overall job satisfaction (OJS), poor overall job performance (OJP), and higher turnover intentions (TI). Given its importance, OA phenomenon has attracted the attention of scholars who use multiple approaches to address it. The use of multiple approaches and the lack of consistency in conceptualizing and measuring OA adjustment have, however, hampered the development of OA research and practice. This study proposed and tested a new mediation model of OA that posits that socializees' success-related OA consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI) are functions of causal antecedents, including organizational socialization tactics (OST) and core self-evaluation (CSE), and mediators comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. The study sought to explore and confirm the proposed OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective, and to test the effects of the proposed antecedents on the consequences both directly and indirectly.

A pilot study and a main study were conducted in which respondents filled out self-administered questionnaires. Eight star-rated, moderately priced, and luxury hotels participated in the pilot study, yielding 481 usable questionnaire copies, and 19 star-rated luxury hotels participated in the main study, yielding 704 usable copies. Organizational tenures in the main study were between 1 month and 2 years. Bootstrap SEM (structural equation modeling) was employed across both samples to develop both measurement and structural models. Direct and indirect hypotheses among the latent proposed constructs were tested based on the overall structural model of the main study.

The study's first contribution is the development of a new measurement model of OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective, which contributes new

(fitting in and standing out) and partly new (role negotiation) dimensions, while using some traditional dimensions (task mastery and organizational identification), thereby adding value to the literature, particularly since OA research has been hampered by the unsatisfactory psychometric properties of existing OA adjustment measures and by the contamination of study findings using these problematic measures.

The study's second contribution involves the individual and competing influences of OA antecedents on their respective adjustment dimensions and consequences. OST and CSE, when controlled by the other, predicted all five proposed mediators. The five adjustment dimensions in turn predicted (either significantly or not) their respective OA consequences depending on the given paths. Specifically, OJS was predicted by organizational identification but not the other four adjustment dimensions; OJP was predicted by all adjustment dimensions except role negotiation; and TI was predicted by task mastery, fitting in, and organizational identification, but not by role negotiation or standing out.

The study's third contribution lies in identifying the five mediating mechanisms of the adjustment dimensions. The six antecedent-consequence paths were OST-OJS, OST-OJP, OST-TI, CSE-OJS, CSE-OJP, and CSE-TI. Specifically, task mastery and fitting in mediated all paths except OST-OJS and CSE-OJS; standing out mediated OST-OJP and CSE-OJP; and organizational identification mediated all six paths. All mediators except role negotiation significantly mediated between two and six specific paths. Thus, the findings regarding the overall mediation model and the identified specific direct and indirect causal paths contribute substantially to OA theory and practice, thereby adding value, particularly considering the relative lack of theory in the OA domain and the fact that a "mediation model will likely pave the way to more holistic and inclusive models" of OA (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 21).

The study's fourth contribution is that the new OA adjustment measure and other validated measures could serve as diagnostic tools of socializee adjustment. Finally, this study's limitations and directions for future studies are also discussed.

Key Words: Organizational Assimilation; Adjustment; Organizational Socialization; Organizational Socialization Tactics; Core Self-evaluation; Job Satisfaction; Job Performance; Turnover Intention; Hotels; Hainan, China

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ORGANIZATION OF THE MANUSCRIPT AND
CHAPTER OVERVIEW

This dissertation comprises six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the context for the study by stating the research background, identifying research gaps, and addressing major issues pertaining to previous studies in the organizational assimilation (OA) field. An integrative research framework (Figure 1) follows, and the study's research questions stemming from it are presented. Chapter 1 additionally discusses briefly the study's theoretical and practical significance, followed by introductions of the study's assumptions and key terms.

Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature by introducing and critiquing the major approaches and key phases in the evolution of studying the OA phenomenon. A secondary issue, namely the timing issue, pertaining to the OA phenomenon is outlined and discussed. Finally, OA studies in China and in the domain of tourism and hospitality are reviewed and critiqued. Chapter 3 specifically reviews in greater detail the theoretical and empirical works pertaining to the study's new mediation model of OA. A series of hypotheses are developed regarding the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions, as well as the direct and indirect causal relationships among the latent constructs included in the new mediation model.

Chapter 4 presents the study's methodological particulars, including research design, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis techniques, among other relevant matters, noting that, for example, the study comprises two substudies, a pilot and a main study. Accordingly, Chapter 5 presents the study's results based on statistical analyses of the main study's data. On the basis of these findings, hypotheses regarding OA adjustment dimensionality and the direct and indirect causal relationships among the selected OA antecedents, mediators, and consequences are tested and presented therein. Finally, Chapter 6 discusses the study's findings in terms of how they relate to and/or contribute to the body of OA literature. It further discusses practical and theoretical implications, followed by acknowledging limitations, providing suggestions for future studies, and drawing conclusions.

ABBREVIATIONS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BC	Bias Corrected
CSE	Core Self-evaluation
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CI	Confidence Interval
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GOF	Goodness-of-fit
GFI	Goodness-of-fit Index
HRD	Human Resource Development
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
ILoC	Internal Locus of Control
ML	Maximum Likelihood
OA	Organizational Assimilation
OJS	Overall Job Satisfaction
OJP	Overall Job Performance
OST	Organizational Socialization Tactics
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
TI	Turnover Intention

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the context for the study by reviewing background information and outlining some major issues in, and approaches of, previous research on employee organizational assimilation (OA). An integrative conceptual framework is then proposed based on the rationale for research in the OA field, and is used to derive the study's research purpose as well as its research questions. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of the study's significance, followed by a statement of the research assumptions and definition of the key terms adapted or adopted in the study.

1.1 Background Information

Organizational assimilation (OA) typically refers to the process by which socializees[1] become integrated into their employment organization through either "role taking" or "role making" following their entry into a given organization (e.g., Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Feldman, 1981; Jablin, 1982, 2001; Louis, 1990; Myers & McPhee, 2006).[2] OA has attracted much theoretical and empirical attention thus far. Among existing OA efforts, some have delved into the newcomer OA phenomenon only, with the premise that an individual's OA process lasts only for a certain period following his or her organizational entry (e.g., Lam, 2003; Saks & Ashforth, 2000; Song & Chathoth, 2010, 2010, in press). Others, however, have chosen to regard OA as an ongoing process by which socializees, regardless of their newness or oldness to the organization, are considered to assimilate over time (e.g., Jablin, 1982; Myers & Oetzel, 2003; Waldeck, Seibold, & Flanagin, 2004; Yang, 2009, in press). The assumption underlying this stream is that the OA process lasts as long as one's organizational tenure. Still others (e.g., Gundry, 1993; Klynn, 2001; Kowtha, 2008; McNatt & Judge, 2008; Morrison & Vancouver, 1997; Reio & Wiswell, 2000) fall somewhere between the

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[1] *Socializees* denotes employees who are being socialized into their employment organization. They can be either newcomers or veterans whenever they need to be assimilated or reassimilated.
[2] Although there has been no universally accepted definition of OA, this study proposes a working definition for the sake of readability.

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above two streams, such that socializee tenure in their study samples ranges from less than 1 month to 3 or 4 years, in the belief that such relatively early OA experiences have more theoretical and practical implications than do the relatively later stages of one's OA experiences.

OA is an important issue for both employees and organizations for at least three noteworthy reasons. First, individuals adjust quickly in the early stages of their assimilation into an organization, with early adjustment having lasting influences and quantifiable outcomes (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Chen & Klimoski, 2003). Neglecting to socialize incumbents, especially newcomers, has been shown to have substantially negative impacts, with recruits frequently afflicted by hindrance stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict. These stressors in turn are associated with poor work attitudes, such as job dissatisfaction, and negative behaviors, such as high turnover (e.g., Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Katz, 1985; Wanous & Colella, 1989).

Second, an individual needs to learn continuously how to function in the workplace during his or her role transition (Feldman, 1976; Louis, 1990). This requires the individual to master the basic knowledge, skills, and attitudes of a job, build relationships with coworkers, customers, and others, and learn the values and norms in the organization (Louis, 1990). In other words, to function effectively in an organizational setting, employees must continuously adapt themselves to different but related systems, some of which are job or role related (e.g., task mastery), others organizational-culture related (e.g., culturally fitting in), and still others psychosocially related (e.g., organizational identification). An individual's ongoing adjustment into such an organizational system comprises the agenda of his or her OA experiences (Feldman, 1981; Louis, 1990; Schein, 1968).

Third, contemporary organizations are dynamic and open systems that face many challenges, experience varieties of procedural and structural changes, and have witnessed the increased frequency of workplace management interventions such as mergers and acquisitions (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Waldeck et al., 2004). Under such circumstances, all contemporary organizational members, including both newcomers and veterans, must frequently adapt, cope, learn, assimilate, and reassimilate so as to keep pace with the ever-changing organizational environment

(Waldeck et al., 2004). Moreover, it is well known that the turnover rate of organizational employees is increasing in many industries, such as hospitality (e.g., Zuber, 2001). This is partly because today's employees choose to change their jobs and employers proactively as a means of achieving their personal career goals, rather than accept organizationally directed career paths (Hall, 2004). All these factors make OA an increasingly common phenomenon for employers and employees alike.

Given its importance, the OA phenomenon has attracted the attention of many scholars, and it continues to be an interesting and promising avenue of research (Bauer, Bodner, Tucker, Erdogan, & Truxillo, 2007). For example, organizational socialization tactics (OST)—what the organization does for newcomers in an attempt to structure their OA experience (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979)—has been one of the most popular and often studied topics in the OA field. In the past two decades, over 30 studies have investigated OST, contributing substantially to people's understanding of the organization's role in assimilating its socializees (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). Existing research in the OA field has generally contributed to our knowledge and understanding of the OA phenomenon, lending important practical and theoretical implications (Bauer & Elder, 2006; Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

1.2 Major Issues of OA

Despite the strides made in OA research, the literature on OA has often been described as somewhat fragmented and poorly understood (Bauer et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Wanous & Colella, 1989). To date, a number of unresolved issues have emerged in the OA field. This study outlines four major issues relevant to the study, to name but a few: (a) the lack of theory, (b) multiple approaches to the same OA phenomenon, (c) a lack of consistency in measuring OA adjustment, and (d) multiple terminologies for some key OA constructs.[3] In the sections that follow, these issues are introduced and briefly discussed as a basis for the study's research questions.

1.2.1 The Issue of a Relative Lack of Theory

One major problem in the OA field concerns the issue of a relative lack of theory (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In their review of the OA literature, Saks and Ashforth (1997), for

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[3] This terminology issue is detailed later in section 1.7, *Defining the Key Constructs in the Study.*

example, argued that "there does not exist a theory" (p. 235) in OA, noting that a number of variable analytic studies have been done of the same OA phenomenon. They further noted the relative lack of a coherent and sound theory that integrates the major concepts and processes of OA. Generally, it can be said that the relative lack of theory remains an issue today, although several studies have been undertaken in the OA field (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

1.2.2 Multiple Approaches to Studying OA

Partly rooted in this relative lack of theory, multiple approaches have appeared to studying the same OA phenomenon. A review of the literature indicates that five major approaches appear to be the leading perspectives in OA research. They are (a) the stage model approach, (b) the OST approach, (c) the individual differences approach, (d) the adjustment approach, and (e) the integrative approach. These approaches are briefly introduced next.

The Stage Model Approach. Prior to 1986, numerous scholars had proposed "stage models" (e.g., Feldman, 1976; Jablin, 1982; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976) to explain the sequence and timing of changes that take place during an individual's transition from outsider to insider (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998). By and large, these models suggested four distinct phases within the OA process: (a) anticipation, (b) encounter, (c) adaptation, and (d) stabilization (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Fisher, 1986). Further, some stage model researchers (e.g., Jablin, 1982) theorized that OA is generally composed of two processes: role taking and role making. Whereas the former denotes an individual's learning about and adjusting to others' expectations of the critical elements of a particular role and appropriate performance (Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978; Jablin, 1982), the latter refers to an individual's pursuing his or her own expectations of a given role's purpose and the manner in which he or she is to be enacted and evaluated (Graen, 1976; Jablin, 1982, 2001; Waldeck & Myers, 2007). In addition, stage model researchers also initially and conceptually identified some indictors that are specific and proximal to the OA process such as task mastery (Feldman, 1981) and acculturation (Louis, 1990). Such indicators have often been categorized under the umbrella of *adjustment* by some OA researchers (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). Besides these proximal indictors, stage model researchers consistently investigated variables

such as job satisfaction that are distal to the OA process. Such distal outcomes are also referred to as the consequences of OA adjustment in this study.

Organizational Socialization Tactics (OST). The OST approach involves examining the tactics employed by organizations to structure the organizational socialization experience of employees (Saks et al., 2007). This is known as the situationist approach to understanding OA, which emphasizes organizational factors. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) developed the OST theoretical model and defined OST as "the ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organization" (p. 230). Thus far, this has been one of the best developed approaches to have received the most empirical attention in OA studies (Saks et al., 2007).

The Individual Differences Approach. Alternatively, OA researchers (e.g., Fisher, 1986; Jones, 1983) in the 1980s began to hypothesize a role for the socializees themselves in their OA experiences. This is referred to as the individual differences approach, within which socializees are regarded as both reactive and proactive agents; additionally, personal factors are hypothesized to be predictive of a number of OA adjustment and outcome variables (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). According to Ashforth et al. (2007), this approach spans a wide range of personal factors—sociodemographic attributes (work experiences and gender), personality traits (e.g., self-efficacy), personal attributes (e.g., values, beliefs, and attitudes), and behavioral proactivity (e.g., information seeking and relationship building), among many others. Reviews of OA research (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Fisher, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) have summarized a number of individual differences that have been considered the antecedents of OA adjustment and consequences. Socializees' behavioral proactivity, such as information seeking, has been empirically found to be predictive of a number of OA proximal and distal outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007). Another example of an individual differences variable is the *core self-evaluation* (CSE) of a socializee, that is, "a basic and fundamental appraisal of worthiness, effectiveness, and capability as a person" (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thorensen, 2003, p. 304). Although empirical evidence on socializee CSE has been lacking in the OA domain, CSE is postulated to have a holistic and strong influence on OA adjustment and consequences (Ashforth et al., 2007).

The Adjustment Approach. The fourth major approach to studying the OA phenomenon concerns the content area of OA, [4] which refers to that which is specifically and actually learned, changed, or adapted to during a socializee's OA process. In fact, these adjustments are indictors that reveal the extent to which the socializee has adjusted to the task, role, and culture in his or her employment organization (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Fisher, 1986). The importance of the OA adjustment approach to understanding OA cannot be overemphasized for one notable reason: Many scholars argue that OA adjustment lies at the heart of any OA model (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Chao et al., 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

The Integrative Approach. Any one of the foregoing four OA approaches discussed so far is limited in scope, such that any one alone in an OA study cannot capture OA dynamics comprehensively (Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2006; Song & Chathoth, 2010). To address this shortcoming, the integrative approach seeks to incorporate the useful and valuable elements from each of the foregoing approaches. This approach therefore posits that OA influencing factors both in the organization and in the person have an impact on a socializee's organizational attitudes and behaviors (i.e., OA consequences such as OJS, OJP, and turnover) both directly and indirectly through OA adjustments such as task mastery and role clarity (Bauer et al., 2007; Chatman, 1989; Lewin, 1951; Moos, 1973; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

By taking the integrative approach, Bauer et al. (2007), for example, performed a meta-analysis of 70 existing OA-related studies. In doing so, they successfully tested a new mediation model in which adjustment in terms of role clarity, task specific self-efficacy, and social acceptance mediated the effects of OST and information seeking on OA consequences, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, intention to stay, and turnover. In fact, Bauer et al.'s (2007) study is remarkable in that they took the integrative approach to studying the OA phenomenon and thereby captured the dynamics of OA far more comprehensively than any single empirical study has ever done in the OA field.

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[4]Alternatively, the *content area* of OA has been labeled *newcomer learning* (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007), OA adjustment (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007), the *organizational assimilation index* (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), and the *organizational socialization inventory* (e.g., Taormina, 1994), among others. Following Bauer et al. (2007), this study uses the term OA *adjustment*.

1.2.3 Inconsistencies in Measuring OA Adjustment

The third major issue in the OA literature concerns the lack of consistency in conceptualizing and measuring OA adjustment. According to Ashforth et al. (2007), multiple OA adjustment typologies (Chao et al., 1994; Fisher, 1986; Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003; Morrison, 1993b, 1995; Myers & Oetzel, 2003; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Taormina, 1994, 1997; Thomas & Anderson, 1998) have been proposed and tested for capturing the dynamics of OA adjustment thus far. A review of the OA adjustment literature has confirmed Ashforth et al.'s foregoing observation on OA adjustment studies. Although there has been much less consensus on how the adjustment construct should be conceptualized and measured, existing research into adjustment dimensions has largely fallen into four typologies, namely task (e.g., adjustment to job task, contributed by Haueter et al., 2003), role (e.g., role negotiation, contributed by Myers & Oetzel, 2003), cultural (e.g., goals and values, contributed by Chao et al., 1994), and psychosocial (e.g., future prospects, contributed by Taormina, 1994) aspects. In fact, these different typologies of OA adjustment are rooted in two different but related perspectives: the learning perspective and the role taking/role making perspective.

The Learning Perspective. According to Fisher (1986), OA adjustment is conceptualized as a learning process by which a socializee's adjustment status is assumed to be reflected by how well he or she has learned, in a given space and time, his or her employment organizational systems such as task, role, culture, and psychosocial aspects, among others. Within this conceptualization, a number of socializee learning measures have been developed and used, among which Chao et al.'s (1994) socialization content measure—comprising performance proficiency, goals and values, people, organizational history, politics, and language—has received the most empirical attention (Ashforth et al., 2007). In this vein, a socializee is actually viewed as a somewhat passive agent who usually changes himself or herself by role taking in order to fit into the new organizational environment.

The Role Taking/Role Making Perspective. Unlike Fisher (1986), Jablin (1982, 2001) alternatively conceptualized OA as both a role taking and a role making process, by which an individual is viewed as both a passive and an active agent. Within

this conceptualization, organizational members, especially newcomers/outsiders, are required or expected to be "just like everybody else," while distinguishing themselves from other organizational outsiders and insiders. Thus far, only one OA adjustment measure has taken this role taking/role making approach, namely, the assimilation index by Myers and Oetzel (2003). This measure includes not only role taking elements such as supervisor familiarity and job competency, but also role making elements such as role negotiation.

1.3 Research Gaps in the OA Literature

Along with the foregoing OA issues, the OA literature has a number of research gaps or limitations that hamper OA research and practice. This study hereby identifies three major gaps: (a) a measurement model of OA adjustment; (b) the respective research gaps in each of the first four OA approaches, namely the OA stage model, the OST, individual differences, and OA adjustment approaches; and (c) research gaps in the integrative approach, comprising the absence of some important OA constructs, the unknown causal relationships among some key OA constructs, and the unknown generalizability of some findings regarding causal linkages among key latent OA constructs. These three major gaps are detailed in the following sections.

1.3.1 Gaps in the Measurement Models of OA Adjustment

Although it is increasingly understood that OA adjustment is the "heart" or "backbone" of the OA phenomenon, there has been much less agreement on how the adjustment should be conceptualized and measured (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Harrison et al., 2004). As a result, OA adjustment is considered to have a number of gaps, as follows:

The first limitation or gap involves the psychometric properties of the existing OA adjustment measures. Overall, none of these measures exhibits excellent levels of psychometric properties. For example, the most frequently used OA adjustment measure is Chao et al.'s (1994) content area of socialization, whose model fit indices are only marginally acceptable: GFI = .78, TLI = .79, CFI = .80, and RMSEA = .07 (Taormina, 2004).

Furthermore, Taormina (2004) identified four of Chao et al.'s (1994) six content domains as loading on only one of Taormina's (1994) four socialization inventory measures. This calls the factor structure of Chao et al.'s measure into question (Ashforth et al., 2007). One major implication to be drawn from this finding is that Chao et al.'s adjustment measure, like many other adjustment measures, essentially neglects some important OA adjustment dimensions, such as role clarity, social acceptance, and fit perception, that have been identified and meta-analyzed by Bauer et al. (2007) and Saks et al. (2007). Relatedly, an additional implication can also be drawn, namely, that the argument over OA adjustment dimensions could be extended to also exploring and/or confirming important and neglected adjustment dimensions, including task mastery, "fitting in," "standing out," role negotiation, and organizational identification.

The second limitation concerns the conceptualization of OA adjustment. To date, most OA adjustment measures have conceptualized and operationalized OA adjustment as a learning process. As noted by Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006), learning—a means to an end—in itself does not transform a socializee from an outsider to an insider; rather, it is what is achieved with learning that defines his or her OA transformation. This would suggest that OA adjustment should be conceptualized more broadly and appropriately, taking into consideration more indictors such as what has been achieved by transfer of learning (e.g., role negotiation, culturally fitting in), in addition to learning itself (e.g., acquisition of knowledge). Although Myers and Oetzel (2003) took an alternative approach—that is, role taking and role making—to conceptualize and measure OA adjustment, the six factors of this measure hovered around .70, with some (e.g., job competency) being lower than .70 and others (e.g., role negotiation) being lower than .60.

In view of the above, it is necessary that new OA adjustment measures be developed by taking the integrative approach, since the need is urgent for research that focuses on identifying adjustment dimensions that are proximal to the OA process (Ashforth et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986; Kammeyer-Mueller, 2002). This need is particularly felt because OA findings, which have been approached using OA adjustment measures, have been described as being contaminated on account of problematic and inconsistent OA adjustment measures from the learning perspective (Ashforth et al., 2007). Without

valid and reliable instrumentation, researchers are limited in their ability to reach conclusions and prescriptions about socializees' adjustment problems in the course of their OA, because there will always be questions about the extent to which measurement error has contaminated the findings (Song, Mavrides, Holton, & Bates, 2006).

1.3.2 Gaps in the First Four Approaches to Studying OA

As noted above, partly rooted in the foregoing relative lack of theory issue, multiple approaches or lenses have emerged to studying the same OA phenomenon. But whereas using these diversified lenses may help generate additional novel insights into the dynamics of OA, such diversified approaches may also present an obstacle to integrative dialogue and development in OA research. In fact, to a certain degree, OA research and practice have been hampered by the issue of multiple approaches (e.g., Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

With only a few exceptions (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Griffin et al., 2000; Gruman et al., 2006), OA literature has been criticized for being somewhat misled by the stage model approach, for overemphasizing the situationist approach (e.g., OST), for somewhat ignoring the role of individual differences (e.g., CSE), and for rarely taking a more comprehensive approach that considers both direct and indirect effects among OA constructs (Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986; Griffin et al., 2000; Gruman et al., 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Saks et al., 2007). More specifically, each of the first four approaches—the stage model approach, the OST approach, the individual approach, and the adjustment approach—has been considered to have research gaps relevant to this study.

The Limitations of OA Stage Models. The stage model approach has many limitations. To name a few, Smith and Turner (1995) contended that stage models are "more likely to disable than enable efforts to generate understanding" (p. 173) of the OA phenomenon, noting, for example, that they have many limitations such as inaccurately depicting assimilation processes as linear. For example, it has become something of a convention to assume that the organizational encounter or entry stage ends sometime between 3 and 6 months after a newcomer has been employed in an organization (Jablin, 2001). In reality, however, this convention may not be necessarily

true for all socializees. In this respect, research (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) has suggested that for some socializees, certain aspects of OA happen very quickly, and that within days of their initial employment some patterns of behavior and attitudes already stabilize. This argument concurs with Fisher's (1986) comment: "There is no evidence that distinct stages are the same in terms of order, duration, and content for all jobs or all people" (p. 119). As a result, stage models have received little empirical attention in the past two decades (Waldeck & Myers, 2007). This might be attributable in part to the ascendance of other alternatives, such as OST, in understanding the same OA phenomenon (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Research Gaps in the OST Approach.   OST is known as one of the best developed approaches in the OA domain (Saks et al., 2007), it is still considered, however, to have several research gaps. The most notable gap concerns Jones' (1986) OST measure, which presents multiple factor structures. A review of the literature indicates that OST has emerged as a one (Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005), three (e.g., Cable & Parsons, 2001), or six (Wells, 2006) first-order factor(s). It has also presented itself as a single second-order factor with several first-order factors (e.g., Klynn, 2001). The secondary gap in the OST approach concerns its causal relationships with certain other OA constructs. For example, it remains unknown whether OST is related to a socializee's culturally fitting in or standing out. An additional secondary gap in the OST approach is that its role has been overemphasized such that its competing influences with CSE have never been documented in the OA literature.

Research Gaps in the Individual Differences Approach.   Compared with the OST approach, the individual differences approach has received far less empirical attention (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Saks et al., 2007). Within this approach, socializee behavioral proactivity, such as information seeking, has received sufficient empirical attention (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007). According to Ashforth et al. (2007), much less attention has been paid to socializee cognitive and emotional proactivity, which is highly correlated to the CSE construct. CSE is a latent construct measured by an amalgam of generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability (Judge et al., 2003). A notable gap in the individual differences approach is that no study to date has provided empirical evidence on CSE or its influence on OA proximal and distal outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2007), although it has been postulated to have a strong and holistic influence on socializees' OA

experiences (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Research Gaps in the OA Adjustment Approach. With regard to the adjustment approach, the limitations lie not only in the lack of agreement over how OA adjustment should be conceptualized and measured, but also in the fact that exploring and confirming the mediating roles of OA adjustment in the OA experience are still in the infancy stage. As articulated by Ashforth et al. (2007), mediation needs to be more thoroughly investigated in a variety of settings and among a variety of OA constructs. Moreover, a couple of notable gaps among studies examining mediation mechanisms in the OA phenomenon are the rare occurrence of multiple mediation studies in the OA domain, as well as the common omission of some putative specific mediators among those OA studies detecting mediation effect(s). According to Preacher and Hayes (2008), the likelihood of parameter bias resulting from omitted mediators is reduced when multiple putative mediators are simultaneously presented in a multiple mediation model. This suggests that both potential and existing OA mediators in the OA field should be simultaneously tested using multiple mediation techniques.

1.3.3 Gaps in the Integrative Approach

In fact, the foregoing OA problems are further compounded by the relative lack of an organic integration of the multiple approaches that have emerged in the OA domain (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Saks et al., 2007). Several notable gaps remain in the integrative approach, although significant progress has been made by two meta-analytical integrative studies contributed by Saks et al. (2007) and Bauer et al. (2007). These include (a) the absence of some key OA constructs in the existing OA integrative models, (b) unknown causal relationships among key OA latent constructs, and (c) the unknown generalizability of some existing OA findings.

Absence of Some Key OA Constructs. Among the existing OA integrative models, some important constructs such as CSE (an important antecedent of OA) and culturally fitting in and standing out (potential OA adjustment dimensions) have been excluded for three main reasons. First, these neglected constructs are new to OA researchers. Second, at an operational level, some neglected constructs such as fitting in have no existing measurement tools developed from a quantitative perspective. And third, the number of studies that have examined certain constructs of OA, such as task

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mastery, is too small to be included in any meta-analytic study. One consequence of failing to integrate the CSE construct into a given integrative model is an overemphasis on the organizational factors influencing a socializee's OA experiences. Likewise, the failure to include some putative mediators, such as task mastery, in a given multiple mediation model of OA is likely to result in conceptually incomplete findings pertaining to the multiple mediating effects inherent in the OA phenomenon.

Unknown Causalities Among Key OA Constructs. The failure to integrate the foregoing latent OA constructs has further led to not knowing certain causal paths among OA constructs. Among OA antecedent-adjustment relationships, CSE-fitting in, OST-standing out, and CSE-role negotiation, among others, have been unknown thus far. Likewise, among OA adjustment-consequence relationships, the relationship between fitting in and OJS, for instance, has also been unknown, since fitting in has been excluded in all existing OA quantitative models. Furthermore, for the same reasons, some causal relationships between OA antecedents and consequences, such as the CSE-TI relation, have never been documented in the OA literature.

Unknown Generalizability of Some Existing OA Findings. Despite the fact that some causal hypotheses have been substantiated in Western samples, it remains unknown whether these same hypotheses can be supported in the Chinese context on account of national cultural differences. Whereas Chinese national culture is more collectivist oriented, the national culture in the West is more individualist oriented. The Chinese collectivist approach to organizational socialization tends to be more personal than what is practiced in the West (Taormina and Bauer, 2000). Specifically, Taormina and Bauer (2000), for example, made a comparison, between US and Hong Kong samples, on socializees' perceptions on proximal outcomes (i.e., perception of coworker support) and distal outcomes (such as job satisfaction). They noted that, for instance, in terms of satisfaction with co-worker, co-worker support was the only predictor in both cultures; and that differences between cultures also appear: for example, in predicting satisfaction with pay, *understanding* was the only predictor; while *future prospect* was the only predictor in the Hong Kong sample.

In the context of the present study, it is still unknown whether OST-job performance substantiated in Western samples (Saks et al., 2007) would apply to Chinese samples as well. Additionally, it remains unknown whether the same causality between OST and

job performance can be generalized to a population dominated by socializees whose educational levels are relatively low, particularly considering that OA researchers have tended to concentrate on the same few occupations or industries using well-educated, white-collar samples (Ashforth et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986). In short, validations of existing OA causal findings across cultures and across professions are necessary and valuable for the sake of generalizability.

1.4 Research Questions

By building on previous studies in the OA field with the objective of narrowing the above-noted gaps, this study proposes and tests an integrative mediation model of OA (Figure 1). The model proposes that the success-related OA consequences (i.e., higher OJS, higher OJP, and lower TI) are functions of causal antecedents (i.e., OST and CSE) and mediators (i.e., the five adjustment dimensions proposed in this study). Specifically, two major goals have been set for this particular study. One is to explore and confirm OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective; the other is to test the effects of the proposed antecedents (OST and CSE) on the consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI) both directly and indirectly (via the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions).

To reach these goals, two related substudies—a pilot study and a main study—were conducted. Whereas the pilot study was undertaken mainly to explore and identify the desired measurement models for this study, the main study was conducted to confirm those factors identified in the pilot study and detect causal relationships among the proposed latent constructs. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to develop statistically sound and theoretically driven measurement and structural models. The following sections address research questions regarding the dimensionality of OA adjustment and the causal direct and indirect relationships among the OA adjustment dimensions and their proposed antecedents and consequences. Specifically, the research questions included the following:

1. Do the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions—task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification—present themselves as a set of distinct and correlated first-order factors?
2. Are each of the proposed adjustment factors significantly predicted by the selected

antecedents of CSE and OST, respectively?

3. Does each of the OA adjustment factors respectively affect each of the consequences, namely, OJS, OJP, and TI?

4. Does each of the antecedents of CSE and OST significantly predict each of the consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI), respectively?

5. Does each of the proposed OA adjustment dimensions or factors mediate the relationship between each of the selected OA antecedents and consequences?

Antecedents   **Adjustment Dimensions**   **Consequences**

Task Mastery

OST

Fitting In

OJS

Standing Out

CSE

OJP

Role Negotiation

Organizational
Identification

TI
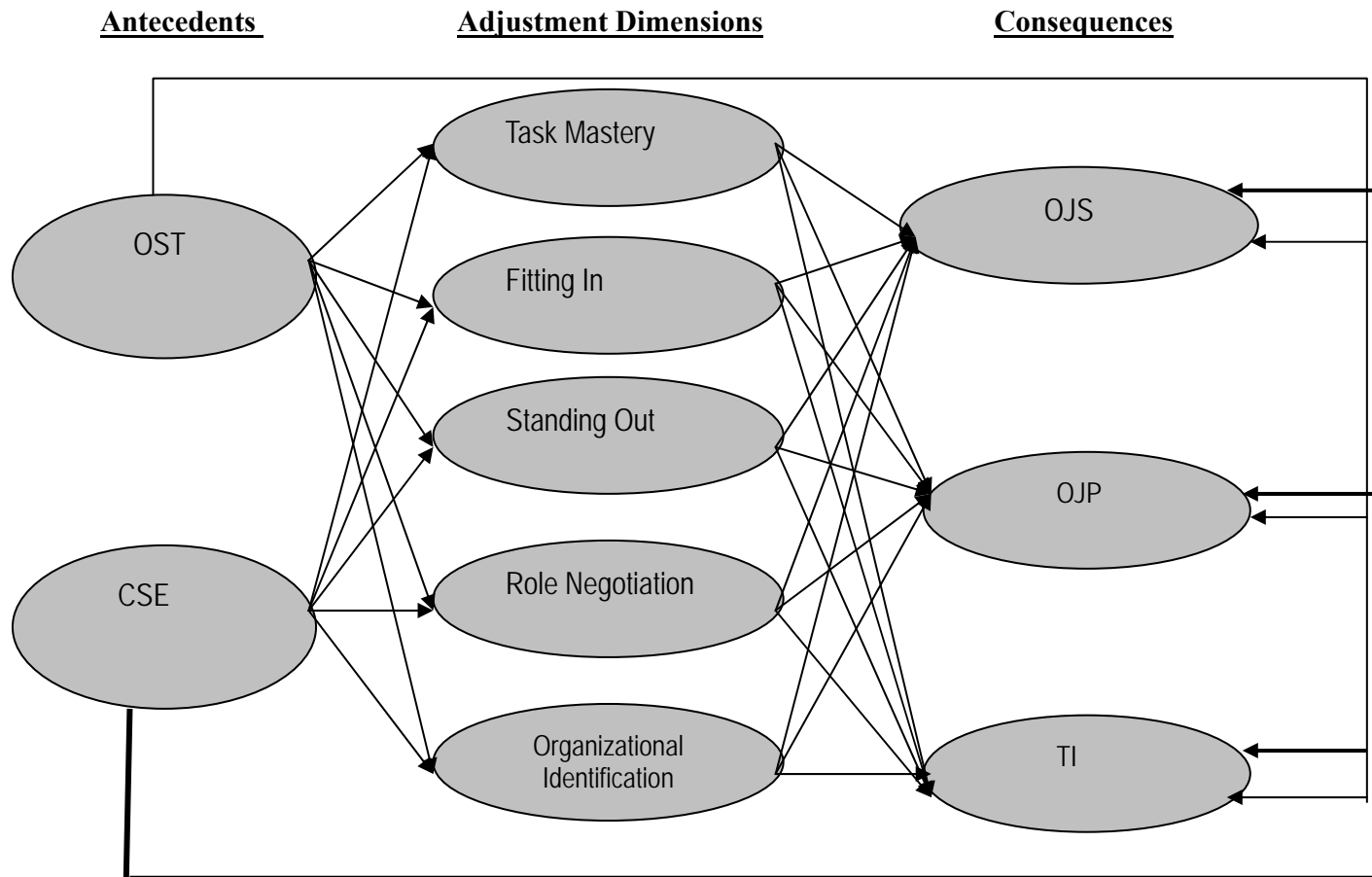
Figure 1 Overall Conceptual Framework for the Study

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1.5 Significance of the Study

To date, most empirical OA studies have focused on either the organizational (e.g., OST) level or the personal level (e.g., a socializee's information seeking, although OA experiences are influenced by both organizational and personal factors. This study therefore integrates the two approaches by simultaneously examining the roles of OST and CSE in a socializee's OA experiences. It then follows that the competing influences—between the two OA antecedents on OA proximal (i.e., adjustment dimensions such as task mastery) and distal (i.e., OA consequences such as OJS) outcomes—could enable this study to generate additional novel insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon. So doing would be even more valuable considering that, to the author's knowledge, empirical evidence for CSE's role in predicting both socializee adjustment and its consequences has been lacking thus far.

The second significance and value of this study lies in its theoretical proposal and empirical testing of a new multiple mediation model of OA, in which five OA dimensions function as specific mediators in the relationship between each of the OA antecedents (CSE and OST) and consequences (OJS, OJP, TI). In doing so, the study aimed to address a major limitation of OA research, namely, that OA empirical studies have examined the direct effect of OA antecedents (e.g., OST) on consequences (e.g., OJP), even though in reality these effects may not always be straightforward and may even be indirect. In this regard, this study has taken a step further to investigate both the direct and indirect effects of OST and CSE on OA consequences in terms of OJS, OJP, and TI. In particular, these indirect effects are hypothesized to be transmitted by the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions: task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. In fact, these indirect effects among the selected latent constructs have never been documented elsewhere in the literature. Thus, the findings regarding the well-fitted overall mediation model as well as each of the direct and indirect causal paths identified and presented in this study contribute substantially to OA theory and practice. Jointly, these contributions are believed to help explain socializees' OA experiences far more comprehensively than previous results. Such contributions are valuable because of the relative lack of theory in the OA domain (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and because a "mediation model will likely pave the way to more holistic and inclusive models" of

OA (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 21).

The third major contribution of the study relates to the development of a new measurement model of OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective. This newly proposed and validated OA adjustment measure contributes new (fitting in and standing out) and partly new (role negotiation) dimensions, while simultaneously still using some traditional good dimensions (task mastery and organizational identification). This contribution is also of value, particularly considering that OA research has been hampered by the unsatisfactory psychometric properties of the existing OA adjustment measures in the OA literature (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Taormina, 2004), and that using these problematic OA adjustment measures have greatly contaminated study findings (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Finally, one notable contribution of this study from a practitioner's perspective is that the new OA adjustment measures and the other OA antecedent and consequence measures validated in this study could serve as diagnostic tools. In a given situation, if a socializee, for example, is about equal in all adjustment areas but one, a deficiency in that area may indicate a specific problem (Chao et al., 1994). The validated measurement scales in this study could be used effectively to capture, diagnose, and manage socializee problems in order to capitalize continuously on the process and outcomes of assimilating socializees in the organizational context.

1.6 Assumptions of the Study

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to state the assumptions of this study. First, at any cross-sectional point of time, both organizational (e.g., OST) and personal (e.g., CSE) factors are assumed to have direct and/or indirect—via the OA adjustment dimensions—effects on socializees' concurrently perceived OA consequences (e.g., job satisfaction), depending on specific situations. Second, it should be stressed that OA adjustment is essentially a multidimensional phenomenon (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007). It is likely that a number of indicators can be regarded as being proximal and specific to socializees' OA process. This study does not include all relevant OA adjustment dimensions, but instead concentrates on what appear to be some of the most basic and important dimensions that have been neglected in research related to OA.

Third, this study was aimed at investigating the dimensions of the OA adjustment process, rather than the adjustment process itself, for one reason. Traditionally, OA research has attempted to develop process models of OA from the perspective of the stage model approach, which assumes that a socializee's OA process is linear such that, in a given situation, old-timers should be better assimilated than newcomers. But this assumption is regarded as somewhat misleading because of the increasingly acknowledged fact that OA is essentially ongoing and lasts as long as one's organizational tenure (e.g., Myers & McPhee, 2006). Bauer et al. (2007) have made one additional pessimistic comment on the stage model, arguing that "stage models are not true 'process' models because such models [are] focused largely on the sequence of what occurs during OA, relatively neglecting how those changes occur" (p. 153). To work around the limitations of the stage model approach, Myers and Oetzel (2003) alternatively took the adjustment approach by attempting to identify and confirm the dimensions of OA adjustment, rather than study the adjustment process itself. Following Myers and Oetzel, this study has chosen to delve into the dimensionality of the OA process, rather than investigating the adjustment process itself.

1.7 Defining Key Constructs in the Study

One notable manifestation of the multiplicity issue lies in the tendency of different scholars to term some of the key constructs of OA differently, as a result of which diversified terminologies have been used in OA-related research. This reflects the issue of multiple terminologies in the OA literature, as mentioned earlier in section 1.2, *Major Issues of OA*, and is detailed here.

An overview of the literature indicates that OA has been the topic of interest across a number of disciplines: organizational behavior (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1997), communication science (e.g., Jablin, 1982), industrial and organizational psychology (e.g., Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006), human resources management (e.g., Bauer et al., 1998; Fisher, 1986), and administrative science (e.g., Feldman, 1976), among others. Whereas using these diversified lenses to study the OA phenomenon may help generate additional novel insights into the dynamics of OA, such diversified approaches may also present an obstacle to integrative dialogue and development in OA research in that different scholars have tended to term some of the same OA constructs quite differently.

According to Kramer and Miller (1999), the term *organizational assimilation* commonly encompasses a number of related and often interchangeable constructs. Some scholars have regarded socializees as passive agents and emphasize the socializers'[5] influence on an individual's OA process and outcomes. Most of these scholars (e.g., Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) have used the term *organizational socialization*, which may refer to the process by which individuals learn the values, norms, and required behaviors that allow them to participate as members of organizations (Louis, 1980). But the term socialization as well as its definition fails to acknowledge how socializees actively innovate and create roles for themselves within the organization (Waldeck & Myers, 2007). Thus, other scholars (e.g., Graen, 1976; Jablin, 1982; Katz & Kahn, 1966; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975) have coined the term *individualization* to characterize the other side of OA experiences aimed at achieving OA-related success, such as role innovation, as opposed to simple conformity with an organization's existing role systems.

An alternative term for socialization is *role taking*, while an alternative term for individualization is *role making*. In view of these alternative terminologies that have emerged in the OA literature, organizational communication scholars have often regarded socialization as role taking and individualization as role making, preferring the term *organizational assimilation* for both (Ashforth et al., 2007). Smith and Turner (1995), for example, suggested a terminological integration depicting "organizational assimilation = socialization + individualization" (p. 162)

But not all scholars have chosen to use the term organizational assimilation; rather, *organizational assimilation* and *organizational socialization* often appear interchangeably within the OA literature (see, for example, Bullis, 1999; Clair, 1999; Moreland & Levine, 1982; Turner, 1999; Waldeck & Myers, 2007). Unlike organizational communication scholars, scholars in the industrial and organizational psychology domain (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1996), have preferred the term *organizational socialization for organizational assimilation*, and *proactive socialization* for *individualization*.

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[5] The counterpart of the term *socializee* is *socializer* or *the organization*.

Given the terminological and conceptual inconsistency and a degree of confusion in the OA literature, this study follows the practice of organizational communication scholars: using the term organizational assimilation, in the belief that it encompasses both organizational socialization [6] (i.e., role taking) and individualization (i.e., role making). For the sake of conceptual and terminological clarity and consistency, this study develops working definitions of the key constructs, which are summarized in Table 1.

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[6] Following most researchers (e.g., Jablin, 1982; Kramer & Miller, 1999), this study uses the term *socialization* in the sense of referring to those processes associated with organizations' attempts to mold their employees.

Table 1 Definitions of the Key Constructs Used in This Study

Construct	Definition	Source
Core self-evaluation (CSE)	"A basic, fundamental appraisal of worthiness, effectiveness, and capability as a person."	Judge et al. (2003, p.304)
Organizational assimilation (OA)	The process by which individuals become an integrative part of their employment organization either by role taking or role making.	Feldman, 1981; Jablin, 1982; Louis, 1990; Meyers & McPhee, 2006
Organizational socialization	The process by which individuals learn the value, norms, and required behaviors that allow them to participate as members of their employment organization.	Louis ,1980; Waldeck & Myers, 2007
Organizational socialization tactics (OST)	"The ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organization."	Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 230
Organizational adjustment	An ongoing process of fit, whereby organizational employees adapt themselves to tasks, roles, cultures, and psychosocial systems in the OA context.	Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Louis, 1990; Nicholson, 1984;
Role taking	An individual's learning about and adjusting to others' expectations of a particular role's critical elements and appropriate performance	Jablin, 1982; Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978
Role making	Individuals pursuing their own expectations of a given role's purpose and the manner in which the individuals are to be enacted and evaluated.	Graen, 1976; Jablin, 1982, 2001; Waldeck & Myers, 2007

Note: According to Ashforth et al. (2007), organizational communication scholars often distinguish between socialization as role taking and individualization as role making, using the term organizational assimilation for both. Therefore, it can be understood that organizational assimilation = socialization + individualization, or assimilation = role taking + role making.

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1.8 Summary of Chapter 1

Chapter 1 first provides the context for this study by presenting the necessary background information. It has stated the research problem by outlining four major relevant issues: (a) a relative lack of theory, (b) multiple approaches to studying the same OA phenomenon, (c) a lack of consistency in measuring the construct of OA adjustment, and (d) multiple terminologies. Second, the chapter identifies a number of research gaps in the OA literature, providing a foundation on which meaningful research questions have been raised. Third, in an attempt to narrow these research gaps, the chapter has proposed a new mediation model of OA (Figure 1). Finally, the chapter briefly introduces the study's theoretical and practical significance and value, followed by its assumptions and the definition of key terms.

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CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Focusing on the multiplicity issues outlined in Chapter 1, this chapter reviews and critiques the five major approaches in the evolution of the OA literature, followed by an introduction of the multiple factor structures of the OST and CSE constructs and multiple perspectives for conceptualizing and measuring the OA adjustment construct. Finally, this chapter outlines and discusses the timing issue of OA, followed by a review of OA studies conducted in the Chinese context and in the tourism and hospitality domain.

2.1 Evaluation of the OA Research: An Overview

As a complex phenomenon, OA can be—and has been—captured from a number of approaches that were outlined briefly in Chapter 1. Despite their multiplicity, these approaches show that assimilation research can be roughly traced by two distinct characteristics. One is that OA researchers have progressively portrayed the same individual's role in the OA process differently. Traditional views have tended to regard the individual either as a passive/reactive recipient of assimilation forces, or as an active/proactive participant in his or her own assimilation, whereas modern views have treated the same individual as both a reactive and a proactive agent throughout his or her OA process. The other is that, from its early roots in the 1970s to its current form, OA research has progressively captured the same OA dynamics in an increasingly comprehensive manner. In fact, OA models have evolved from early descriptive models, to direct causal models, to contemporary both direct and indirect causal models. In line with these two evolving characteristics of OA, this study therefore outlines, in rough chronological order, five such approaches: (a) the assimilation stage model approach, (b) the OST approach, (c) the individual differences approach, (d) the adjustment approach, and (e) the integrative approach.

2.2 The Stage Models

According to Wanous and Colella (1989), the earliest research into OA simply described the experiences of individuals regarding their organizational entry. This descriptive research paved the way for numerous assimilation stage models (e.g., Feldman, 1976; Jablin, 1982; Schein, 1978), which attempted to portray the OA process as a generalizable sequence of stages through which socializees typically pass in their transition from being outsiders to becoming insiders. The proposed stages that the newcomers are supposed to experience comprise four sequential stages—anticipation, encounter, adaptation, and stabilization—albeit the labels of these stages may vary.

2.2.1 The Anticipation Stage

During the first stage of *anticipation assimilation* (e.g., Louis, 1980), alternatively referred to as "*prearrival*" (Porter et al., 1975) and "*getting in*" (Feldman, 1976), socializees usually prepare themselves for entry into the organization (e.g., through a job search), while the organization often provides some combination of employer image through press releases and the like. According to stage model researchers (e.g., Feldman, 1976; Porter et al., 1975), socializees at this anticipatory stage develop expectations based on their past experiences and preentry perceptions, which in turn might either facilitate or hinder their assimilation into the organization during subsequent stages (detailed next).

2.2.2 The Encounter Stage

The second stage of OA is known as the encounter (e.g., Graen, 1976), which is alternatively referred to as "*accommodation*" or "*breaking in*" (Feldman, 1976). During this stage, new members first enter the organization, confront the organization's reality, and begin to learn how to function in their new environment. As a result of this interactive encounter, the expectations they formed during the first stage are either confirmed or disconfirmed (e.g., Schein, 1978) in the second stage, which in turn impacts their adjustment to the organization's new environment and atmosphere. These encounter experiences are considered critical in terms of their influence on shaping the individual's OA experiences (e.g., Fisher, 1986).

2.2.3 The Adaptation Stage

The third stage is adaptation, alternatively known as "*settling in*" (Feldman, 1976), "*mutual acceptance*" (Schein, 1978), or "metamorphosis" (Jablin, 1982). According to Fisher (1986) and Bauer et al. (1998), this adaptation stage begins when new members become fully accepted members of the organization. By the end of this stage, new members presumably have established an organizational identity and demonstrated attitudes, values, and behaviors that are considered normal to the organization's culture. Finally, according to Ashforth et al. (2007), the last stage of OA is stabilization, which concentrates on the signals and actions that indicate that individuals are bona fide organizational insiders, such as sharing organizational secrets and the like (Nelson, 1987; Kram, 1988).

2.2.4 Contributions of the Stage Models

Overall, the stage model approach has made two notable contributions to the OA literature. One is that it views OA as comprising both role taking (e.g., Feldman, 1981) and role making (e.g., Jablin, 1982) processes. Feldman (1981), for example, viewed OA as the acquisition of appropriate role behaviors, the development of work skills and abilities, and the acquisition of group norms and values. Jablin (1987, 2001) for his part contended that OA is also a role negotiation and innovation process, since it is

> "through the proactive and reactive communication of expectations to and from an individual by members of his or her 'role set' (Katz & Kahn, 1966) that organizational roles are negotiated and individuals share in the socially created 'reality' or organization" (Jablin, 1987, p. 694).

The second contribution of the OA stage model is the initial differentiation between adjustment and outcome or consequence variables. *Adjustment*—a term suggested by some OA review works (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 1998)—is known as being *specific and proximal* to the OA process. Examples of such variables are task mastery (Feldman, 1981) and acculturation (Louis, 1990). Likewise, variables such as job satisfaction and the like are often referred to as *consequence variables* that are more *distal* to the OA process. More often than not, these outcome or consequence variables are defaulted into organizational commitment, turnover, turnover intention, job

performance, and job satisfaction, because of the lack of any overarching theory about OA outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2007). In short, the initial identification and differentiation between adjustment and consequence variables has laid one of the solid foundations for today's integrative models of OA.

2.2.5 Limitations of the Stage Models

The stage model approach has, however, received much criticism, making it one of the least favored approaches among today's OA scholars. First, Jablin (2001) pointed out that a common problem faced by researchers is determining when one stage of assimilation ends and another begins. Generally, researchers have adopted a chronological approach to depict the end of one stage and the beginning of another (Bauer et al., 1998). But as argued by Jablin (2001), it is likely that stages of the assimilation process are not quite as discrete as some models posit (e.g., Bullis & Bach, 1989; Hess, 1993) and that socializees' attitudes and behaviors differ more in degree than in kind over time. In this respect, it is even possible that socializees may engage in role innovation as early as the first few days of work by asking incumbents "dumb" or naïve questions that encourage old-timers to reconsider their expectations about the socializees' roles (Jablin, 2001). As a consequence, Jablin (2001) argued that stage models are essentially and conceptually problematic.

Second, Smith and Turner (1995) contended that stage models are "more likely to disable than enable efforts to generate understandings" (p. 173) of the OA phenomenon, noting, for example, that they have many limitations such as inaccurately depicting assimilation processes as linear. Third, Waldeck and Myers (2007) commented that the stage model approach "may lack explanatory power and heuristic value in terms of advancing a theory of organizational assimilation" (p. 336). They further pointed out that it may be impossible to understand particular assimilation activities according to the stages distilled by their corresponding researchers, because assimilation experiences involve so many issues, occur across the life span, and become framed by organizational culture (Waldeck & Myers, 2007). Fourth, Bullis (1993) and Clair (1996) argued that the use of stage models is limiting and inappropriate in that it devalues socializees while prioritizing socializers.

Because of its many limitations, the stage model approach has attracted little empirical attention (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007; Waldeck & Myers, 2007). Additional factors include the models' mixed empirical evidence, the unfavorable evaluation they received in Fisher's (1986) influential and authoritative review of the OA literature, as well as the ascendance of other and better alternative approaches to understanding the OA phenomenon (Ashforth et al., 2007).

2.3 Organizational Socialization Tactics (OST)

Despite the fact that stage models are heuristic such that they initially identify what constitutes OA adjustment and its consequences, they do not identify the individual or contextual factors that may influence these. Therefore, some researchers began to tackle this problem by searching for contextual influences (e.g., OST) on OA adjustment and consequences.

2.3.1 OST Theory

According to Ashforth and Saks (1996), one of the best developed theoretical models of OA is Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) typology of OST. Thus far, OST has received the most attention in both theory and empirical studies in the OA field. Specifically, Van Maanen and Schein have posited that organizations, consciously or unconsciously, influence an individual's OA adjustment and its consequences by the manner in which they structure his or her OA experiences. As per previous studies (e.g., Van Maanen and Schein, 1979; Gruman et al., 2006), the six tactics of organizational socialization, each of which is bipolar, are (a) collective versus individual (whether socializees are socialized in groups or individually); (b) formal versus informal (whether socializees are segregated from insiders during socialization); (c) sequential versus random (whether socializees are told explicitly about the sequencing of planned socialization events); (d) fixed versus variable (whether there is an explicit, fixed timetable for completing the various socialization stages); (e) serial versus disjunctive (whether previous job incumbents are available as role models for socializees); and (f) investiture versus divestiture (whether socializees receive positive social support from insiders). Figure 2 summarizes and presents the classification of OST.

	INSTITUTIONALIZED	INDIVIDUALIZED
CONTEXT Structure of initial socialization programs	**Collective** ⟷ Places a socializee in a cohort of socializees who participate in an identical set of experiences	**Individual** Involves one-on-one socializee/senior partnering, and self- or organization-imposed socializee isolation
	Formal ⟷ Segregates socializees from the organization for an initial training period	**Informal** Makes no special effort to differentiate or separate the socializee from more experienced members
CONTENT Communication of sequence and timing of events in the socialization process	**Sequential** ⟷ Prescribes a fixed sequence of steps that leads to socializees' role competence	**Random** Keeps the sequence of steps leading to socializees' target roles ambiguous or frequently changing
	Fixed ⟷ Provides socializees notice of their expected transition timetable, which the organization adheres to	**Variable** Does not provide socializees notice of their expected transition timetable
SOCIAL Availability of social support in adjusting to the new role	**Serial** ⟷ Makes role models available to inform socializees how to proceed in the new role	**Disjunctive** Does not make explicit role models available to socializees, who are thus left alone
	Investiture ⟷ Seeks to build upon the socializee's values and attitudes	**Divestiture** Seeks to tear down and completely reorient the socializee's values and attitudes

Source: Adapted from Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979

Figure 2 Classification of organizational socialization tactics

2.3.2 Multiplicity of OST Factor Structures

OST Factor Structures: An Unresolved Issue. OST has been considered to have multiple factor structures across different study samples. At the first-order factor level, it has been examined as a single factor (e.g., Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005), three factors (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Saks et al., 2007), and six factors (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996), among other studies. At the second-order factor level, it has been documented to be a single second-order factor structure with several first-order factors (Klynn, 2001; Tan & Liao, 2005). These multiple factor structures have been compared and tested in two more studies by Ashforth, Saks, and Lee (1997) and Saks et al. (2007). In short, the issue of OST's multiple factor structures has not been resolved thus far. This study thus conducted a survey of studies on the dimensionality of OST that have appeared in the OA literature. Table 2 reviews and summarizes 14 OST studies occurring between 1986 and 2009, thoroughly illustrating the multiple factor structures of OST measures developed by Jones (1986).

Consensus on OST Being a Unidimensional Construct. Jones (1986) also went beyond the above factor structure issue by conceptually proposing that OST is a continuous bipolar construct, which can be either *institutionalized* (consisting of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, or investiture) or *individualized* (consisting of individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, or divestiture) in a given situation. Whereas institutionalized OST reflects a more structured and formalized assimilation process, individualized OST tends to reflect an absence of structure such that socializees are assimilated more by default than by design (Ashforth et al., 1997). In fact, a substantial number of OA scholars (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Huang & Cao, 2008; Klynn, 2001; Li & Xu, 2008; Saks et al., 2007) have regarded OST as a unidimensional construct at either the first- or second-order factor level. Above all, the consensus has been that the OST construct is both related to and distinct from other OA constructs.[7]

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[7] In line with this consensus among most OA researchers, this study developed a number of hypotheses (detailed in Chapter 3) on OST causal relationships with other selected constructs.

Table 2 Factor Structure of Jones' (1986) OST Measure in the Literature

Investigators (years)	No. of Items Adopted from Jone's (1986)	No. of First Order Factors	First Order one factor (Alpha)						Second Order one Factor	Model Fit	
			Context (Alpha)		Social (Alpha)		Content (Alpha)				
			Collective vs. Individual (Alpha)	Formal vs. Informal (Alpha)	Investiture vs. Divestiture (Alpha)	Serial vs. Disjunctive (Alpha)	Sequential vs. Random (Alpha)	Fixed vs. Variable (Alpha)		CFI	RMSEA
Jones (1986)	30	6	√(.84)	√(.68)	√(.79)	√(.78)	√(.78)	√(.79)	NA	NA	NA
		3	√(NA)		√(NA)		√(NA)		NA	NA	NA
Ashforth et al.(1997)	30	1	√(.93)						NA	.720	NA
		3	√(.83)		√(.81)		√(.89)		NA	.772	NA
		6	√(.77)	√(.66)	√(.68)	√(.77)	√(.82)	√(.79)	NA	.802	NA
Cable &Parsons (2001)	12	3	√(NA)		√(NA)		√(NA)		NA	NA	NA
Tan &Liao (2005)	12	3	√(NA)		√(NA)		√(NA)		√	NA	NA
Klynn (2001)	20	4	√(.63)	√(.74)	NA	√(.64)	NA	√(.70)	√	NA	NA
Hart et al.(2003)	13	5	√(NA)	√(NA)	√(NA)	√(NA)	√(NA)		NA	NA	NA
Bottger (2004)	23	5	Deleted	√(.69)	√(.81)	√(.79)	√(.78)	√(.81)	NA	NA	NA

Table 2 Factor Structure of Jones' (1986) OST Measure in the Literature (Cont'd)

Investigators (years)	No. of Items Adopted from Jone's measure	No. of First Order Factors	First Order one factor (Alpha) Context (Alpha) Collective vs. Individual (Alpha)	Formal vs. Informal (Alpha)	Social (Alpha) Investiture vs. Divestiture (Alpha)	Serial vs. Disjunctive (Alpha)	Content (Alpha) Sequential vs. Random (Alpha)	Fixed vs. Variable (Alpha)	Second Order One Factor	Model Fit CFI	RMSEA
Kim et al. (2005)	26	1	√ (.86)						NA	NA	NA
Gruman et al.(2006)	30	1	√(.84)						NA	.76	.07
Miller (2006)	15	5	√(.71)	NA	√(.77)	√(.64)	√(.90)	√(.69)	NA	NA	NA
Wells (2006)	21	6	√(.51)	√(.60)	√(.81)	√(.54)	√(.78)	√(.65)	NA	NA	NA
Huang & Cao (2008)	30	1	√(.86)						NA	NA	NA
Li & Xu (2008)	26	1	√(NA)						NA	NA	NA
Kowtha(2008)	18	4	√(.68)	NA	√(.81)	√(.81)	NA	√(.81)	NA	.92	.06
Jaskyte & Lee (2009)	15	3	NA	√(.62)	√(.85)	√(.73)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

Notes: The best competing factor structure of OST in the present study turned out to have 17 items with one second order factor (i.e., CSE) and three first order factors of context (reliability alpha: .63), social (.77), and content (.82). The GOF of this model: CFI= .944, RMSEA= .049. This model is detailed in Chapter 4 of the study.

2.3.3 Contributions of the OST Approach

In the OA domain, Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) theory of OST was a landmark work, making important contributions to our understanding of the OA phenomenon from the perspective of organizational influences on socializees' OA experiences. Empirically, this approach has received some of the most attention among all other approaches in the OA literature. More importantly, most empirical evidence has clearly supported Van Maanen and Schein's underlying proposition, that organizations, consciously or unconsciously, influence a socializee's OA process and outcomes by the manner in which they structure the socializee's OA experiences. For example, a review by Saks and Ashforth (1997) noted that OST predicts a number OA consequences, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit, among many others. Research since 1997 has extended the number of consequence variables such as person-organization fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001), lower turnover (Allen, 2006), and job performance (Chen & Klimoski, 2003), among others.

2.3.4 Limitations of the OST Approach

Nevertheless, several issues remain pertaining to the OST approach. For instance, despite the fact that most research has been conclusive in showing that socialization tactics have significant effects on a number of OA consequences such as job satisfaction, job performance, and the like, it has not explained how and why these effects take place. In fact, research (e.g., Ashforth & Black, 1996) has only recently begun to examine the psychological and social processes (e.g., the OA adjustment dimensions) that might mediate the relationships between OST and OA consequences. More research in this area is therefore needed. One example is the need for further refinement and enhancement of the psychometric properties of Jones' (1986) socialization tactics measure (Saks et al., 2007), although this measure has greatly advanced research in the OA field. An additional example is that OST does not address why socializees in the same job may not necessarily become equally assimilated into their employment organization. In this respect, Gruman et al. (2006) commented that OST in the situationist approach "regards individuals as passive, reactive agents and in isolation may not fully capture the dynamics" (p. 91) of the OA process; therefore, individuals should also be treated as active and proactive agents during this process. In

short, these comments suggest that the OST approach alone does not fully capture OA dynamics and that other approaches focusing on personal factors should be taken into consideration as well.

2.4 Individual Differences

As noted earlier, the OA literature has been criticized for overemphasizing the situational approach and ignoring the role of individual differences (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Schneider, 1983). To narrow this research gap, researchers (e.g., Fisher, 1986; Jones, 1983) in the 1980s began to hypothesize a role for individuals themselves in their own assimilation. From this perspective, a number of individual difference variables have been considered quite relevant to the OA process and outcomes. As noted earlier, these individual difference variables involve a wide range: demographic attributes; personality traits; values, beliefs, and attitudes; behavioral styles; knowledge, skills, and abilities; and goals, aspirations, and needs. Among the many personal factors, behavioral proactivity (e.g., information seeking) has received the most theoretical and empirical attention, followed by an individual's cognitive coping with uncertainty that might affect his or her "sense making" in a new and changing environment. The sections that follow underscore these individual differences reflecting an individual's behavioral, cognitive, and emotional proactivity relevant to his or her OA experience.

2.4.1 Behavioral Proactivity

Viewing individuals as behaviorally proactive agents is a major characteristic of the individual differences approach to understanding the OA phenomenon. According to Ashforth and Black (1996) and Crant (2000), research on behavioral proactivity usually explores the means by which socializees (especially newcomers) actively seek information about their work environment and their role and performance within it as a means of uncertainty reduction. A review of the literature in this area indicates that three studies have been outstanding in terms of their proposed typologies of an individual's proactivity.

Three Studies Regarding Behavioral Proactivity. First, Miller and Jablin (1991) suggested that workplace individuals usually adopt several tactics such as

overt questions, indirect questions, third parties, disguised conversations, and the like. Through such tactics or means, socializees seek information to reduce the uncertainty and anxiety they experience during their OA process. Second, Ashforth and Black (1996) researched how individuals obtain a sense of control in their new organizational setting. They operationalized proactivity as (a) information seeking, or trying to learn about how the organization operates; (b) feedback seeking, or gathering information about one's performance; (c) relationship building, or establishing relationships with others; (d) general socializing, or taking part in social activities, (e) networking, or contacting people external to one's work unit; (f) job change negotiation, or trying to modify one's tasks and others' expectations of oneself; and (g) positive framing, or trying to view things optimistically.

Third, self-regulation can also be regarded as a kind of proactivity because it motivates the individual to actively engage with his or her work context (Ashforth et al., 2007). In this respect, Saks and Ashforth (1996) investigated the following six self-management tactics: (a) self-goal-setting, to provide direction and set standards for oneself; (b) self-observation, or monitoring one's behavior and its causes; (c) cueing strategies, or using prompts to remind one to do or to avoid doing something; (d) self-reward, to reinforce desired behavior; (e) self-punishment, to decrease undesired behavior; and (f) rehearsal, to practice desired behavior.

Contributions of Behavioral Proactivity. Generally, research approached from the perspective of behavioral proactivity has contributed to the OA literature in at least three noticeable ways. First, scholars in this area have treated the individual as an active and proactive agent, focusing mainly on the individual's behavioral proactivity, which navigates his or her own assimilation. Second, newcomer proactivity has been found to influence many variables of OA adjustment and consequences. For example, research has found that a socializee's proactivity generally (albeit not always) predicts task mastery (Morrison, 1993a), social integration (Morrison, 1993a), job satisfaction (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), job performance (Ashforth & Black, 1996), and intention to quit (Morrison, 1993b), among many other outcomes. Third, research has also taken a step further to explore the antecedents for newcomer proactivity. These antecedents have focused largely on proactive personality, desire for control, extraversion, openness to experience, and self-efficacy (Ashforth et al., 2007). In short, behavioral proactivity research has many merits in that it emphasizes an individual's behavioral proactivity in

the process of his or her own assimilation.

Limitations of Behavioral Proactivity.   On the other hand, newcomer proactivity research is not without its limitations, since socializees can also be cognitively and emotionally proactive in addition to behaviorally proactive during the same OA process. Therefore, Ashforth and Black (1996) called for future OA research to also "consider the ways in which individuals are cognitively and emotionally active during entry, not just behaviourally active" (p. 212). In this respect, some progress has been made to understand the OA phenomenon from the standpoint of individual differences theories (detailed next).

2.4.2 Cognitive and Emotional Proactivity in General

Generally, an individual's cognitive and emotional proactivity has been grounded in three major theoretical perspectives: the Big Five personality theory, sense making theory, and social cognitive theory.

Big Five Personality Theory.   The first major theoretical perspective on an individual's cognitive and emotional proactivity involved the Big Five personality theory (Norman, 1963). Among the rare studies that have been grounded in this theory, Weatherly (1999) found that newcomer's emotional stability is related to the four dimensions—task, language, politics, and history—of Chao et al.'s (1994) newcomer adjustment construct. Additionally, she also tapped two more Big Five personality factors—conscientiousness and extraversion—in the same study. Specifically, whereas she found conscientiousness to be associated with the history and people dimensions of newcomer learning, she found extraversion to be related to five dimensions (i.e., goals/values, language, politics, history, and people knowledge) of the same newcomer learning scale and newcomer self-rated job performance of Chao et al. However, newcomer emotional proactivity has been rarely explored in the OA literature, and more research in this area is needed.

Sense-Making Theory. The second major theoretical perspective on an individual's cognitive proactivity concerns sense-making theory. Louis (1980) developed this theory, whereby socializees attempt to make sense of the surprises they encounter during the OA process. According to Katz (1980), in their new

organizational environment, employees strive to construct situational definitions of their organizational reality and their role identities. Some scholars (e.g., Falcione & Wilson, 1988) have portrayed this process as involving an "interpretive schema" or a "cognitive map" of one's organizational environment and atmosphere. Louis argued that surprise constitutes a major feature of the organizational entry experience and simply represents a difference between an individual's anticipation and subsequent experience. Following this assumption, Louis developed a cognitive approach to studying OA, in which socializees attempt to make sense of the surprises they encounter in the course of OA. Thus, sense making can be understood as a thinking process or pattern in which socializees interpret and attach meanings to surprises through interactions with others or alteration of their cognitive scripts (Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987).

A number of individual attributes can affect a socializee's surprise and sense making. The attributes that have appeared most frequently in the OA context are past experiences (e.g., Louis, 1980), unmet expectations (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992), locus of control (Louis, 1980), and self-efficacy (Jones, 1983). These and other individual differences affect sense making by influencing the attributions that individuals make as well as the frames through which they view the world (Ashforth & Taylor, 1990; Louis, 1980). Generally, sense-making theory and research within this conceptualization has made one notable contribution to the OA literature in that this theory as well as its empirical studies has shown that a number of the individual differences variables among socializees affect their OA adjustment and its consequences via sense-making mechanisms, such as conscious thought in coping with entry experiences.

Social Cognitive Theory. The third major theoretical perspective on an individual's cognitive proactivity involves social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997). This theory posits that human behavior and psychological functioning can be explained in terms of a triadic reciprocal causation in which behavior, cognitive and personal factors, and environmental events interact and influence one another bidirectionally. In the context of OA, self-efficacy beliefs, a kind of self-regulatory mechanism, have been recognized as relevant for organizational functioning in general (Wood & Bandura, 1989), and a socializee's organizational functioning in particular (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). This study thus underscores this important cognitive core

person variable (detailed below).

Task Versus General Self-Efficacy.   Despite the fact that self-efficacy has been one of the most prominent individual differences variables appearing in OA research (Saks & Ashforth, 1997), it has been operationalized and studied as a variable of motivational state (i.e., task or domain specific self-efficacy) rather than a motivational trait (i.e., generalized self-efficacy), with only a few notable exceptions (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 2000; Song & Chathoth, 2010). This gap is partly owing to the issue of task versus general self-efficacy as detailed in Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern's (2006) work. A result of this gap is that we know very little about the role of generalized self-efficacy in OA. Although Saks and Ashforth (2000) explored this role in predicting OA processes and outcomes, they mostly failed to obtain their intended empirical support. In contrast, Song and Chathoth (2010) successfully found that an intern newcomer's generalized self-efficacy and most of its interactions with the four organizational socialization inventory domains (Taormina, 1994)—a kind of OA adjustment—can independently and jointly predict intern socializees' general job satisfaction and intent to return.

CSE Theory.   Recently, generalized self-efficacy has been synthesized into a broader and more comprehensive individual differences variable—core self-evaluation (CSE)—which is partly derived, but distinct from, generalized self-efficacy. Judge et al. (2003) identified this latent construct measured by a combination of generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability. In fact, CSE theory was first developed in 1997 in Judge, Locke, and Durham's (1997) work, where they portrayed CSE as "stable and consistent ways of thinking, feeling, or acting exhibited by individuals" (p. 155). Ashforth et al. (2007) strongly recommended that future OA studies should investigate this CSE construct, postulating that it may have a strong and holistic influence on OA adjustment and consequences.

The Factor Structure of CSE.   Multiplicity also characterizes the factor structure of CSE. Generally, CSE has been examined either as a first-order single factor (e.g., Judge et al., 2003) or a second-order single factor construct, with at most four first-order factors (e.g., Piccolo, Judge, Takahashi, Watanabe, & Locke, 2005). Despite the multiplicity of CSE factor structures, it is increasingly understood that CSE should have four elements, including global self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy,

locus of control, and emotional stability. These four elements in the literature may not necessarily be grouped as four factors among existing CSE works, but all versions of CSE measures to date have all four elements. Moreover, regardless of the issue of CSE's multiple factor structures, it has been increasingly understood that CSE is a unidimensional construct either at the first- or second-order factor levels.[8]

CSE as a First-Order Single Factor Construct. Thus far, Judge and his colleagues are representatives of those scholars who suggest that CSE could be examined as a first-order single factor construct. They have developed three versions to measure CSE: the 2003 CSE measure (Judge et al., 2003), the 2007 CSE measure (Judge & Hurst, 2007), and the 2009 CSE measure (Judge, Hurst, & Simon, 2009). Notably, all three versions have been developed in Western countries and have rarely been validated cross-culturally. In China, the 2003 CSE version has been validated across two different studies: Ren and Ye (2009) and Xu and Yang (2009). Although Ren and Ye confirmed that Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE scale in their Chinese sample was a single first-order construct, they retained only eight items from the original 12-item CSE measure. Contrary to their expectations, Xu and Yang adopted 11 items from Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE scale and found that a three-factor structure for CSE best fit their data. Likewise, in her Western country samples, Crawford found that a three-factor solution for Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE scale fit her study data best. From the above, it can be concluded that, at the first-order factor level, CSE's factor structure is not stable, a fact that is not surprising given that "CSE study is still in its infancy" (Judge, 2009, p. 61). Table 3 summarizes the factor structure of Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE measure in the literature.

CSE as a Second-Order Single Factor Construct. As a competing alternative CSE factor structure, a second-order CSE construct has gained popularity among scholars of psychology (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge et al., 1997; Piccolo et al., 2005). As noted earlier, it is increasingly understood that CSE is composed of four elements: generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability. Each element at the first-order factor level might be distinct from, and correlated to, the others, jointly shaping the CSE concept or construct at the second-order factor level. Although the second-order single factor CSE construct may have

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[8] In line with this consensus on the CSE construct among most researchers, this study developed corresponding research hypotheses on CSE's causal links to other constructs, as detailed in chapter 3.

three (e.g., Xu & Yang, 2009) or four (e.g., Wu & Gan, 2005) first-order factors, jointly all these first-order factors have included all four elements noted above.

2.4.3 Contributions of the Individual Differences Approach

The individual differences approach has made two important contributions to our understanding of OA. One is that this approach views individuals as active and proactive agents who play a role in their own assimilation into their organizations. The other is that it has initially explored and confirmed the roles of some key individual difference variables (e.g., self-efficacy) in predicting OA adjustment as well as its consequences, albeit not always consistently.

2.4.4 Limitations and Gaps of the Individual Differences Approach

At least three research gaps among OA studies taking the individual differences approach are noteworthy. First, compared with its counterpart of the OST approach, the individual differences approach has been relatively neglected (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). As a result, with a few exceptions, some key individual difference variables such as self-esteem, locus of control, and the like have been rarely studied in OA research. Second, the interrelated core person variables, such as general self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability, have been studied in isolation in the OA literature (Ashforth et al., 2007). As a result, our understanding of an individual's core self-evaluation has been approached in a rather piecemeal fashion. To date, no single empirical study, except for this study, has jointly and simultaneously investigated these four core individual differences variables in the OA context. Likewise, to date, no empirical study in the literature of OA has treated these same variables as a single latent construct at a higher level. Finally, measurement of the CSE construct has been described as not being mature (Judge, 2009). Thus, it is still necessary for investigators to further explore and confirm the factor structures of these individual differences constructs.

Table 3 Factor Structure of Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE Measure

Investigators (years)	No. of Items Adopted	No. of First Order Factor(s)	First Order One Factor (Alpha)						Second Order One Factor	Model Fit	
			Optimistic (Alpha)	Pessimistic (Alpha)	Reality-Foreordination (Alpha)	Self-worth (Alpha)	Control (Alpha)	Success (Alpha)		CFI	RMSEA
Judge et al. (2003)	12	1	√(.84)						NA	.92	.08
Crawford (2008)	11	3	NA	NA	NA	√(.74)	√(.65)	√(.47)	NA	NA	NA
Xu & Yang(2009)	11	3	√(.87)	√(.85)	√(.88)	√(NA)	√(NA)		√	.97	.05
Ren & Ye (2009)	8	1	√(.78)						NA	.97	.07

Notes: The best competing factor structure of Judge et al.'s (2003) 12 itemed CSE measure in the pilot study turned out to have one second order factor (i.e., CSE) with three first order factors of pessimistic (reliability alpha: .76), optimistic (.64), and self worth and ILoC (.52); Chapter 2 has more details about this factor structure.

2.5 OA Adjustment

Jointly, both the individual differences approach and the OST approach tell us that, to a certain degree, OA consequences are caused by both organizational and personal factors. In other words, these two approaches describe what affects OA consequences, but do not portray how and why such an effect occurs. In this respect, the dimensions of OA adjustment have been postulated as the most promising mediating variables able to address such questions (Ashforth et al., 2007). In fact, some progress has been made regarding the mediating mechanisms of OA adjustment. The pages that follow discuss measurement issues with respect to adjustment dimensionality in the OA domain, prior to further review of the mediators in OA models.

2.5.1 Multiplicity of Conceptualizing Adjustment Dimensions

The measurement issue of conceptualizing and measuring OA adjustment was discussed initially in section 1.2.3 and is further unfolded here. Overall, two perspectives have emerged in the OA adjustment area: the learning perspective and the role taking/role making perspective.

The Learning Perspective. According to Ashforth et al. (2007), researchers have generally characterized OA learning in three related ways: (a) as the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities (e.g., Chao et al., 1994); (b) as general adjustment (e.g., role clarity; e.g., Taormina, 1994, 1997); and (c) as effective support from various sources (e.g., organization, group, and supervisor) during the OA process (Taormina, 1994, 1997). Among the three ways, one portion of conceptualization and operationalization—namely, effective support from various sources such as the organization, coworkers, and supervisor—overlaps with the social dimension of OST, which is an antecedent of OA adjustment. Moreover, an individual's general adjustment, such as future prospects in Taormina's (1997, 2004) measure, overlaps with the attitudinal general consequences of OA (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Table 4 Summary of Existing OA Adjustment Dimensions in the Literature

	Task/Job	Role	Cultural	Psychosocial	Others
Ostroff & Kozlowaski(1992)	Task knowledge	Role knowledge		Group knowledge; Organization knowledge	NA
Chao et al.(1994)	Performance proficiency		Goals & values	People	Organization history; Organizational politics; language
Taormina(1994)	NA	NA	Understanding	Co-worker support; Future prospects	Training
Morrison (1993b,1995)	Technical &appraisal info.	Referent info.	Normative info.	Social info.	Org. info.; Political info.
Thomas & Anderson(1998)	NA	Role knowledge	NA	Social & interpersonal support	Org. knowledge
Haueter et al.(2003)	Adjustment to job task	Adjustment to work group	NA	Adjustment to the organization	NA
Myers & Oetzel (2003)	Job competency	Role Negotiation	Acculturation	Recognition; Familiarity; Involvement	NA

Notes: In this study, the proposed adjustment dimensions cover one task dimension (i.e., task mastery), two cultural dimensions (i.e., fitting in and standing out), one role dimension (i.e., role negotiation), and one psychosocial dimension (i.e., organizational identification). The proposed adjustment dimensions are further detailed in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 of this study, respectively.

Psychometric Problems Among OA Learning Measures. According to Ashforth et al. (2007), measuring OA adjustment from the learning perspective is somewhat problematic in terms of the convergent and discriminant validities of the existing measures. Specifically, they noted that Haueter et al. (2003) found weak validity for their newcomer socialization questionnaire vis-à-vis Chao et al.'s (1994) measure, whereas Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks (2006) found only moderate validity for Morrison's (1995) measure vis-à-vis Chao et al.'s measure. Finally, they further noted that although Taormina (2004) found strong convergent and discriminant validity for his OSI measure vis-à-vis Chao et al.'s measure, four of Chao et al.'s six content domains loaded on only one of Taormina's four OSI domains, and one of these domains had no parallel in Chao et al.'s measure.

The Role Taking/Role Making Perspective. To the author's knowledge, to date only one measurement model of OA adjustment—the organizational assimilation inventory (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), which has both role taking and role making elements—exists in the OA literature. Specifically, Myers and Oetzel's (2003) measure has five role taking dimensions (supervisor familiarity, acculturation, recognition, involvement, and job competency) and one role making dimension (role negotiation). Although Myers and Oetzel's (2003) measure captures both the role taking and the role making-perspectives while furthering our understanding of the complex OA phenomenon, their measure has at least three noteworthy limitations. First, the psychometric prosperities in terms of the reliability and validity of this measure are somewhat problematic. For example, the reliability alpha values of the six dimensions hover around .70, with some (e.g., job competency) below .70, and others (e.g., role negotiation) lower than .60. Second, some important OA adjustment dimensions, such as the organizational identification construct, have not been integrated into the measure. Third, Myers and Oetzel operationalized acculturation as socializees' acquisition of their organizations' cultural knowledge. But acculturation could be operationalized more broadly and appropriately as gaining cultural competencies in the OA context. In fact, scholars in cross-cultural communication (e.g., Ward & Kennedy, 1999) have often operationalized acculturation as gaining such cultural competencies as cultural empathy and relatedness. Finally, Myers and Oetzel's measure has not been validated cross-culturally thus far.

The Integrative Measure of OA Adjustment. To date, at an operational level, no OA adjustment measure has been developed from the integrative perspective. In other words, no OA adjustment measure has been presented as integrating both new and old OA dimensions. Nevertheless, some scholars have proposed theoretically that OA adjustments are multidimensional. Feldman (1981), for example, suggested that OA adjustment should cover three typologies: task (e.g., task mastery), culture (e.g., adjustment to group norms and values), and role (e.g., resolution of role demand). In addition to these three typologies, psychosocial dimensions have also been extensively explored. Examples of these dimensions are social and interpersonal support (Thomas & Anderson, 1998), job involvement (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), people (Chao et al., 1994), and social information (Morrison, 1993b), among others. Finally, a small number of other dimensions of OA adjustment have also been explored and confirmed; these are organizational history, politics, language (Chao et al., 1994), training (Taormina, 1994), organizational knowledge (Thomas & Anderson, 1998), and organizational and political information (Morrison, 1993b). On the basis of the above, the existing OA adjustment dimensions can be categorized into five typologies: task/job, role, cultural, psychosocial, and others. In line with these five typologies, Table 4 provides a summary of the existing OA adjustment dimensions.

2.5.2 Contributions of the Adjustment Approach

Generally, the OA adjustment approach has made important contributions to our understanding of the OA phenomenon. This approach is at least as important as the OST approach and individual differences approach in that the role taking/learning dimensions of OA are believed to lie at the heart of any organizational assimilation model (Ashforth et al., 2007; Chao et al., 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Fisher, 1986). In other words, whereas the OST and individual differences approaches tell us what influences OA outcomes, the adjustment approach goes a step further to tell us how and why such influence occurs.

2.5.3 Limitations and Gaps of the Adjustment Approach

Although the OA adjustment approach has been one of the most promising lenses for viewing the OA phenomenon, it is also considered one of the most problematic areas in

OA research owing to the foregoing critical issue, namely, a lack of consistency in how the construct of OA adjustment has been conceptualized and measured. This, coupled with the increasing understanding that OA adjustment is most likely to mediate (at least partially) the relationships between OA antecedents and OA outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), makes the issue of measuring OA adjustment even more critical.

Although some studies (e.g., Klein, Fan, & Preacher, 2006) have empirically explored the mediating roles of the OA adjustment dimensions using Chao et al.'s (1994) measure of OA learning, Ashforth et al. (2007) realized that it was difficult to make assertions about these empirical findings because these findings might have been contaminated by the problematic and inconsistent OA learning measures on which they were based. This problem presents an additional hurdle for the development of OA research and practices. Thus, it is important and necessary to establish a more reliable and valid measure of OA, given the centrality of socializee adjustment to the OA phenomenon (e.g., Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006).

2.6 The Integrative Approach

As noted earlier, the complexity associated with the OA phenomenon has led to multiple approaches in the OA literature, which in turn has led to a somewhat fragmented understanding of OA dynamics (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In contrast, the integrative approach, built on the complimentary rather than conflicting aspects of the different approaches, has initially emerged as the most powerful and comprehensive lens for generating novel and more comprehensive insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon.

But despite its many advantages, only a small number of studies have taken the integrative approach in the OA literature. Saks and Ashforth (1997), for example, commented that "not much integration of the various perspectives/approaches has occurred" (p. 235), although a great deal of research on OA has been carried out. The sections that follow review these integrative studies accordingly.

2.6.1 OA Meta-Analytic Reviews

Two integrative studies using meta-analysis are worth noting. One is that of Saks et al. (2007), which theoretically proposed and empirically tested a mediation model of newcomer adjustment in which role conflict, role ambiguity, and fit perceptions partially mediated some of the relationships between socialization tactics and the investigated OA outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and intentions to quit). Bauer et al. (2007) conducted the other noteworthy integrative study using meta-analytic and path modeling techniques. They theoretically proposed and empirically tested a new model of antecedents and outcomes of newcomer adjustment using 70 unique samples of existing OA empirical studies. Specifically, they successfully proposed and tested a mediation model in which adjustment variables (e.g., role clarity, task-specific self-efficacy, and social acceptance) mediated the effects of OST and information seeking on OA outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, intentions to remain, and turnover). One notable merit of Bauer et al.'s (2007) study is that no previous single study had examined all the relationships among OA adjustment and its antecedents and outcomes as they proposed and tested.

2.6.2 OA Interactionist Perspective

From an interactionist perspective, people's organizational attitudes and behaviors are functions of both personal and situational factors (e.g., Chatman, 1989; Lewin, 1951; Moos, 1973). This perspective seeks to integrate the individual differences and situationist approaches. In this respect, some studies have measured the direct influences of both types of factors. Jones (1986), for example, simultaneously examined the effects of socialization tactics and task-specific self-efficacy on socializee adjustment to an organization in terms of role orientation or innovation. Other integrative studies have tested both the direct and moderating effects of OA antecedents on OA adjustment and consequences. Saks and Ashforth (2000), for instance, examined the moderating effects of generalized self-efficacy on the relationships between a socializee's entry stressors (e.g., role ambiguity, role conflict, and the like) and OA outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, job performance, and the like). But the results of their study provided weak support for behavioral plasticity theory (i.e., the

interaction of generalized self-efficacy and each of the entry stressors) in predicting a socializee's OA consequences. This is partly because moderation effects are notoriously difficult to detect in field settings owing to restricted range in the individual and situational variables (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Partly because of this statistical barrier, integrative OA studies designed to detect interactional effects have been rare thus far. Finally, in the tourism and hospitality context, some researchers (e.g., Lam, 2003; Song & Chathoth, 2010) have also begun to detect interactional effects (detailed in section 2.9).

2.6.3 Mediating Mechanisms

Still other integrative studies have tested both the direct and mediation effects among OA constructs. In this vein, several recent studies are quite noteworthy. First, drawing largely on organizational assimilation theory and its derivations, such as uncertainty reduction and sense-making theory, Menguc, Han, and Auh (2007) proposed and empirically tested a process model of newcomer salesperson assimilation in the South Korean context. The results of this study indicated that both organization-initiated and socializee proactive behaviors (e.g., information seeking) significantly influenced socializees' perceived level of accommodation (i.e., role clarity and social integration), thereby further influencing their OA consequences (e.g., organizational commitment). Second, in their 140 intern newcomer sample, Gruman et al. (2006) found that a socializee's proactive behavior (e.g., boss relationship building) partially mediated the relationship between his or her self-efficacy and OST with a number of OA adjustment (e.g., task mastery and social integration) and outcome (e.g., job satisfaction, intent to return) variables. OA research has also examined the mediating role of group integration and role clarity (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), and work group integration (Kowtha, 2008), the learning dimensions of adjustment (e.g., Klein et al. 2006), among other variables that are proximal to OA. Finally, researchers (e.g., Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press; Yang, 2009, in press) in the domain of tourism and hospitality have also begun to develop mediational models of OA (detailed in section 2.9.2).

2.6.4 Contributions of the Integrative Approach

From the foregoing examples, it can be deduced that the integrative approach has many

advantages over the nonintegrative approaches (e.g., the stage model approach, the OST approach, the individual differences approach, and the adjustment approach). These advantages include (a) the simultaneous examination of situational and personal influences on OA adjustment and outcomes, (b) examination of both social and psychological processes during a socializee's OA, and (c) the simultaneous integration by some integrative studies (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007) of at least four different approaches in a single meta-analytic study. Furthermore, integrative studies are also distinct from nonintegrative studies in that they have employed more than one theoretical underpinning. Saks et al. (2007), for example, used both uncertainty reduction and person-organization fit theories to guide their proposed relationships among the assimilation constructs, including OA adjustment and antecedents as well as OA consequences.

2.6.5 Limitations and Gaps of the Integrative Approach

Despite its many advantages, the OA integrative approach does have some limitations. One is that only a small number of studies have used it, while another is that only a few OA constructs have been integrated into the two mediation models approached by meta-analytic and path modeling techniques. As a result, this study highlights two of the neglected, yet important and promising, key OA constructs.

The first neglected antecedent is CSE, a very promising antecedent with potential holistic and strong explanatory power, as noted earlier. The second neglected area is the obvious ruling out of some important dimensions (e.g., task mastery) of OA adjustment in the two meta-analytic studies for two main reasons. One is that some of the excluded OA adjustment variables (e.g., task mastery) have been insufficiently researched; as a result, only a small number of studies have explored these kinds of adjustment indicators. The other is that some OA adjustment variables, such as the cultural, psychological, and social adjustment dimensions, have been poorly and narrowly explored owing to a critical conceptual and measurement issue (detailed earlier in section 1.3.1) regarding OA adjustment indicators. The above-stated limitations suggest that more integrative attempts in OA research are necessary. Table 5 summarizes the contributions and limitations of the five approaches underscored in this study.

Table 5 Contributions and Limitations of Key OA Approaches

Approach	Contribution	Limitation / Gap
1. The stage models approach	1.1 Theoretically proposes that OA is made up of role taking and role making processes (Jablin, 1982). Alternatively, OA is theorized to comprise learning and change processes (Fisher, 1986).	1.3 It is based on a misleading assumption, that the OA process is linear rather than nonlinear. As a result, this approach is more likely to disable than enable efforts to generate understanding of the OA phenomenon.
	1.2 The initial identification and classification of adjustment and consequence variables have laid a solid foundation for integrative studies.	1.4 Lacks explanatory power and heuristic value in terms of advancing a theory of OA (Waldeck & Myers, 2007).
		1.5 Has attracted little empirical attention in past decades. In addition, it has generated mixed empirical evidence and many pessimistic reviews and comments thus far.
2. The OST approach	2.1 Known as one of the best developed theoretical models in OA literature.	2.3 Overemphasizes the influence of organizational factors on socializees' assimilation experiences while neglecting the influence of personal factors on the same experiences.
	2.2 Empirical evidence has clearly supported the underlying proposition: An organization can influence its socializees' adjustment and outcomes by the manner in which it structures their OA experiences.	2.4 The factor structure of socialization tactics is diversified in the literature. Further confirmation of the dimensionality of socialization tactics is necessary.
3. The individual differences approach	3.1 Views socializees as active and proactive agents who play a role in their own assimilation into their organization.	3.3 Socializees' behavioral proactivity (such as information seeking) has received the most empirical attention, while their cognitive and emotional proactivity (e.g., core self-evaluation) has received far less empirical attention.

Table 5 Contributions and Limitations of Key OA Approaches (Cont'd)

Approach	Contribution	Limitation / Gap
3. The individual differences approach (Cont'd)	3.2 Has initially explored and confirmed the roles of some key individual differences variables such as task-specific self-efficacy in predicting some OA adjustment and outcome variables, albeit not always consistently.	3.4 This approach alone cannot fully capture the dynamics of the OA phenomenon because it excludes factors in the environment or organization.
4. The adjustment approach	4.1 Whereas approaches of socialization tactics and individual differences tell us what influences OA consequences, this approach goes a step further to tell us how and why such influence occurs.	4.3 At the operational level, conceptualizing and measuring the OA adjustment construct are considered to have many problems because of a lack of consistency in how the adjustment should be conceptualized and measured.
	4.2 It is widely acknowledged that OA adjustment is a multidimensional phenomenon. Exploring and confirming the mediating mechanisms of these multiple dimensions are argued to underscore the unique contribution that OA offers to understanding organizational dynamics (Ashforth et al., 2007)	4.4 Because of the measurement issue, findings obtained using the existing adjustment measures have been described as contaminated (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007)
5. The integrative approach	5.1 Simultaneously examines situational and personal influences on OA adjustment and outcomes.	5.3 Owing to a relative lack of theory in the OA domain, integrative studies are very challenging.
	5.2 Simultaneously offers insight into the dynamics of OA through a relatively comprehensive lens, which reflects a socializee's adjustment to the job, role, cultural, and psychosocial systems.	5.4 Little research from the integrative approach has occurred in OA literature. More research is needed.

2.7 Timing Issues Associated With the OA Phenomenon

Generally, three common questions are associated with, and reflective of, the timing issue. These are as follows: (a) Who should be regarded as a newcomer/outsider or an old-timer/insider? (b) Following his or her organizational entry or job change, how long will an individual's OA last? and (c) What is the appropriate time for data collection?

2.7.1 Who Should be Labeled a Newcomer or Old-timer?

It is generally agreed that upon entering his or her new workplace or job, an individual in the organizational setting is often labeled a newcomer or an outsider. From that day forward, his or her postentry phase of the OA process starts (e.g., Ardts, Jansen, & Van Der Velde, 2001). But no agreement has been reached regarding answers to questions such as, when should this newcomer/outsider be labeled an old-timer/insider? Many researchers have attempted to answer this question based on the objective and absolute time length (i.e., objective organizational tenure) that an individual has accumulatively stayed in his or her present employment organization. In this conceptualization, a wide variety of newcomer organizational tenures have appeared in the OA literature, ranging from the first few weeks right after organizational entry or job change (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994) to 2 (e.g., Bravo, Peiro, Rodriguez, & Whitely, 2003), 3 (e.g., Gundry, 1993), or 4 (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008) years.

According to McNatt and Judge (2008), some research has alternatively indicated that employees' tenure relative to others in an organization may be more predictive than their absolute tenure, and that the stage in which employees view themselves and how other employees see them may also be important (Rollag, 2004). In this regard, a few researchers (e.g., Rollag, 2000) have viewed an employee's newness to his or her new organization or job as a subjective and psychological construct, rather than an objective construct based on absolute organizational tenure. For example, regardless of their organizational tenure, individuals can be labeled an insider when they mostly answer questions about their employment organization, rather than asking questions about the same. Otherwise, they may be labeled an outsider or newcomer even if they have been in the organization or job a long time (e.g., 2 years).

Given the above inconsistencies, this study has adopted the term *socializee* rather than *newcomer* or *old-timer*. It maintains that a socializee can either be a newcomer or a veteran, since assimilation and reassimilation remains necessary throughout his or her organizational tenure (e.g., Danielson, 2004; Jablin, 2001; McNatt & Judge, 2008; Myers & McPhee, 2006; Waldeck et al., 2004). It can be concluded based on the above that no agreement has been reached on when an organizational member should be labeled a newcomer/outsider or an old-timer/insider. The term socializee, however, is a broader concept that comprises both newcomers and insiders (e.g., Chao et al., 1994; Danielson, 2004; Lutfey & Mortimer, 2003). Moreover, the relatively early stage of a socializee's OA experiences (i.e., 4 weeks and 2 years following organizational entry) has been the most frequently studied absolute organizational tenure in OA literature.

2.7.2 How Long Does OA Last?

In the OA literature, it remains unclear as to when an individual's OA process comes to an end. As noted earlier (section 1.1), among existing OA research, some (e.g., Lam, 2003) assume that the OA phenomenon lasts only for a certain period following the individual's organizational entry. Others (e.g., Yang, 2009, in press) regard OA as an ongoing process by which socializees assimilate over time, assuming that OA lasts as long as one's organizational tenure. Still others (e.g., Gundry, 1993; Huang & Cao, 2008; Klynn, 2001; Kowtha, 2008; McNatt & Judge, 2008; Morrison & Vancouver, 1997; Reio & Wiswell, 2000) fall somewhere between the above two streams in that the objective tenures of socializees in their study samples ranged from less than 1 month to 3 or 4 years. This stream underscores the relatively early OA stage following a socializee's organizational entry or job change for several reasons. Myers (2005b), for example, noted that an individual's organizational changes right after his or her organizational entry or job change are usually drastic and more easily observed. Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) further articulated the lasting and quantifiable influences that an individual's early adjustment has on his or her organizational work experience.

2.7.3 What is the Appropriate Time for Data Collection?

One more aspect of the unresolved timing issue pertains to the appropriate time for data collection. As presented above, a wide variety of approaches have appeared in OA

empirical studies because a specific theory on the timing aspect of OA is lacking. Major, Kozlowski, Chao, and Gardner (1995) measured OA early on (e.g., 4 weeks after entry) in the belief that most of the effects of OA processes on newcomers appear to occur rapidly, whereas Saks and Ashforth (1997) postulated that newcomer changes in an organization would not become stable for a while (say, 6 months) following organizational entry.

In contrast, Bravo et al. (2003) measured the OA process and outcomes somewhat late, namely 2 years after entry. Lee and Allen (1982) defined new employees as those members with less than 2 years tenure, and veterans as those members with more than 2 years. Morrison and Vancouver (1997) and Gundry (1993) defined newcomers as having 3 years or less of tenure. Huang and Cao (2008) treated socializees whose organizational tenures were within 4 years as newcomers. Additionally, Morrison (1993b) argued that some changes (e.g., imitation of desired behaviors) may occur relatively early on, whereas others (e.g., internalization of an organization's norms) take much longer to occur. Finally, scholars (e.g., Myers, 2005a, 2005b) in some disciplines such as communication have contended that socializee's OA can be captured and measured at any cross-sectional time within an individual's organizational tenure. In sum, the appropriate timing for data collection remains an unresolved issue in the OA domain.

2.8 OA Research in China

According to Wang and Ling (2006), the OA concept was introduced into Chinese literature in the late 1990s. Since then, approximately 50 papers have delved into the OA phenomenon. But Chinese OA-related studies have focused mainly on reviews and comments on OA research in the English literature (Yao & Yue, 2008). And although more and more empirical OA Chinese studies have recently appeared, these studies as a whole have been fragmented and poorly understood (Yao & Yue, 2008). The sections that follow review and critique both conceptual and empirical Chinese OA studies.

2.8.1 OA Conceptual Works in Chinese

By and large, conceptual research related to OA in the Chinese context fall into the category of OA comprehensive review studies that focus on introducing and

commenting on OA theories and empirical studies in the English literature. Such works have been contributed by Wang and Ling (2006, 2008), Wei (2008a), and Wang and Zhu (2006, 2010). Meanwhile, Liu (2003) conceptually introduced the OA tactics approach and Yan and Ding (2007) introduced the concept of newcomer behavioral proactivity. Beyond these introductory efforts, Liu and Yang (2008) redefined newcomer orientation tactics employed by the organization, and Xiang (2010) outlined potential factors affecting repatriates' work adjustment in the organizational context. Lastly, Yao and Yue (2008) theoretically proposed a new model of OA, in which OA proximal and distal outcomes are indirectly influenced by a set of OA antecedents, including both personal and environmental factors, through a set of hypothesized symbolic interaction mechanisms. Thus far, this theoretical model, to the author's knowledge, has not been empirically tested.

2.8.2 OA Empirical Studies in Chinese

In line with the OA English literature, existing OA empirical studies documented in Chinese fall largely into five categories or approaches. First, by taking the stage model approach, Wei (2004) investigated newcomers' unmet expectations of hotel jobs and found lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of TI for newcomers. In the same vein, Li, Yao, and Yue (2006) explored newcomers' job expectations, which they found were influenced by others' expectations, experience at school, recruitment, and the newcomers' own perceived stress.

Second, a handful of OA studies in Chinese have taken the OST approach to studying the socializee OA phenomenon. Thus far, institutionalized OST has been found to be related to Chinese socializees' TI (e.g., Li & Xu, 2008), job satisfaction (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008), and organizational commitment (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008; Tan & Liao, 2005). Wang and Shi (2006b) found that the actual OST tactics employed by business organizations based on mainland China were influenced by geographic location and industry, and by the organization itself at different times and with different socializees.

Third, few studies have taken the individual differences approach to studying OA in the Chinese literature to date. Shi and Wang (2007), for example, empirically examined newcomers' information-seeking behavior and found that newcomer organizational tenure and work experience had no effect on such behavior.

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Fourth, a handful of research has taken the adjustment approach to studying the OA phenomenon. Zhao, Wang, and Ling (2007) explored OA adjustment dimensions from the learning perspective by proposing and validating four dimensions of OA adjustment: organizational culture, job competency, interpersonal relationships, and organizational politics. These dimensions are actually quite similar to some of Chao et al.'s (1994) content area of organizational socialization. Likewise, Xu, Wang, and Liu (2008) also proposed four dimensions of OA adjustment from the same learning perspective; notably, their four dimensions have the same labels used by Zhao et al. (2007). Xu et al. (2008) also went a step further to examine the causal linkages between each of the four adjustment dimensions and four OA consequences, including job satisfaction, job performance, and TI. They found that job performance was positively related to job competency and interpersonal relationships, job satisfaction was positively related to interpersonal relationships, and TI was positively influenced by organizational politics.

Fifth, a few Chinese-based OA studies have taken the integrative approach. By integrating the individual differences and OA adjustment approaches, Wang and Shi (2006a) found that socializees' generalized self-efficacy beliefs and perceived psychological contracts were positively related to their learning effectiveness and professional dedication, respectively. By taking the interactionist approach, Wei (2008b) found that the effects of newcomers' unmet expectations on job satisfaction and TI were each moderated by team-member exchange and leader-member exchange, respectively. Finally, using an integrative approach, Huang and Cao (2008) successfully identified the significant mediation of person-organization fit perception on OST's effects on respective OA consequences in terms of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and organizational commitment.

2.8.3 Synopsis of OA Research in Mainland China

Taken together, the OA research output in mainland China has lagged far behind OA work published in English in both quality and quantity. Thus far, only one OA theoretical framework has been proposed in the mainland Chinese context, namely the person-environment interactionist model proposed by Yao and Yue (2008), although it has not yet been empirically tested. As for empirical studies, this area is fragmented and unsystematic, albeit some recent progress has been made. Jointly, the foregoing would suggest that much more work is needed to capture fully OA dynamics in the

Chinese context. This need is particularly felt considering that for the most part, OA findings from Western samples might not be generalizable to explain effectively the OA process and outcomes in the Chinese context owing to national cultural differences (Wang & Zhu, 2010).

2.9 OA Practice and Research in the Hospitality and Tourism Domain

2.9.1 OA Practice in Hotels

It is well-known that hotels are essentially people based and labor intensive and that hotel employee turnover rate is usually higher than many other industries (Zuber, 2001). These characteristics help single out the importance of employers' success in socializing their employees. To achieve socialization success, hotel employers usually employ means of implementing comprehensive training and orientation programs, building supportive relationships, providing mentoring services, reassimilating old-timers by rotating their jobs, among others.

Hotels differ from each other in terms of how long training and orientation programs last, although luxury hotels both at home and abroad lay emphasis on such programs in the belief that they impact newcomers' adjustment positively. A review of the literature indicated that such programs usually last for one week to one month in China's domestic luxury hotels (Yuan, 2002), three months in Marriott hotels (Woods, 1992) and Four Seasons hotels (Hinkin & Tracey, 2010). In addition, such programs often involve various activities including classroom training, cross-functional exposure, formal testing, among many other experiential activities (Hinkin & Tacey, 2010). For example, an experience of being treated as a guest who stays at the Four Seasons for 24 hours enables a new employee a direct means for learning about Four Seasons' guest service philosophy and standards (Hinkin & Tracey, 2010).

Comparatively speaking, Nelson and Quick (1991) suggested that building supportive relationships is more important to newcomers than orientation and training programs. They argue that there may be little benefit associated with attempting to effectively integrate newcomers, through socialization activities, into the existing organizational systems. Similarly, Lundberg and Young (1997) noted that newcomers look everywhere

for clues, not just in orientation and training programs. Their study findings revealed that, of all information that newcomers attend to, critical incidents involving training and orientation are not the most important. Furthermore, for recent newcomers and/or oldtimers, hotels also employ such means as job rotation, job enrichment, and job redesign, among others to achieve a better fit between socializees and their employment organizations.

2.9.2 OA Research in the Hospitality and Tourism Domain

A review of the literature indicates that studies delving into the employee OA phenomenon in the tourism and hospitality context have been rare. Among them, some have taken the stage model approach to studying socializees' OA experience, others the OST or adjustment approach, and still others the integrative approach.

Research Related to the Stage Models. According to Fisher (1986), stage model researchers have attempted to specify the various stages by which socializees move from being a naïve outsider to a fully socialized insider. A few studies in the tourism and hospitality domain fall within this category and have focused specifically on socializee experiences such as surprise and sense making or the "*reality shock*" following their organizational entry (detailed next).

Walmsley, Thomas, and Jameson (2006) explored the *surprise* and subsequent *sense making* of intern newcomers in small- to medium-sized tourism and hospitality enterprises. They found that the surprises intern newcomers encountered were not as dramatic as suggested by the literature on organizational entry, and that a number of small- to medium-sized characteristic employment experiences were confirmed while others were questioned. Similarly, following their organizational entry, newcomers were often afflicted by an unmet expectation, referred to as a reality shock, associated with their organizational entry experiences.

Reality shock is said to occur if an employee's expectations are not met following his or her entry into an organization. In this regard, Lam and his colleagues have contributed significantly to the OA literature in the tourism and hospitality context, while focusing on newcomers' met and unmet expectations before and after organizational entry. Specifically, Lam (2003) investigated newcomer reality shock (i.e., preentry job

expectations and postentry perceptions of job motivation factors) as well its interactional effects (via leader-member exchange and team-member exchange) on OA consequences (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and TI). He found that team-member exchange produced a moderating effect on organizational commitment and leader-member exchange on TI. Similarly, Lam, Pine, and Baum (2003) found that the interactions of subjective norms with a newcomer's reality shock had effects on job satisfaction but not on TI. Finally, focusing on newcomers' met or unmet expectations, Lam and his colleagues (i.e., Lam & Ching, 2007; Lam & Zhang Qiu, 2003; Lam, Lo, & Chan, 2002) have made significant contributions to the OA literature.

Research on OA Adjustment as well as its Antecedents and Outcomes. Among the seven existing *OA adjustment* measurement scales in the literature (Table 4), only the one contributed by Myers and Oetzel (2003) has clearly indicated that its sampled organizations had been partly based on hotels. Specifically, six OA adjustment dimensions were explored in Myers and Oetzel's study: job competency, role negotiation, acculturation, recognition, familiarity with others, and involvement. In addition, part of the seven existing OA adjustment measurement scales has been validated by using newcomers in the hospitality and tourism organizations. Song and Chathoth (2010) for example, have investigated Taorimina' (2004) OA adjustment scales including training, understanding, co-worker support, and future prospect. Moreover, some OA adjustment dimensions that are not included in any of the seven popular measurement scales have also been investigated among socializees in hospitality and tourism organizations. They include, for example, person-organization fit (Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press) dimension, among others.

The antecedents of OA adjustment can be clustered into two types: *factor in the organization* or *factors in the person.* Among factors in the organization, OST, mentoring, training and orientation, supervisory leadership, and the likes, are quite relevant to the OA phenomenon. Specifically, OST construct contributed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) stands for the structured and purposeful tactics employed by the organization to socialize its new members. Todate, empirical findings regarding the OST contruct as well as its direct and indirect effects has not, to the author's knowledge, been documented in the hospitality and tourism domain. Some OST's related constructs have, however, been investigated in the same domain. To name a few, Choi and Dickson (2010) found that management training program lead to greater hotel

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employee satifaction and a reduction of employee turnover. Lam, Lo, and Chan (2002) reported that mentorship was related to newcomer's organizational commitment. Finally, Kim and Jogaratnam (2010) documented that supervisory leadership was associated with intent to stay.

In the tourism and hospitality context, the investigated factors in the person that may affect OA adjustment as well as its consequences include demographic characteristics, subjective norms, self-efficacy, self-esteem, among others. To name a few, Lo and Lam (2002) found that newcomers with tenures of three years or below were less committed, than their counterparts of old-timers, to their employment hotel organzations. Song and Chathoth (2010; 2010, inpress) reported that intern newcomers generalized self-efficacy and global self-esteem perceptions were positively related to their OJS perceptions in the placement organizations. Lastly, Lam, Pine, and Baum (2003) reported that newcomers' subjective norms were positively related to job satisfaction, but were negatively related to turnover intentions.

The consequences of OA adjustment have attracted a number of empirical studies in the hospitality and tourism domains. Thus far, among the consequences, turnover and/or turnover intentions have received most attention (e.g., Kennedy & Berger, 1994; Lam et al., 2002; Lam et al., 2003; Madanoglu, Moreo, & Leong, 2003; Choi & Dickson, 2010), followed by job satifaction (e.g., Choi & Dickson, 2010; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Song & Chathoth, 2010, 2010, in press; Lam et al., 2003), job performance (e.g., Tracey, Sturman, & Tews, 2007; Karatepe & Uludag, 2008), and organizational commitment (e.g., Lam et al., 2002), burnout (e.g., Kim, Shin, & Umbreit, 2007), among others.

The Integrative Approach. In terms of integrative studies exploring interactional effects, a small number of OA studies in the hospitality and tourism domain have taken at least two of the outlined five approaches of OA research thus far. Notably, most of the foregoing efforts of Lam and his colleagues (e.g., Lam et al., 2003) have in fact explored the interactional effects between situational factors (e.g., job characteristic factors) and personal factors (e.g., subjective norms) on OA consequences. A very recent work contributed by Song and Chathoth (2010) has continued this paradigm, documenting that the general job satisfaction and intentions to return to the placement organization of intern newcomers can be incrementally

explained by most of the respective interactions between general self-efficacy and the four organizational socialization inventory dimensions (Taormina, 1994, 2004).

In terms of integrative studies exploring mediational effects, some scholars in the tourism and hospitality domain have begun to employ SEM techniques to identify the mediating mechanisms in the OA phenomenon in response to the repeated calls for mediational effects during the socializee OA process (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Yang (2009, in press), for example, investigated the job satisfaction of Taiwan hotel employees as well as its antecedents (role ambiguity and conflict, burnout, socialization, and work autonomy) and consequences (affective and continuance commitment, absenteeism, and employee TI). Their results indicated that role conflict, burnout, socialization, and work autonomy, but not role ambiguity, significantly predicted job satisfaction, and that job satisfaction significantly contributed to psychological outcomes in terms of organizational effectiveness (i.e., the foregoing consequences). An additional example is the study of Song and Chathoth (2010, in press), which reported that the person-organization fit of intern newcomers fully mediated the relationship between global self-esteem and choice intentions, and partially the relationship between global self-esteem and OJS.

2.10 Summary of Chapter 2

Chapter 2 reviews and critiques in greater detail the five major approaches that have emerged from the OA literature, namely, the stage model approach, the OST approach, the individual differences approach, the adjustment approach, and the integrative approach. The contributions and limitations of each approach have been summarized and research gaps in the OA field have been identified. The above shows that any one of the first four approaches may not be superior compared with the others, and each of the four may provide novel insights, because a way of seeing is also a way of not seeing. But comparatively, the integrative approach is the most comprehensive and powerful way to capture novel insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon.

While reviewing each of the five approaches, this chapter outlines the issue of the multiplicity of factor structures that have emerged in the individual differences approach (i.e., the CSE construct in this approach), the OST approach (i.e., the OST construct), and the adjustment approach (i.e., the adjustment dimensions). It stresses

that measurement problems have greatly hampered OA research and in turn OA practices as well. In consequence, this study has postulated that an integrative approach to developing both OA measurement models and structural models is perhaps presently the best way to work around most problems in the OA field. Doing so could thereby increase the likelihood of substantially advancing OA theory.

The third major component of this chapter involves the timing issue. The chapter has shown that there is still no agreement over who should be labeled newcomers or old-timers, how long a typical OA process lasts, or what the appropriate time is for data collection in a given OA empirical study. Finally, OA studies occurred in the Chinese context and in the hospitality and tourism domain have also been reviewed and discussed.

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CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

This chapter first goes into greater detail on the overall conceptual framework for the study (Figure 1) by presenting the theoretical foundations and justifications for it. Second, the chapter further reviews the existing OA literature that is particularly relevant both to the proposed latent constructs within the framework and to the causal relationships among those constructs. Finally, a series of research hypotheses based on the above are developed for this study.

3.1 Theoretical Foundations of the Causal Paths

As Figure 1 shows, a socializee's CSE and perceived OST will, at any cross-sectional time point, predict his or her concurrent OA consequences, including OJS, OJP, and TI, both directly and indirectly (via the socializee's concurrently perceived OA adjustment dimensions comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification). These causal linkages largely reflect certain existing OA theoretical propositions. Saks and Ashforth (1997), for example, posited that both organizational and personal factors result in a socializee's proximal OA outcomes (i.e., OA adjustment dimensions such as role clarity), which in turn lead to distal OA outcomes (i.e., consequences such as OJS). More specifically, the paths outlined in Figure 1 can be further divided into two main causal paths: the OST-adjustment-consequence path and the CSE-adjustment-consequence path. A review of the literature indicates that for the most part, each of these two is rooted in and based on their respective theoretical foundations (detailed next).

3.1.1 The OST-Adjustment-Consequence Path

Regarding the OST-adjustment-consequence path, researchers have attempted to draw from uncertainty reduction theory (Berger, 1979) to explain this linkage heuristically

(Bauer et al., 2007). In other words, usually the organization intentionally employs certain socialization tactics to cope proactively with the uncertainty encountered by socializees after their organizational entry, leading to facilitation of the achievement of a higher level of adjustment success (e.g., a higher level of task mastery and lower level of role conflict) by the socializees. Adjustment success in turn should result in more positive OA consequences, including higher job satisfaction, higher job performance, and lower TI (Allen, 2006; Bauer et al., 2007; Harrison et al., 2004; Jones, 1986; Saks et al., 2007).

3.1.2 The CSE-Adjustment-Consequence Path

With respect to the CSE-adjustment-consequence path, no study has directly captured it thus far. But some well-established theories have purposively tapped the causal relationships between two of these three constructs. First, Judge et al. (1997) were the first researchers who formally theorized the direct effect of CSE on job satisfaction. In particular, Judge et al. (1997) theoretically proposed that each of the three core self-evaluations component variables—general self-esteem (p. 162), general self-efficacy (p. 163), and emotional stability (p. 164)—will positively influence job satisfaction. In addition, they gave reasons why CSE might affect job satisfaction, as described below. First, CSE has a direct effect on job satisfaction "through a process of emotional generalization" (p. 158). Second, CSE may have an impact on the process by which the job is appraised. For example, a person who believes himself to be fundamentally no good or worthless but who is given a merit pay raise and promotion, such an employee may regard that he/she is not deserving of the rewards and that the person promoted was "not the real me". In contrast, in the same situation, a person who considers himself/herself to be fundamentally a good person may otherwise think he/she is worthy of the promotion and pay raise (p. 159).

Judge and Bono (2001) conducted a meta-analysis of 169 correlations and found that the correlations of CSE with job satisfaction ranged from 0.24 for emotional stability to 0.45 for generalized self-efficacy. Likewise, when they considered the four CSE traits (i.e., general self-esteem, general self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability) as indicators of a single latent core self-evaluation construct, they found a correlation between the latent construct and job satisfaction of 0.41.

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Second, although the original purpose of CSE was to relate people's trait variables to job satisfaction, the CSE literature has been extended considerably beyond this criterion. One application of CSE theory has been in the area of job performance in the literature external to OA; meta-analytical studies (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge & Bono, 2001) have concluded that CSE stands alongside conscientiousness as an important dispositional predictor of job performance. Third, it is quite reasonable and possible that CSE is linked with TI, although no theory has directly theorized this causality. According to Judge et al. (1997), people with poor CSE are liable to react with fear or anxiety rather than pleasure at the prospect of new challenges. Thus, they may doubt their ability to grow successfully and may attempt to avoid challenging opportunities.

In the context of OA, CSE enables socializees to adapt effectively to a novel and adverse new work environment such that those socializees with high CSE are more likely, than their counterparts with low CSE, to proactively achieve a better fit between themselves and the new work environment (e.g., Chen et al., 2010; Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press). The well-fitted socializees in the new work environment, in turn, are less likely, than their counterparts of poor-fitted socializees, to leave their employment organization. The CSE-TI causality is very much likely to be true because CSE has been argued to be a universal construct that can explain the variance with various domains of human functioning, in general (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer 2005; Judge, 2009; Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press) and socializees turnover intentions, in particular.

Finally, it is also reasonable and possible that OA adjustment functions as a mediating mechanism (at least partially) between the trait of CSE and OA consequences, although no theory has directly tapped this indirect relationship. But some progress has been made toward understanding the psychological (Bono & Judge, 2003) and sociocultural processes that link both traits. Research (e.g., Erez & Judge, 2001) external to OA, for example, found that CSE was linked to motivation and that motivation mediated much of the relationship between CSE and job performance. OA studies have also been supportive of the trait-adjustment-consequence relationship. Ashforth et al. (2007), for instance, argued that if the learning dimension of OA adjustment is in fact at the heart of assimilation, then it should at least partially mediate the impact of individual differences on OA consequences. In short, research internal and external to the OA literature suggests that the relationship of CSE-adjustment-consequence is reasonable

and possible.

3.2 Theoretical Foundations of the Framed Constructs

Generally, some of the selected latent constructs (e.g., OST) in Figure 1 have solid theoretical foundations in the OA literature. Others (e.g., adjustment dimensions) have not been theorized consistently in the literature. Still others (e.g., success-related OA consequences) have no overarching theoretical foundations.

3.2.1 Theorizing on Antecedents and Consequences

By and large, scholars have contributed to OST theory (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and CSE theory (Judge et al., 1997) (detailed in Chapter 2, sections 2.3.1 and 2.4.2, respectively). The two antecedents of CSE and OST in this study's framework have solid theoretical foundations in the literature. OA researchers, however, have not theorized the OA success-related consequences thus far. Ashforth et al. (2007), for example, pointed out that no overarching theory of OA success-related consequences has been developed. Bauer et al. (1998) held that what success-related OA outcomes actually means is likely to differ across socializees, organizations, and the like, affecting decisions about which outcome variables are appropriate to measure.

Given this fact, OA researchers have chosen to default to some variation of the "*big three*" success-related consequences, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007). A notable gap of the big three, however, is that they exclude some important OA consequences such as job performance and role innovation (Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). In fact, some studies (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) have begun to examine job performance and role innovation [9] as important OA success-related consequences as well. In addition, owing to the space limitations of the questionnaire, the present study was unable to measure all OA consequences. Thus it has largely followed the traditional big three practices by continuing to investigate job satisfaction and intention to quit, while additionally investigating the job performance construct, in the belief that these revised big three would enable this study to contribute

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[9] Although this study included the *role innovation* construct in the pilot study, this construct exhibited poor model fit (RMSEA = .097; χ^2/df = 5.498; CFI = .894) and therefore was excluded from the formal data analysis.

to the literature more substantially.

3.2.2 The Adjustment Dimensions

Although research on OA experiences shows an implicit recognition or agreement that adjustment is the "heart" or "backbone" of the OA phenomenon (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Harrison et al., 2004), there is much less consensus on how the adjustment construct should be conceptualized and measured. But as Table 4 shows, research into adjustment dimensions has fallen largely into four typologies, namely the task, role, cultural, and psychosocial aspects. Jointly, these four typologies have been theoretically proposed by a number of OA researchers, including Feldman (1981, task, role, culture), Fisher (1986, newcomer learning), Louis (1990, cultural adjustment), Jablin (1982, 1987, 2001, role taking and role making), and Bauer et al. (2007, task, role, culture, and psychosocial). This shows that the four typologies have gained some theoretical support. Thus, this study has used these OA adjustment typologies as a framework within which, all things considered, five adjustment dimensions have been selected (detailed next).[10]

3.3 The Proposed Five OA Adjustment Dimensions

Specifically, this study explored five OA adjustment dimensions. They are task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. Notably, these five dimensions have been excluded in the most recent two meta-analytic review works on OA studies (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007), either because they have been insufficiently studied (e.g., task mastery) or because they have never been explored or documented (e.g., fitting in) using quantitative analysis in the OA literature. The following sections describe each of these five proposed OA adjustment dimensions.

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[10] Although four additional adjustment dimensions were examined in the pilot study, they were ruled out for a number of reasons, including poor levels of model fit, as detailed later in section 4.6.5. The four dimensions are *job involvement, interpersonal relationships, personal change, and impersonal and difficult situations*, the last of which is defined by Ward and Kenny (1999) as the management of impersonal interactions (e.g., bureaucracy, authority) or awkward or difficult situations (e.g., dealing with complaints, unpleasant people, disputes, conflicts). Again, during analysis of the main data, three of the above four adjustment dimensions, namely impersonal and difficult situations, job involvement, and interpersonal relationships, were ruled out owing to poor model fit. The reasons are explained later in section 4.11

3.3.1 Task Mastery

One of the major tasks facing organizational socializees is learning how to perform their job (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Louis, 1990; Morrison, 1993a; Reichers, 1987; Van Maanen, 1976). Morrison (1993a) defined *task mastery* as learning how to perform the components of one's new job. Obviously, without mastery of one's task, a socializee cannot contribute to his or her employment organization and therefore cannot assimilate well. It is not surprising that more than half the existing OA adjustment measures underscore this dimension, although it has not been labeled consistently across different measures. For example, it has been labeled job competency by Myers and Oetzel (2003), adjustment to job task by Haueter et al. (2003), performance proficiency by Chao et al. (1994), and task knowledge by Ostroff and Kozlowaski (1992). In this respect, while preferring the label of task mastery, this study has continued to integrate this useful and important dimension into the newly proposed OA adjustment measure.

3.3.2 Fitting In and Standing Out

In the OA literature, a small number of scholars have explored OA adjustment indicators in a novel way. Barge and Schlueter (2004), for example, adopted a discursive approach to the OA phenomenon, noting that a socializee's adjustment into an organization is paradoxical: being "just like everybody else" while simultaneously trying to stand out and be noticed. On the one hand, socializees must conform to the key norms, rules, and values of the organization, while on the other they must compete against and cooperate with one another. In other words, socializees adjust themselves into the organization by paying for their organizational membership while simultaneously struggling to stand out in the crowd (Barge & Schlueter, 2004). Barge and Schlueter's study is remarkable in that it echoes Jablin's (1982) theoretical proposition: The OA process comprises both role taking (e.g., conformity to fit in) and role making (e.g., innovation to stand out). Moreover, fitting in and standing out have laid a conceptual basis for this study on which it has developed corresponding items to measure these two constructs using a quantitative approach.

Gaps in Measuring Fitting In and Standing Out. At an operational level, the standing out dimension has never been integrated into the existing OA adjustment

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measures reviewed and summarized in Table 4. Likewise, the dynamic of the fitting in dimension proposed by Barge and Schlueter (2004) has been poorly captured in the existing OA adjustment measure, mainly because the latter was developed before 2004. Myers and Oetzel (2003), for example, made progress in measuring a socializee's organizational acculturation, which is closely related to the fitting in dimension in this study. But the items they used to capture the dynamic of fitting in have scope for improvement. For instance, "I know the value of my organization," an item used by Myers and Oetzel, can reflect only a socializee's knowledge of his or her organizational culture; it cannot reflect a socializee's internalization of his or her organizational value. This is because *knowing* one's organizational value does not necessarily mean that one has *accepted* or *internalized* that value. Obviously, compared with *knowing* one's organizational culture, *understanding* and *accepting* that culture is more likely to indicate the extent to which an employee has adjusted culturally. In a similar respect, research external to OA—that is, research into cross-cultural psychology—has done a much better job compared with OA research.

Paradigm of Measuring National Cultural Adjustment. In the cross-cultural psychology domain, the adjustment by immigrants to a national culture is often referred to as "*acculturation*", which includes "*cultural empathy and relatedness*" (e.g., Ward & Kennedy, 1999, p. 670). In fact, culture empathy and relatedness is quite similar to what culturally *fitting in* conveys in this study.   In the cross-cultural psychology domain, Bojanic and Xu (2006) have effectively measured the acculturation concept. For example, they used an item like "I have difficulty accepting some values held by Chinese" to capture a person's acculturation. Obviously, compared with the word knowing, which is used by OA researchers to measure a person's cultural internalization, the word accepting is intuitively perceived as having higher validity. Therefore, this study has extended concepts and items associated with acculturation from the cross-cultural psychology domain to the OA domain to better capture the adjustment of socializees into their organizational culture.

Defining Fitting In and Standing Out in the OA Context. Following the above discussions, this study proposes working definitions for fitting in and standing out. Specifically, *fitting in* in the OA context denotes the process by which a socializee adjusts to a given organizational culture through understanding, accepting, and internalizing its core value, norms, and practices, among others (Bojanic & Xu,

2006; Cuellar, Arnold, & Maldonado, 1995; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). With regard to *standing out,* this study proposes the following working definition: the process by which a socializee becomes an effective part of his or her employment organization by way of trying to stand out and to be noticed, rather than by being "just like everybody else" (Barge & Schlueter, 2004).

3.3.3 Role Negotiation

When Does Role Negotiation Occur? According to Miller, Jablin, Casely, Horn, and Ethington (1996), role negotiation occurs "when two or more persons consciously interact with the express purpose of altering the others' expectations about how a role should be enacted and evaluated" (p. 296). Increasingly it has been understood that OA is to a certain degree a negotiation process. Louis (1983, 1990) and McPhee and Zaug (2000), for example, argued that organizational entry and membership is a negotiation process, such that organizational members are endlessly negotiating or bargaining among alternative possible meanings, and the process is preferred by the various parties through interactive communications.

Role Innovation or Role Negotiation? In the OA literature, some researchers (e.g., Ashforth & Taylor, 1990) have tended to use *role innovation* and *role negotiation* interchangeably, assuming that these two constructs convey the same meaning. Others (e.g., Miller, Johnson, Hart, & Peterson, 1999) have argued that role innovation is related to but distinct from role negotiation. Before the specific differences between these two constructs are described, an introduction of role innovation is necessary. Specifically, Nicholson and West (1988) referred to role innovation as "moulding the new role to suit the requirements of the mover, ranging from minor initiatives such as variations in work schedules, to more dramatic role innovations such as changes in the main goals of organizational work" (p. 106). Similarly, Ashforth (2001) stated that "role innovation varies from the minor to the momentous, involving the ends for which the role is designed, the means by which the ends are realized, the evaluation of performance, or all of these" (p. 194).

There has been no general agreement on how to define the role negotiation construct itself. Myers and Oetzel (2003), for example, conceptualized *role negotiation* as involving the compromise of employees between their expectations and the

expectations of their employment organizations. Miller et al. (1999) referred to *role negotiation ability* as "employees' belief that communication exchanges with their supervisor can influence the nature of their role" (p. 26). Given these conceptual inconsistencies, the present study defines role negotiation as a process by which socializees change the role, rather than changing themselves, to achieve a fit between the socializees themselves and the roles.

Based on the above, it can be stated that on the one hand these two constructs overlap to a certain degree, but on the other differ distinctively. For instance, Miller et al. (1996, 1999) noted that role innovation is an outcome variable whereas role negotiation is a process variable, and that role negotiation should be predictive of role innovation.

Gaps in Measuring Role Negotiation. To date, Myers and Oetzel (2003) have been the only researchers to integrate role negotiation into their OA adjustment measure. Specifically, they conceptualized role negotiation as involving the compromise of employees between their expectations and the expectations of their employment organizations. Further, they measured this construct using only two items: "I helped to change the duties of my position" and "I offered suggestions for how to improve productivity." In so doing, Myers and Oetzel (2003) actually equated role negotiation somewhat with role innovation. In addition, these two items are not enough to capture the dynamics of role negotiation. The above shows there have been gaps in measuring role negotiation in the OA domain, although role making, including role negotiation, has long been theorized as one important facet of socializee OA adjustment.

3.3.4 Organizational Identification

Organizational identification in this study refers to the self-identification, affiliation, and pride of socializees as members of their employment organizations (Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Zea, Asner-Self, Birman, & Buki, 2003). This means a great deal to both employers and employees alike in today's business environment, because the extent to which employees identify themselves psychosocially as an integrative part of their organization predicts a number of their corresponding work attitudes and behaviors. But despite its importance, organizational identification has received little empirical attention in the OA field, and it has never been integrated into any of the

summarized OA adjustment measures (Table 4) thus far, although self-identification, affiliation, and pride of people as members of a given society have been considered as important elements of psychosocial adjustment (e.g., Zea et al., 2003). To work around this limitation, this study underscores this construct and proposes it as a distinct dimension along with the other four dimensions listed above.

3.4 Hypotheses on the Dimensionality of OA Adjustment

Overall, this study proposes five OA dimensions. The first dimension, task mastery, lies in the task or job, suggesting that a well-adjusted socializee should have a good command of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of his or her job. The second and third dimensions, fitting in and standing out, involve the adjustment of socializees to their organizational culture. They show that this cultural adjustment is somewhat paradoxical: being "just like everybody else" while simultaneously trying to stand out and be noticed (Barge & Schlueter, 2004). The fourth OA adjustment dimension concerns role negotiation, a process by which socializees change the role, rather than changing themselves, to achieve a fit between the two. The fifth dimension, organizational identification, concerns the psychosocial linkage between socializees and their employment organizations. It refers to the self-identification, affiliation, and pride of socializees as members of their employment organizations. Overall, these five dimensions of OA adjustment are relatively new and holistic in that they jointly capture the dynamics of socializees' adjustment to their task, role, and cultural and psychosocial systems following their organizational entry.

Altogether, it has been increasingly understood that the OA adjustment dimensions are multifaceted in nature and that they have yet to be sufficiently explored or confirmed thus far (e.g., Ashforth, et al.,2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Chao et al., 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Fisher, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). This study works around this problem by proposing five OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective. All the above leads to the first hypothesis and its corresponding subhypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The proposed OA adjustment measure is essentially multidimensional, such that each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification) is both distinct from

and correlated to the others.

Hypothesis 1.1: Task mastery presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

Hypothesis 1.2: Fitting in presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

Hypothesis 1.3: Standing out presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

Hypothesis 1.4: Role negotiation presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

Hypothesis 1.5: Organizational identification presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

Table 6 Hypotheses Regarding the Dimensionality of the Adjustment Measure

Code	Statement
H1	The proposed OA adjustment measure in the present study is essentially multidimensional, such that each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification) is both distinct from and correlated to the others.
H1.1	Task mastery presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.
H1.2	Fitting in presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.
H1.3	Standing out presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.
H1.4	Role negotiation presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.
H1.5	Organizational identification presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

3.5 Overview of Hypotheses on Causal Paths

Generally, five types of causal paths in this study need to be addressed. These are (a) the antecedent-consequence path without controlling for OA adjustment dimensions, (b) the antecedent-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-consequence path, (d) the

antecedent-adjustment-consequence path, and (e) the antecedent-consequence path after controlling for the adjustment dimensions. Corresponding hypotheses based on these causal paths are developed accordingly for a number of notable reasons detailed next.

First, as Figure 1 shows, 30% of the constructs incorporated into the new framework have never been explored in the OA domain from a quantitative analysis. These are CSE, fitting in, and standing out. It then follows that the unexplored constructs will further lead to many new and unexplored causal paths (e.g., CSE-adjustment-consequence), for which research hypotheses need to be developed.

The second reason involves the necessity of cross-cultural validation of some existing OA findings. A review of the OA literature indicates that existing OA studies of causal relationships among the selected OA constructs have been based largely on Western samples where an individualist culture dominates, but not on Chinese samples where a collectivist culture dominates (e.g., Claes, Hiel, Smets, & Luca, 2006; Lam et al., 2003; McMillan-Capehart, 2005; Taormina & Bauer, 2000) with only a few exceptions (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008). In fact, more often than not, it is necessary to validate cross-culturally findings associated with people's organizational behaviors (e.g., Kim et al., 2005). This is particularly true when studying the OA phenomenon of Chinese socializees.

The third reason pertains to cross-industry validation of existing OA findings. Overall, the generalizability of existing findings is still limited or unknown because OA researchers "tend to concentrate in the same few occupations" (Fisher, 1986, p. 105). This limitation or critique still holds such that the vast majority of OA studies "use well-educated, white-collar samples, ignoring a broader range of workers and occupations" (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 51). Thus, the existing findings in the OA field are unlikely to explain the OA phenomena of hotel employees for three notable reasons. One is that most hotel employees have no college diploma or higher qualifications; the second is that most OA study findings are not based on hospitality and tourism samples; and the third is that OA research in the hospitality and tourism domain has lagged far behind OA research in general (noted in section 2.9). In fact, only two (OJS, TI) of the 10 latent constructs modeled in Figure 1 have been empirically explored in the hospitality and tourism literature thus far. Therefore, all existing OA causal findings

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should be reexamined, confirmed, or validated using hotel socializee samples.

Finally, it is necessary for researchers to validate or confirm existing OA findings in a new situation where competing influences exist among given constructs on given consequences. For example, it is well known that OST is an important influencing factor in an organization and is related to job satisfaction. But it is not known whether this causal path is still significant when simultaneously controlling for the influence of CSE, an important influence of personal factors. An additional noteworthy example involves the issue of single versus multiple mediation (detailed next).

According to Preacher and Hayes (2008), findings regarding a single mediator's influence on a given criterion or criteria are highly likely to have been contaminated if that influence fails to partial out the influences of other mediators that are correlated to the tested single mediator. This would suggest that it is quite necessary for OA researchers to confirm a given substantiated simple mediation while simultaneously controlling for a set of multiple mediators correlated to that single mediator. In this respect, the new integrative model of this study is a multiple mediation model including some substantiated mediators (i.e., task mastery) in certain given situations, and some unexplored mediators in the OA context (e.g., role negotiation). Therefore, all targeted mediators should be either explored or confirmed within the framework of this study. In other words, the mediating roles of all five proposed OA adjustment dimensions in this study need to be hypothesized.

The sections that follow sequentially develop hypotheses based on the five listed causal paths. A particular hypothesis detailed next may contingently involve either all or part of the four stated reasons.

3.6 Hypotheses on the Direct and Indirect Relationships Between OST, Adjustment, and OJS

The OST-adjustment-OJS relation comprises five causal paths: (a) the OST-OJS path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the OST-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-OJS path, (d) the OST-adjustment-OJS path, and (e) the OST-OJS path after controlling for the mediators. The sections that follow develop corresponding hypotheses based on each of these five causal paths.

3.6.1 The OST—OJS Path Without Controlling for Mediators

OA researchers have focused largely on the direct relationships between OST and OA consequences (Saks et al., 2007). For example, previous research has reported that institutionalized OST was positively and directly associated with a socializee's higher OJS level (e.g., Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). This causal finding between OST and job satisfaction has been initially confirmed in China by Huang and Cao (2008), who used well-educated socializees with at most a 4-year organizational tenure.

Notably, several gaps exist with regard to the generalizability of the OST-OJS causal linkage. The first gap lies in the fact that such OA findings have been based on well-educated socializee samples, but not on such samples as hotel employees, whose average educational level is generally not high.[11] As shown in Chapter 2, OA research in the hospitality and tourism context has been rare, indicating that OA findings not based on hospitality and tourism samples may not work for such organizations, although these organizations are known as being people based and labor intensive.

The second gap concerns cross-cultural validation. It is well known that China is the most populated country (over 13 billion people) in the world. Therefore, the generalizability of Huang and Cao's (2008) findings is still unknown within the Chinese context in general and within China's hotels in particular. Thus, the foregoing discussion leads to the second hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.6.2 The OST—Adjustment Path

Although OST has been found to be related to a number of OA adjustment and consequence variables, all these findings were approached without controlling for

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[11] As shown in Tables 13 and 23, most hotel respondents in this study had an educational level of senior middle school or below.

CSE's influence. In other words, when controlling for CSE, which is known to be one of the most salient OA influences among personal factors, it is likely that OST's influence on its respective OA adjustment and consequence variables becomes insignificant owing to competing influences between personal and organizational factors. Therefore, all existing findings regarding the effect of OST on any other variable of OA adjustment and consequence should be reexamined and validated when controlling for CSE.

As noted earlier, the OST-adjustment relation can be explained heuristically by uncertainty reduction theory (Berger, 1979). That is, an organization will often intentionally employ certain socialization tactics to cope proactively with the uncertainty that socializees encounter after their organizational entry or job change, leading to facilitation of the achievement of higher levels of OA adjustment by socializees. Consistent with this theoretical proposition, empirical studies have initially found that socialization tactics predict some OA dimensions directly.

To date, it has been found that OST is significantly related to only some of the proposed five adjustment dimensions. First, institutionalized OST was found to be positively related to task mastery (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) and organizational identification (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Second, the review of the literature has indicated that no report on the OST–role negotiation relationship exists. Intuition tells us that this linkage is highly likely to be significant, particularly considering that role negotiation is thought to be correlated with role innovation (e.g., Miller et al., 1999), which has been found to be significantly predicted by OST (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). More specifically, institutionalized OST should be negatively related to a socializee's perceived level of difficulty in negotiating his or her role following organizational entry, mainly because the collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, or investiture tactics employed by the organization characterize institutionalized OST, which in turn helps make a socializee's role negotiation process less difficult.

Third, it remains unknown whether OST is associated with a socializee's cultural fitting in or standing out. This is because empirical studies of socializees' cultural adjustment have been rare, with only a few exceptions. Klein and Weaver (2000), for example, found that an orientation program (a formal tactic) was positively related to newcomers

learning about organizational goals or values. In fact, to a certain degree, the two constructs of socializees' learning about organizational goals or values and their culturally fitting in overlap in that both concern the internalization of their organizational culture. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that OST is related to fitting in in the OA context.

Furthermore, fitting in and standing out are two, distinct, and yet, interrelated dimensions of OA adjustment; and that fitting in and standing out usually happen in the adjustment process simultaneously (Barge & Schlueter, 2004). Upon entering a hotel, a new socializee, for example, may often find that he or she is engaged in both fitting in and standing out activities. In the scenario of luxury hotel service, a newcomer is, on the one hand, often told to provide *structured and standardized services* stipulated by hotel management so as to meet hotel guests' needs. To do this, the newcomer has to fit into the existing service system by behaving just like everybody else in the same hotel. On the other hand, the same employee is also expected to provide some *individualized and unstructured services* to hotel guests such that different hotel customers should be served somewhat differently. To guarantee a quality-oriented individualized service, the hotel employee may often be expected to innovate and stand out by thinking and behaving differently from most others in a given space and time in the hotel. As such, it won't be difficult to figure out that either standardized or individualized service alone is less likely to make a hotel guest satisfied; rather, both standardized and individualized services, if provided in an integrative and joint manner, are more likely to make a luxury hotel customer satisfied. Likewise, it also won't be difficult to figure out why fitting in and standing out are both expected in socializees OA process.

One more example of fitting in and standing out concerns socializees' adjustment into organizational culture. On the one hand, a newcomer is expected to behave just like everybody else in the same organization, in terms of the core organizational values, norms, and practices followed and exhibited by most employees in the organization. In this respect, the newcomer has to sacrifice his or her own different values so as to be accepted by the organization. On the other hand, however, not all the existing organizational cultural elements are expected to be followed by all the newcomers all the time. In the ever-changing business environment, newcomers are also expected to bring something new into the established organizational culture, especially those new

elements that are beneficial to an idealistic organizational culture as desired by the hotel management. Therefore, it is not difficult to figure out why socializees are both expected to fit in and stand out in their OA process and outcomes.

Institutionalized OST is known to be collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, or investiture. In other words, institutionalized OST entails essentially well-structured tactics employed by the organization. A well structured OST, for example, should simultaneously take into consideration both fitting in and standing out elements in the OA process, which in turn, create a favorable environment wherein newcomers' experienced difficulties in both fitting in and standing out are likely to be minimized. In other words, institutionalized OST is negatively related to difficulty in fitting in and standing out, respectively.

In sum, only two fifths of the causal linkages between OST and the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions have been documented in the OA literature, whereas three fifths remain unknown thus far. In addition, all the substantiated linkages have been based on samples in Western countries, which have not been tourism and hospitality related. Cross-cultural validation of these findings is necessary. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that OST is related to each of the proposed OA adjustment dimensions, leading to Hypothesis 3 as well as its five subhypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OA adjustment in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.

Hypothesis 3.1: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to task mastery.
Hypothesis 3.2: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.
Hypothesis 3.3: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.
Hypothesis 3.4: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.
Hypothesis 3.5: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.

3.6.3 The Adjustment—OJS Path

In the OA literature, some progress has been made in linking OA adjustment and its consequences, largely when researchers have attempted to test the predictive validities of their newly developed OA adjustment measures. Progress has also been made by OA review studies (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Saks et al., 2007). The sections that follow review the relationships between OJS and the adjustment dimensions.

To date, OJS has been found to be predicted by a number of the learning dimensions of OA adjustment (e.g., Chao et al., 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002, 2005; Haueter et al., 2003; Klein et al., 2006; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Taormina, 2004), albeit not always consistently. OJS has also been found to be related to those OA adjustment dimensions that have received the most empirical attention. Specifically, these are role ambiguity/clarity, role conflict, perceived fit, domain-specific self-efficacy, and social acceptance. These OA adjustment dimensions have further been meta-analyzed in two recent OA review-related studies contributed by Saks et al. (2007) and Bauer et al. (2007).

In addition, a review of the literature indicates that OJS is positively related to socializees'organizational identification (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005), and role negotiation ability (Miller et al., 1999). Role negotiation for example, can affect socializees' job satisfaction perceptions in two noticeable ways. One is that role negotiation activities enable socializees to have experiences on job involvement in general and participative forms of supervision in particular. The other is that role negotiation may result in win-win solutions for role related problems of entry stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity whose consequences are job dissatisfaction and the likes. In other words, role negotiation may serve as a means to remove barriers to socializees' pleasant job satisfaction (e.g., role conflict), which in turn create a more favourable work environment and atmosphere that satisfies both employees and the employer.

The generalizability of the findings regarding job satisfaction's causal relationships with organizational identification and role negotiation, respectively, is, however, still

unknown for two main reasons. One is that only a small number of OA empirical studies have investigated these causal linkages. The other is that cross-cultural or cross-industrial validations of these findings have been lacking. For example, it remains unknown whether these findings can be applied to the OA experiences of Chinese hotel employees in their employment organizations.

It should be noted that there are mixed findings regarding the causal linkage between task mastery and job satisfaction in the literature. Task mastery-job satisfaction causality was significant in Taormina's (2004) study sample, whereas it was not significant in Klein, Fan, and Preacher's (2006) study. This difference might be, in part, due to the different environments wherein the task mastery-job satisfaction relationship was examined. Specifically, additional significant predictors for job satisfaction, namely, pre-entry knowledge and agent helpfulness, were being controlled only in Klein et al.'s (2006) study. In other words, task mastery had more competing influences on job satisfaction in Klein et al's study than in Taormina's (2004) study. This would suggest that it is necessary for the present study to reexamine the causality between task mastery and job satisfaction, particularly considering that empirical studies in this area has been small in number.

To date, it is unknown whether OJS is related to fitting in and standing out, which are actually cultural adjustment variables. To some degree, two newcomer learning dimensions—understanding (Taormina, 2004), and goals and values (Chao et al., 1994)—could be reflective of organizational cultural adjustment, although these dimensions have some measurement problems (noted in section 2.5.1). Nevertheless, these two learning dimensions have been documented to be significantly correlated to newcomers' job satisfaction (Chao et al., 1994; Taormina, 2004). Therefore, it can be inferred that other OA adjustment dimensions, such as fitting in and standing out, should also been correlated to OJS. This inference is reasonable and likely particularly considering that scholars (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) have proposed theoretically that distal OA outcomes (i.e., consequences in this study) should be and can be predicted by their counterparts of proximal OA outcomes (i.e., the adjustment dimensions in this study).

More specifically, job satisfaction could be linked to fitting in the following way. That is, fitting in can be understood as the extent to which a socializee's way of thinking and

behaving at the workplace are just like everybody else in the same employment organization. Such kind of cultural similarities between new socializees and their co-workers are highly likely to result in a harmonious interpersonal relationships that are essentially an important factor affecting employees' job satisfaction perceptions at the workplace. This is particularly true in hotels because hotel organizations are essentially people-based and labor intensive; and thus interpersonal relationships play important roles in shaping socializees' perceptions on workplace satisfaction.

In addition to fitting in, socializees have to stand out in the same process of OA adjustment; and standing out, in turn, can foster their perceptions on job satisfaction as well. More specifically, socializees' perceptions on the intrinsic elements of job satisfaction (e.g., receiving recognition from most others and sense of achievements at the workplace) could be enhanced by the process and outcomes of trying to stand out by ways of, for example, doing the job better and acting more professionally than other co-workers. Based on the above, it could be stated that standing out positively leads to intrinsic job satisfaction.

In short, it is reasonable to expect that an increase in socializees' perceived levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and negotiating the role should be associated with a significant decrease in their concurrently perceived OJS level. Conversely, an increase in their level of task mastery and degree of identifying themselves as effective organizational members should be positively associated with an increase in their concurrently perceived job satisfaction levels. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis as well as it subhypotheses is developed as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJS.

Hypothesis 4.1: Task mastery predicts OJS positively and significantly.
Hypothesis 4.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJS negatively and significantly.
Hypothesis 4.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJS negatively and significantly.
Hypothesis 4.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJS negatively and significantly.
Hypothesis 4.5: Organizational identification predicts OJS positively and significantly.

Table 7 Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among OST, the Adjustment Dimensions, and OJS

Path	OST→ OJS relation without controlling for mediators	OST→ adjustment relation A	Adjustment→OJS relation B	OST→ adjustment → OJS C	OST→OJS after controlling for mediators
OST→ task mastery→ OJS	H2: Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators: task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification.	H3.1: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H4.1: Task mastery predicts OJS positively and significantly.	H5.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.	H6: Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators: task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification.
OST→ fitting in → OJS		H3.2: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in fitting in.	H4.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H5.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.	
OST→ standing out → OJS		H3.3: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in standing out.	H4.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H5.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.	
OST→ role negotiation→ OJS		H3.4: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H4.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H5.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.	
OST→ organizational identification→ OJS		H3.5: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	H4.5: Organizational identification predicts OJS positively and significantly.	H5.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.	

Notes: A. H3: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OA adjustment in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.

B. H4: Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJS.

C. H5: The relationship between OST and OJS is mediated by each of the five adjustment dimensions.

3.6.4 The OST—Adjustment—OJS Path

Notably, none of the five OA adjustment dimensions proposed in this study has been meta-analyzed as mediators for the direct causal OST-OJS relationship. This may be in part because little or no research has been conducted to investigate these five potential mediators. This supports the fact that OA research has been criticized for somewhat ignoring psychological, social, and cultural processes that might mediate the relationships between OA consequences and antecedents (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

With a few exceptions, OA research has been limited in that multiple mediators have rarely been examined among empirical studies thus far. This limitation is critical given the issue of single versus multiple mediation discussed earlier (section 3.5). This suggests that OA researchers very much need to confirm those substantiated mediators in previous OA studies while simultaneously controlling for a set of multiple mediators correlated to each other.

Notwithstanding, recently more and more OA studies have begun to explore the mediating mechanisms of adjustment dimensions. In this respect, two meta-analytic review studies (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) are quite relevant, revealing that role ambiguity/clarity, role conflict, perceived fit, domain-specific self-efficacy, and social acceptance function as significant mediators between several (though not all) antecedents (e.g., OST, newcomer information seeking) and consequences, including job satisfaction, job performance, turnover and turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and role innovation. Furthermore, some empirical studies have also explored OST's indirect effect on job satisfaction via several other mediators excluded in the above two meta-analytic review studies. In a sample of British Army recruits, for example, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) found that newcomer learning fully mediated the influence of OST on job satisfaction. Arguments could thus be extended from OST's indirect effect on OJS via the above-stated mediators to include indirect effects via other potential mediators such as the five OA adjustment dimensions proposed in this study.

Hypothesis 5: The relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS is mediated by each of the five adjustment dimensions.

Hypothesis 5.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.

Hypothesis 5.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.

Hypothesis 5.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.

Hypothesis 5.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.

Hypothesis 5.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS.

3.6.5 The OST—OJS Path After Controlling for Mediators

The direct influence of OST on OJS without partialing out the influence of potential mediators was discussed earlier in section 3.6.1. Here the direct influence of OST on OJS is discussed when controlling for the potential influences of the OA adjustment dimension for one notable reason, namely, that the direct causal relationship between them might differ significantly in two situations: when controlling and when not controlling potential mediators. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the causal relationships between OST and OJS after controlling for the proposed five mediators. The sixth hypothesis is thus developed as follows:

Hypothesis 6: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.7 Hypotheses on the Direct and Indirect Relationships Between OST, Adjustment, and OJP

The OST-adjustment-OJP relationships comprise five causal paths: (a) the OST-OJP path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the OST-adjustment path, (c) the

adjustment-OJP path, (d) the OST-adjustment-OJP path, and (e) the OST-OJP path after controlling for the mediators. The sections that follow sequentially develop corresponding hypotheses on all five paths, except for the OST-adjustment path (detailed earlier in section 3.6.2).

3.7.1 The OST—OJP Path Without Controlling for Mediators

According to Saks et al. (2007), OST directly predicts job performance. A review of the literature indicates that this finding has not been examined in the Chinese context thus far. This causal relationship, however, is also likely to be true in Chinese hotel samples because luxury star hotels in China are known for their good management practices, such that the OST employed within these hotels is, more often than not, institutionalized or structured. Institutionalized OST in turn is likely to result in a higher level of job performance by hotel socializees for one notable reason. That is, *institutionalized* OST consists of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and/or investiture practices, whereas *individualized* OST consists of individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and/or divestiture practices (Jones, 1986). More often than not, well-structured institutionalized OST employed by a given star-rated hotel should enable employees to achieve higher levels of job performance. This leads to the seventh hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.7.2 The Adjustment—OJP Path

Generally, research has linked job performance to a limited number of OA adjustment dimensions. Specifically, Reio and Wiswell (2000) found that a socializee's technical and interpersonal job performance is related to socialization-related learning, a kind of OA adjustment dimension from a learning perspective. Chen and Klimoski (2003) found that the role performance of newcomers is predicted by their perceived empowerment and social exchanges. Bauer et al. (2007) documented that job performance was predicted by role clarity, task-specific general self-efficacy, and social acceptance.

One notable gap in the OA field is that no study, to the author's knowledge, has documented the relationships between job performance and each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions. The importance of OA performance cannot be overemphasized because it is widely acknowledged that performance is one of the best success-related OA outcomes (Bauer et al., 1998; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Likewise, the five OA adjustment dimensions are also important, even though they have been rarely or never investigated in OA empirical studies. Therefore, it is quite necessary to explore the causal linkages between job performance and each of the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions. Specifically, an increase in the task mastery and organizational identification levels is reasonably expected to result in an increase in OJP levels, respectively. In contrast, a decrease in OJP levels should be attributable to an increase in levels of difficulty as experienced with fitting in, standing out, and negotiating roles following a socializee's organizational entry. These postulations thus lead to the 8th hypothesis of the study:

Hypothesis 8: Each of the five adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJP.

Hypothesis 8.1: Task mastery predicts OJP significantly and positively.
Hypothesis 8.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJP significantly and negatively.
Hypothesis 8.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJP significantly and negatively.
Hypothesis 8.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJP significantly and negatively.
Hypothesis 8.5: Organizational identification predicts OJP significantly and positively.

Table 8 Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among OST, the Adjustment Dimensions, and OJP

Path	OST→OJP relation without controlling for mediators	OST→adjustment	Adjustment → OJP [A]	OST→adjustment → OJP [B]	OST→OJP after controlling for mediators
OST→ task mastery →OJP	H7: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	H3.1: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H8.1: Task mastery predicts OJP significantly and positively.	H9.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	H10: Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification)
OST→ fitting in → OJP		H3.2: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in fitting in.	H8.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H9.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	
OST→ standing out → OJP		H3.3: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in standing out.	H8.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H 9.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	
OST → role negotiation→ OJP		H3.4: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H8.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H9.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	
OST→ organizational identification→ OJP		H3.5: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	H8.5: Organizational identification predicts OJP significantly and positively.	H9.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	

Notes: A. H8: Each of the five adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJP.

B. H9: The relationship between OST and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

3.7.3 The OST—Adjustment—OJP Path

Only a small number of OA adjustment dimensions have mediated the relationship between OST and job performance. Specifically, Bauer et al. (2007) found that role clarity, task-specific self-efficacy, and social acceptance mediate the relationship between newcomers' perceived OST and their job performance. Similarly, Saks et al. (2007) found that role ambiguity and perceived fit partially mediate the relationship between some OST factors (i.e., content and social dimensions) and job performance. Finally, Reio and Wiswell (2000) found that newcomer learning partially mediates the relationship between trait curiosity and performance among service industry socializees.

Despite the above progress, additional OA adjustment dimensions are also likely to mediate the relationship between OST and job performance. One set of such neglected OA adjustment dimensions involves the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions, whose mediating roles between OST and OJS are very promising; this is because such indirect causal paths are consistent with their corresponding theoretical proposition as per Saks and Ashforth's (1997) study and initial empirical findings in this area contributed by Bauer et al. (2007) and Saks et al. (2007). Therefore, in terms of the indirect effect of OST on OJS, arguments could be extended from existing mediators such as role clarity and social acceptance to the five potential mediators proposed in this study, resulting in the 9th hypothesis as well as its subhypotheses:

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between OST and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions, respectively.

Hypothesis 9.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.

Hypothesis 9.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.

Hypothesis 9.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.

Hypothesis 9.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.

Hypothesis 9.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between

institutionalized OST and OJP.

3.7.4 Relationship Between OST and OJP After Controlling for Mediators

As noted earlier (section 3.7.1), OST predicts job performance directly (Saks et al., 2007). This direct effect is likely to be reduced or disappear if a given set of proximal OA outcomes intervenes in the OST-OJS relation. An example of this would be the (at least partial) mediation of OST's effect on newcomer job performance by a set of OA adjustment dimensions, including role clarity, social acceptance, and task-specific general self-efficacy (Bauer et al., 2007). It is thus equally possible that the significant relationship between OST and OJP might become insignificant or weakened when controlling for the five proposed mediators, including task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. Therefore, it is necessary and important that the OST-OJP relation be examined in a new environment where the five OA adjustment dimensions are presented simultaneously. Specifically, after controlling for the five OA adjustment dimensions, the OST-OJP relationship is expected to still be significant, though weakened, because the five OA adjustment dimensions are only part of the overall OA adjustment dimensions. Even more specifically, greater institutionalized OST should enable socializees to achieve better job performance, leading to the 10th hypothesis of the study:

Hypothesis 10: Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment: task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification.

3.8 Hypotheses on the Direct and Indirect OST Relationships Between OST, Adjustment, and TI

OST-adjustment-OJP relationships comprise five causal paths: (a) the OST-TI path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the OST-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-TI path, (d) the OST-adjustment-TI path, and (e) the OST-TI path after controlling for the mediators. In the sections that follow, corresponding hypotheses on all five paths, except the OST-adjustment path, are developed sequentially.

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3.8.1 The OST—TI Path Without Controlling for Mediators

In their review work, Saks and Ashforth (1997) reported that institutionalized OST is positively associated with lower intentions to quit. Recent studies have extended the OST-turnover relationship, reporting that institutionalized OST is related to lower turnover (Allen, 2006). Li and Xu (2008), for example, found that institutionalized OST is negatively related to newcomers' TI, using Chinese newcomers whose tenure was within 3 years and whose organizations were manufacturing firms in Shanghai. The same institutionalized OST-TI relationship was reported in a similar study conducted by Huang and Cao (2008), in small- and medium-sized enterprises among Chinese socializees whose organizational tenures were within 4 years and who largely had a 3-year college education or above.

But the generalizability of the OST-TI relationship remains limited, because a broader range of occupations has been ignored in OA research (discussed earlier in section 3.5), particularly in the study of the OST-TI relationship. Partly for this reason, it is still unknown whether the OST-TI relationship can be generalized to hotel socializees who predominantly have a senior middle school or junior middle school education or below. Therefore, it is necessary to validate findings regarding the OST-TI relationship across diversified samples such as hotel socializees whose average educational level is usually not high. In line with previous findings (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008), the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI is expected to be negative, in that more institutionalized OST is reflective of better structured and organized socialization tactics employed by the organization, which in turn makes socializees more committed to, and less likely to quit, their employment organizations. On this basis, the 11th hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 11: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.8.2 The Adjustment—TI Path

In one of the two meta-analytic reviews of OA studies, Saks et al. (2007) reported that

socializees' intention to quit is positively related to their concurrent perceived role ambiguity or role conflict, and negatively related to a perceived higher level of fit. Likewise, Bauer et al. (2007) documented that socializees' intention to remain is positively related to role clarity, higher level of social acceptance, and a perceived higher level of task-specific general self-efficacy. Several other OA adjustment dimensions have also been documented as significant predictors of TI; these are newcomer learning dimensions (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002, 2005; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

As to the relationships between TI and the respective five OA adjustment dimensions, a review of the literature indicates that these relationships have rarely or never been explored thus far. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) substantiated the relationship of task mastery with work withdrawal, a construct that is conceptually and closely related to TI. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that task mastery would be negatively related to TI. With regard to the organizational identification-TI relationship, Riketta (2005), in a meta-analysis of studies with samples that included both newcomers and old-timers, reported that TI is significantly and negatively correlated to organizational identification. In line with Riketta's finding, it would be reasonable to extend the organizational identification-TI relationship to populations that include socializees who are in a relatively early OA stage, that is, within 2 years following their organizational entry into their given organization. Finally, the relationships between TI and either fitting in or standing out have not been documented in the existing OA literature. Intuition tells us that a socializee's intention to quit should be higher if he or she has more difficulty fitting in culturally while simultaneously standing out properly in the organizational context. In brief, it could be concluded that TI is likely to be related to each of the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions, although empirical evidence on these causal paths has been lacking for those socializees who are still in a relatively early OA stage in their employment organizations. This possibility lays the foundation on which to develop the 12th hypothesis as well as its subhypotheses.

Hypothesis 12: Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to TI, respectively.

Hypothesis 12.1: Task mastery is negatively and significantly related to TI.
Hypothesis 12.2: Perceived difficulty in fitting in is positively and significantly related

to TI.

Hypothesis 12.3: Perceived difficulty in standing out is positively and significantly related to TI.

Hypothesis 12.4: Perceived difficulty in role negotiation is positively and significantly related to TI.

Hypothesis 12.5: Organizational identification is negatively and significantly related to TI.

3.8.3 The OST—Adjustment—TI Path

Thus far, only a small number of OA adjustment dimensions have been documented to have mediating effects on the OST-TI relation. Saks et al. (2007) found that the effect of content and social tactics (i.e., two of the three OST first-order factors) on intentions to quit were partially mediated by role conflict and perceived fit. Additionally, Bauer et al. (2007) found that socializees' OST-TI relationship was partially mediated by their perceived role clarity and social acceptance. To date, it remains unknown whether the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions mediate the OST-TI relationship, respectively.

Relatedly, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) found that task mastery partially mediates the effect of several (although not all) antecedents (e.g., preentry knowledge, organization influence, and the like) on a socializee's work withdrawal. Thus, it is equally possible that OST, an influencing factor in the organization, could also impact TI indirectly via task mastery. Furthermore, because of the multidimensional nature of OA adjustment, the same OST-TI relationship should be mediated by multiple mediators rather than a single one. It is highly likely, for example, that the same OST-TI relationship would be mediated by the other four OA adjustment dimensions, namely fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. On this basis, the 13th hypothesis can be developed:

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between OST and TI is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

Hypothesis 13.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.

Hypothesis 13.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.

Hypothesis 13.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.

Hypothesis 13.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.

Hypothesis 13.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.

3.8.4 Relationship Between OST and TI After Controlling for Mediators

The direct effect of OST on TI is hypothesized to be generalizable to Chinese hotel socializees (discussed in section 3.8.1). The indirect effect of OST on TI is also hypothesized to be quite likely (noted in section 3.8.3). Jointly, these two hypotheses would suggest that the OST-TI relationship is highly likely to be reduced or diminished after controlling for the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions, indicating that partial or full mediation is likely to occur under such circumstances. Furthermore, comparatively speaking, the OST-TI relationship is more likely to be partially, rather than fully, mediated by the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions for one notable reason, namely, that the OA adjustment dimensions are multidimensional and the five OA adjustment dimensions in fact form only a portion of these dimensions. Therefore, the 14th hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 14: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

Table 9   Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among OST, the Adjustment Dimensions, and TI

Path	OST→ TI relation without controlling for mediators	OST→adjustment	Adjustment→ TI [A]	OST→adjustment→TI [B]	OST→ TI relation after controlling for mediators
OST→ task mastery→ TI	H11: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (i.e., task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	H3.1: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H12.1: Task mastery is negatively and significantly related to TI.	H13.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	H14: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (i.e., task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).
OST→ fitting in → TI		H3.2: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in fitting in.	H12.2: Perceived difficulty in fitting in is positively and significantly related to TI.	H13.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	
OST→ standing out → TI		H3.3: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in standing out.	H12.3: Perceived difficulty in standing out is positively and significantly related to TI.	H13.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	
OST→ role negotiation→ TI		H3.4: Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H12.4: Perceived difficulty in role negotiation is positively and significantly related to TI.	H13.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	
OST→ organizational identification→ TI		H3.5: Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	H12.5: Organizational identification is negatively and significantly related to TI.	H13.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	

Notes: A. H12: Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to TI.

B. H13: The relationship between OST and TI is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

3.9 Hypotheses on the Direct and Indirect Relationships Between CSE, Adjustment, and OJS

The CSE-adjustment-OJS relationships comprise five causal paths: (a) the CSE-OJS path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the CSE-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-OJS path, (d) the CSE-adjustment-OJS path, and (e) the CSE-OJS path after controlling for the mediators. In the sections that follow, corresponding hypotheses on all five paths, except for the adjustment-OJS path, are developed sequentially.

3.9.1 The CSE—OJS Path Without Controlling for Mediators

Judge et al. (1997) theorized that an individual's CSE level has a direct and positive influence on his or her job satisfaction. They argued that personal traits such as CSE are relatively stable and can affect a person's job satisfaction irrespective of the job's attributes, and that an individual's self-appraisal affects his or her interpretation of everything else, including his or her job. Weitz (1952), for example, found that individuals with a tendency to complain about their life in general were more dissatisfied with their job in particular.

In the OA domain, empirical evidence on CSE-OJS causality, however, has been lacking (Ashforth et al., 2007). Notwithstanding this limitation, OA empirical evidence has lent some support (albeit not always consistently) to the notion that a socializee's perception of job satisfaction is predicted by CSE first-order factors, including generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability.

Taking generalized self-efficacy as an example, Song and Chathoth (2010) found that intern newcomers' OJS was related to their generalized self-efficacy beliefs. In contrast, Saks and Ashforth (2000) reported that generalized self-efficacy was not related to their study samples. These conflicting findings suggest that further investigation into this causality is necessary in the OA domain. Note that generalized self-efficacy is distinct from and correlated to its counterparts of task- or domain-specific self-efficacy. As indicated by their labels, the former is more trait-like and stable, whereas the latter is more malleable and more specific to a given situation. The

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issue of task- or domain-specific self-efficacy versus generalized self-efficacy is briefly reviewed in Song and Chathoth's (2010) work.

In the OA domain, task- or domain-specific self-efficacy has received far more empirical attention than its counterpart of generalized self-efficacy. Traditionally, self-efficacy has been reported to predict, moderate, and mediate various processes within OA (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997, 2000), albeit not always consistently. Thus, building on the findings from self-efficacy as well as locus of control, Ashforth et al. (2007) postulated that CSE may have a strong and holistic influence on a socializee OA adjustment and consequences. This is partly because CSE is known as a second-order factor built on four first-order factors, including generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability. This study thus follows Ashforth et al. (2007) by hypothesizing that CSE predicts socializees' OJS directly.

Hypothesis 15: CSE is positively and significantly related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.9.2 The CSE—Adjustment Path

Although previous OA studies have never documented the CSE-adjustment relationship, they have explored and reported OA adjustment relationships as belonging to CSE's first-order factors. Weatherly (1999), for example, found that a newcomer's emotional stability is related to the four dimensions (i.e., task, language, politics, and history) of Chao et al. (1994). Gruman et al. (2006) noted that the specific self-efficacy of intern socializees is related to their perceived person-job fit and person-organization fit, role clarity, social integration, boss-relationship building, and task mastery, but not to job change negotiation. Besides self-efficacy and emotional stability, the impact of global self-esteem on an intern socializee's person-organization fit has also been explored (Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press). Saks and Ashforth (2000) found that generalized self-efficacy is significantly related to the stress symptoms but not to the organizational identification of socializees.

It can be postulated based on the above that CSE itself should also be predictive of

socializee OA adjustment dimensions such as the ones proposed in this study, because of empirical evidence that its first-order factors, such as positive global self-esteem, can facilitate the achievement of higher levels of OA adjustment (e.g., person-organization fit) by socializees. Specifically, the extent to which socializees tend to evaluate themselves positively should predict their successful adjustment to the employment organization in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation. Thus, the 16th hypothesis of the study is developed as follows:

Hypothesis 16: Positive CSE is significantly and positively related to OA adjustment in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.

Hypothesis 16.1: CSE is positively and significantly related to task mastery.

Hypothesis 16.2: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.

Hypothesis 16.3: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.

Hypothesis 16.4: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.

Hypothesis 16.5: CSE is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.

3.9.3 The CSE—Adjustment—OJS Path

As noted above, CSE is hypothesized to be related to each of the five OA adjustment dimensions (noted in section 3.9.2), each of which in turn is also hypothesized to be related to OJS (discussed in section 3.6.3). It then follows that the five proposed mediators function as multiple mediators between CSE and OJS. Although no study, to the author's knowledge, has documented CSE's effects on OJS via these five adjustment dimensions, one very recent study in the area lends heuristic support. Song and Chathoth (2010, in press) reported that the effect of an intern socializee's global self-esteem on OJS is mediated by his or her perception of person-organization fit. Considering that global self-esteem is a major first-order factor of the CSE construct, and that person-organization fit is also a key OA adjustment dimension, it is reasonable to expect that the CSE construct would influence OJS via several other OA adjustment

dimensions, such as the five proposed in this study, leading to the following 17th hypothesis.

Hypothesis 17: The relationship between CSE and OJS is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

Hypothesis 17.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.
Hypothesis 17.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.
Hypothesis 17.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.
Hypothesis 17.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.
Hypothesis 17.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.

3.9.4 The CSE—OJS Path After Controlling for Mediators

It is likely that CSE influences OJS directly without the mediators being controlled for (noted earlier in section 3.9.1). After the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions are controlled for, the influence of CSE on OJS is also likely to lessen or even disappear (noted earlier in section 3.9.3). Comparatively speaking, the CSE-OJS relation is more likely to be mediated partially, rather than fully, by the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions for one notable reason, namely, that the OA adjustment dimensions are multidimensional and the five OA adjustment dimensions in fact form only a portion of these dimensions. Therefore, this study develops the 18th hypothesis in the following way:

Hypothesis 18: CSE is significantly and positively related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

Table 10 Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among CSE, the Adjustment Dimensions, and OJS

Path	CSE→ OJS relation without controlling for mediators	CSE→ adjustment [A]	Adjustment→ OJS	CSE→adjustment→ OJS [B]	CSE→ OJS after controlling for mediators
CSE→ task mastery—> OJS	H15: CSE is positively and significantly related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	H16.1: CSE is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H4.1: Task mastery predicts OJS positively and significantly.	H17.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	H18: CSE is significantly and positively related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).
OST → fitting in → OJS		H16.2: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.	H4.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H17.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	
CSE → standing out → OJS		H16.3: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.	H4.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H17.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	
CSE → role negotiation→ OJS		H16.4: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H4.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	H17.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	
CSE → organizational identification→ OJS		H16.5: CSE is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	H4.5: Organizational identification predicts OJS positively and significantly.	H17.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	

Notes: A. H16: Positive CSE is significantly and positively related to OA adjustment in terms of higher level of task mastery and organizational identification and lower level of difficulties in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.

B. H17: The relationship between CSE and OJS is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions respectively.

3.10 Hypotheses on the Direct and Indirect Relationships Between CSE, Adjustment, and OJP

The CSE-adjustment-OJP relationships comprise five causal paths: (a) the CSE-OJP path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the CSE-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-OJP path, (d) the CSE-adjustment-OJP path, and (e) the CSE-OJP path after controlling for the mediators. In the sections that follow, corresponding hypotheses on all five paths, except for the CSE-adjustment and adjustment-OJP paths, are developed sequentially.

3.10.1 The CSE—OJP Path Without Controlling for Mediators

In the literature external to OA, CSE has been extended considerably to job performance, although its original purpose was to relate people's trait variables to job satisfaction. In their meta-analysis, Judge and Bono (2001), for example, found that the correlation between CSE and job performance was .23, which is exactly the same as the validity of conscientiousness in predicting job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

In the OA literature, empirical evidence on the CSE-OJP relationship has been lacking thus far. Relatedly, a socializee's domain-specific self-efficacy has been found in Bauer et al.'s (2007) meta-analytic samples. Chen and Klimoski (2003) substantiated the relationship between a newcomer's generalized self-efficacy and his or her corresponding job performance expectations. Ashford and Black (1996) and Morrison (1993b) noted that a newcomer's job performance was positively related to his or her behavioral proactivity. Thus, it can be postulated that the job performance of socializees can also be predicted by their concurrent CSE level. This leads to the 19th hypothesis as well as its subhypotheses.

Hypothesis 19: CSE is positively and significantly related to overall OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.10.2 The CSE—Adjustment—OJP Path

The inherent logic and possibility of a causal link between CSE and OA adjustment was discussed and presented earlier (in section 3.9.2). Likewise, the logic and possibility of a causal link between the OA adjustment dimensions and OJP were also discussed and presented earlier (in section 3.7.2). Given these two, it follows that, in reality, CSE's direct effect on OJP is quite likely to give way, in part, to its counterpart of indirect effect on the same criterion through the proposed OA adjustment dimensions.

But among existing OA studies, empirical evidence is lacking on CSE's indirect effect on job performance. In fact, some empirical and conceptual arguments are partly related to the CSE-adjustment-OJP causality. Using empirical samples of university business school alumni, Thompson (2005), for example, found that a proactive personality influenced a socializee's job performance by means of developing social networks. Conceptually, Judge et al. (1997) argued that, in a new and challenging environment, people with low CSE (e.g., low self-esteem and self-efficacy) may doubt their ability to grow successfully, such as developing new skills and taking on new responsibilities. This in turn further influences their work attitudes and behaviors on any given job. In other words, people with low self-evaluation are likely to react with fear or anxiety rather than pleasure at the prospect of new challenges (Bandura, 1986; Judge et al., 1997), and thus their job performance in the new and challenging environment is likely to be poor.

In fact, compared with individuals with lower levels of CSE, socializees with higher levels are not only more likely to get command of their new job and to behave "just like everybody else," but also more likely to innovate or negotiate to stand out in the crowd when their work environments or job roles do not fit their talent. Furthermore, it is quite likely that the extent to which a socializee has achieved success in role taking and role making will help him or her to attach psychologically. Undoubtedly a socializee's adjustment success in these areas will in turn result further in a higher level of job performance. In view of all the above, this study hence develops the 20th hypothesis as well as its five subhypotheses.

Hypothesis 20: The relationship between CSE and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

Hypothesis 20.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.

Hypothesis 20.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.

Hypothesis 20.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.

Hypothesis 20.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.

Hypothesis 20.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.

3.10.3 The Relationship Between CSE and OJP After Controlling for Mediators

As noted above, CSE is hypothesized to be related to each of the five OA adjustment dimensions, each of which in turn is also hypothesized to be related to OJP (discussed in sections 3.9.2 and 3.7.2). It then follows that the five proposed mediators function as multiple mediators between CSE and OJP. More specifically, this study postulates that the CSE-OJP relationship will still be significant (though reduced in magnitude) after controlling for the proposed five mediators, because these five OA adjustment dimensions are not exhaustive of all the OA adjustment dimensions proposed in the study, leading to the following the 21st hypothesis developed as follows:

Hypothesis 21: CSE is positively and significantly related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

Table 11 Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among CSE, the Adjustment Dimensions, and OJP

Path	CSE→ OJP relation without controlling for mediators	CSE→ adjustment	Adjustment → OJP	CSE→ adjustment→ OJP [A]	CSE→ OJP after controlling for mediators
CSE→ task mastery→OJP	H19: CSE is significantly and positively related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification).	H16.1: CSE is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H8.1: Task mastery predicts OJP significantly and positively.	H20.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	H21: CSE is significantly and positively related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).
CSE→ fitting in →OJP		H16.2: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.	H8.2: Difficulty fitting in predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H20.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	
CSE→ standing out → OJP		H16.3: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.	H8.3: Difficulty standing out predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H20.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	
CSE → role negotiation→ OJP		H16.4: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H8.4: Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	H20.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	
CSE → organizational identification→ OJP		H16.5: CSE is positively and significantly related to organizational identification	H8.5: Organizational identification predicts OJP significantly and positively.	H20.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	

Notes: A. H20: The relationship between CSE and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.

3.11 Hypotheses on Direct and Indirect Relationships Between CSE, Adjustment, and TI

The CSE-adjustment-TI relationships comprise five causal paths: (a) the CSE-TI path without controlling for the mediators, (b) the CSE-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-TI path, (d) the CSE-adjustment-TI path, and (e) the CSE-TI path after controlling for the mediators. In the sections that follow, corresponding hypotheses on all five paths, except for the CSE-adjustment and adjustment-TI paths, are developed sequentially.

3.11.1 The CSE—TI Path Without Controlling for Mediators

To date, it is still unknown whether a socializee's CSE can predict his or her concurrent TI in the OA domain. Some OA findings that are more or less related to this causality have emerged thus far. First, some variables of proactive personality have been found to be related to TI. For example, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000), reported that feedback-seeking predicts lower turnover. Ostroff and Kozlowksi (1992) found that newcomer acquisition of information is related to lower TI. Morrison (1993a, b) established that the frequency of information seeking is negatively related to intentions to leave. But Bauer et al. (2007) found that newcomer information seeking does not predict TI.

Second, a portion of CSE's first-order factors have been reported to be related to TI or intent to return, a construct that is closely related to TI. In their review of OA research, Saks and Ashforth (1997) noted that a newcomer's specific self-efficacy is negatively related to his or her TI. Relatedly, an intern newcomer's intent to return to his or her placement organizations after graduation has been found positively related to specific self-efficacy (Gruman et al., 2006), generalized self-efficacy (Song & Chathoth, 2010), and global self-esteem (Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press).

Finally, positive self-evaluation enables individuals to adapt to and grow effectively in novel and adverse environments, such as assimilating into a new employment organization or being rotated to a new job (Bandura, 1986; Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Judge et al., 1997). Therefore, people with low self-evaluation are likely to react with fear or anxiety rather than pleasure at the prospect of new challenges and thus may

attempt to avoid them (Bandura, 1986; Judge et al., 1997). Given this psychological phenomenon, it is reasonable to expect that a socializee's lower TI should in part be rooted in and reflective of his or her higher or more positive CSE in the OA context.

Hypothesis 22: CSE is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

3.11.2 The CSE—Adjustment—TI Path

In the OA field, no study, to the author's knowledge, has documented CSE's indirect effect on TI through the OA adjustment dimensions. Nevertheless, the CSE-adjustment-TI relation is likely to be significant for several reasons. First, now that the CSE-adjustment and adjustment-TI relationships are each considered to be reasonable and possible (discussed earlier in section 3.8.2 and section 3.9.2, respectively), it follows that some OA adjustment dimensions are likely to function as mediators between CSE and TI.

Second, some related findings in the OA field lend heuristic support to the indirect causal path of CSE-adjustment-TI. In a diverse sample of recent hires, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) found that task mastery partially mediated the effect of preentry knowledge on work withdrawal, a construct that is closely related to TI. In their intern newcomer samples, Song and Chathoth (2010, in press) found that global self-esteem's influence on choice intention (i.e., intent to return to the placement organization, a construct related to TI) is fully mediated by person-organization fit.

Following upon the above, the extent to which socializees evaluate themselves positively and favorably as a person may have an impact on their concurrent TI over and above how well they have adjusted to the task, role, cultural and psychosocial systems in the employment organization. Thus, the 23rd hypothesis is developed as follows:

Hypothesis 23: The relationship between CSE and TI is mediated by each of adjustment dimensions, respectively.

Hypothesis 23.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.

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Hypothesis 23.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.

Hypothesis 23.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.

Hypothesis 23.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.

Hypothesis 23.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.

3.11.3 The Relationship Between CSE and TI After Controlling for Mediators

As noted above, CSE is hypothesized to be related to each of the five OA adjustment dimensions (discussed in section 3.9.2), each of which in turn is also hypothesized to be related to TI (discussed in section 3.8.2). On the basis of the above two notions, the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions may actually function as a set of multiple mediators between CSE and TI. Further, this study postulates that the CSE-OJP relationship would still be significant (though reduced in magnitude) after controlling for the proposed five mediators, because these five OA adjustment dimensions are not exhaustive of all the OA adjustment dimensions proposed in this study, leading to the following 24th hypothesis:

Hypothesis 24: CSE is significantly and negatively related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).

Table 12 Hypotheses Regarding the Causal Linkages Among CSE, the Adjustment Dimensions, and TI

Path	CSE →TI without controlling for mediators	CSE → adjustment	Adjustment → TI	CSE→ adjustment→ TI A	CSE→ TI after controlling for mediators
CSE→ task mastery→TI	H22: CSE is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	H16.1: CSE is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	H12.1: Task mastery is negatively and significantly related to TI.	H23.1: Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	H24: CSE is significantly and negatively related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).
CSE→ fitting in → TI		H16.2: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.	H12.2: Perceived difficulty in fitting in is positively and significantly related to TI.	H23.2: Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	
CSE→ standing out → TI		H16.3: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.	H12.3: Perceived difficulty in standing out is positively and significantly related to TI.	H23.3: Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	
CSE→ role negotiation→ TI		H16.4: CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	H12.4: Perceived difficulty in role negotiation is positively and significantly related to TI.	H23.4: Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	
CSE →organizational identification→ TI		H16.5: CSE is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	H12.5: Organizational identification is negatively and significantly related to TI.	H23.5: Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	

Note: A. H23: The relationship between CSE and TI is mediated by each of adjustment dimensions.

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3.12 Summary of Chapter 3

This chapter firstly goes into greater detail about the overall conceptual framework of the study (Figure 1) by presenting the theoretical foundations and justifications for it. This conceptual framework posits that, at any cross-sectional time, a socializee's CSE and perceived OST have an impact on OA success-related consequences in terms of higher levels of OJS and OJP and lower levels of TI, over and above the extent to which he or she has adjusted to the task (task mastery), cultural (fitting in and standing out), role (role negotiation), and psychosocial (organizational identification) systems. These causal relationships among constructs reflect previous theoretical propositions such that both organizational and personal factors result in a socializee's proximal OA outcomes, which in turn lead to distal OA outcomes.

The overall framework can be divided into two major causal paths: the OST-adjustment-consequence path and the CSE-adjustment-consequence path. Whereas the theoretical foundation of the former path is built on uncertainty reduction theory, the foundation of the latter is based partly on Judge et al.'s (1997) CSE theory. Additionally, the chapter reviews and discusses the relevant theoretical foundations for the selected antecedents, mediators, and consequences.

Finally, this chapter further reviews the OA literature that is particularly relevant to the causal relationships among the 10 selected OA latent constructs, and further identifies research gaps or limitations. It has then developed a series of research hypotheses based on this review involving both the dimensionality of the OA adjustment dimensions and the causal links among the selected two antecedents, five OA adjustment dimensions, and three OA consequences.

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CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the study's methodological particulars such as research design, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis techniques, among others. The later sections of this chapter unfold first the methodological particulars of the pilot study, followed by their counterparts in the main study.

4.1 Research Design

The goals of this study were twofold. One was to explore and confirm OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective; the other was to test the effects of the proposed antecedents (OST and CSE) on the consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI) both directly and indirectly (via the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions, including task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification). To reach this goal, two related substudies—a pilot study and a main study—were conducted among star-rated hotels in Hainan Province, China, between June 2009 and November 2009. Whereas the pilot study was undertaken mainly to explore and identify the desired measurement models for this study, the main study was conducted to confirm those factors identified in the pilot study and to detect causal relationships among the proposed latent constructs for this particular study. Data collected for both pilot and main studies were cross-sectionally designed and self-reported. Quantitative data analysis techniques, such as the bootstrap method of SEM, were used to analyze the data. The sections that follow introduce and discuss the research methodological particulars for both the pilot and main studies.

4.2 Methodological Overview of the Pilot Study

By and large, the pilot study was undertaken to obtain diagnostic information for the main study by exploring and/or confirming most of the latent constructs proposed in

the research framework of the study (Figure 1). Therefore, the pilot study served as a precursor to the main study. For example, analyzing the data collected in the pilot study should lead to identification of the poor or trivial items used to capture the latent constructs. A set of revised and improved items measuring the same latent constructs could then be adapted or adopted for the subsequent data collection in the main study. Generally, the pilot study investigated all latent constructs depicted in Figure 1 except for OST.

The OST construct was investigated only in the main study and not the pilot study, for several reasons. First, the total number of the items used to measure the latent and manifested constructs in the pilot questionnaire was large (Appendix A) even without the 30-item OST scale. The OST measure was ruled out in the pilot study in the belief that one must "sacrifice to win." Second, although Jones' (1986) OST measure has been found to have only moderately satisfactory psychometric properties, no better alternative version of OST measure has appeared in the literature thus far (Saks et al., 2007). The following sections present additional details on the pilot study while highlighting methodological aspects, including instrumentation, participants, procedures, and data analysis techniques.

4.3 Instrumentation in the Pilot Study

Scaling. The measurement data in the pilot study were gathered by asking the respondents to fill out a self-administered questionnaire. Unless otherwise specified, each observed measurement item adapted or adopted for the nine latent constructs captured in the pilot study was measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from, for example, 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The following sections present how each of the nine latent constructs was measured.

Procedures Used for Questionnaire Development. By and large, items used in the pilot study to capture the dynamics of each of the latent constructs were based on existing studies. To ensure the psychometric properties of the latent and manifested variables used in the pilot study, this study implemented the following strategies. First, an extensive literature review was conducted, which resulted in an initial English version of the pilot questionnaire. Second, the initial pilot questionnaire was sent out to seven academic experts, including two chair professors, one professor,

one associate professor, and three assistant professors, for review and comments. Of the seven reviewers, three were essentially bilingual experts who have both Chinese and English cultural backgrounds. Two of the seven reviewers were qualitative scholars, and five were quantitative experts. Their comments and feedback tapped a number of issues such as double-barreled questions, ambiguous questions, scaling, constructs' face validity, identification of key control variables, among others. Based on the feedback from those reviewers, the questionnaire for the pilot study was revised more than 20 times, which significantly enhanced the psychometric properties (such as face validity) of the measurement scales used. Based on the above, a revised English version of the pilot questionnaire was developed.

Third, this version of the pilot questionnaire was translated into its corresponding Chinese version, using a blind translation-back-translation method as described by Brislin (1976). This enabled in achieving functional equivalency between the Chinese and English versions of the questionnaire used in this study. Further, the initial Chinese version of the questionnaire was presented to a panel of 10 respondents from a star-rated hotel in Hainan Province, China. In line with their feedback, the Chinese language used in the pilot study was changed from more a formal language to a more colloquial language, given the fact that most of the respondents in hotels were senior or middle school graduates. The final Chinese and English versions of the pilot questionnaire were then produced based on the above procedures and are presented in Appendix A.

Constructs' Conceptual Equivalence. According to Hui and Triandis (1985), "a construct that can be meaningfully discussed in the cultures concerned is said to have cross-cultural conceptual equivalence" (p. 133). Conceptual equivalence would be a major and key issue for cross-cultural comparison studies. It is, however, only a secondary issue for this study due to the fact that this study's major research objectives are not for cross-cultural comparison on socializees' OA behaviors. Rather, this study is essentially designed to study Chinese hotel socializees' OA behaviors, by largely using existing constructs as well as their measurement scales developed in the Western samples. Nevertheless, in the pilot study, the conceptual equivalence issue has been proactively addressed by implementing the following strategies. [12]

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[12] Likewise, the same conceptual equivalence issue has equally been addressed in the main study.

First, using a blind translation-back-translation method as described by Brislin (1976) has enabled this study to have achieved a functional equivalency between the Chinese and English versions of the questionnaire used in this study. Specifically, the English version of the questionnaire developed for this study was translated into Chinese by one translator. The Chinese version of the questionnaire was then translated back into English by another translator. The author could then check whether functional/conceptual equivalence of the questionnaire in two different languages has been achieved. Some follow-up translations were done for those measurement items that present themselves to have conceptual discrepancies. The functional equivalence between two languages is believed to have been achieved given that the translators and the author are university faculty members who are all bilingual (English and Chinese).

Second, in terms of the using the existing OA related measurement scales (e.g., CSE, OJS, OJP, TI), this study took significant measures to establish the equivalence of scales/measures used in cross-cultural settings, hence complying with the methodological rules that has been suggested in the cross-cultural literature. [13] Specifically, in the process of questionnaire development, this study took into considerations the following suggestions of Malhotra, Agarwal, & Peterson (1996) and Sharma and Weather (2003). One, conceptual equivalence reflects the extent of concordance in the way a construct is articulated across different cultures. Second, instrument equivalence concerns whether the items, questionnaire stimuli, response format are understood identically across cultures. Three, functional equivalence acknowledges the extent to which a construct has the same role in different cultures. Fourth, measurement equivalence examines whether the scale items tap the underlying construct similarly across cultures.

Third, in case that a given construct has no conceptual agreement on its meaning in the literature, this study conceptually proposes a definition for that construct and then further operationalizes the construct by selecting or developing appropriate measurement items to capture the dynamics of the given construct. In the context of this study, constructs such as role negotiation, organizational identification, fitting in, and standing out fall into this category. Fitting in, for example, has been alternatively labeled as *acculturation* (Myers and Oetzel, 2003), organizational *goals and value*

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[13] Likewise, the OST construct and its measurement scale investigated in the main study has also taken into consideration the conceptual equivalence issue.

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(Chao et al., 1994), *understanding* (Taormina, 2004), *normative information* (Morrison, 1993b), among others. In the cross-cultural psychology domain, the adjustment by immigrants to a national culture is referred to as *cultural empathy and relatedness* (e.g., Ward & Kennedy, 1999, p. 670) or acculturation (e.g., Bojanic & Xue, 2006). Besides this inconsistency in the use of terminology, the specific definitions of the foregoing labels for the fitting in constructs also differ from each other. For example, Chao et al. (1994) defines goal & values as "the learning of specific organizational goals and values" (p. 732); Taormina (2004) refers to understanding as "how well the employee comprehends how the organization functions and how to operate within it" (p. 78).

Based on the above, it should be noted that in the OA literature, most of the existing OA adjustment measures simply concern whether a given socializee has the cultural knowledge in his or her employment organization, neglecting the extent to which he or she has accepted or internalized his or her organizational culture. As such, it could be stated that there has been conceptual inconsistencies regarding how cultural adjustment (i.e., cultural fitting in) should be defined and measured. The present study, based on, but not limited to, the existing OA literature, proposes a definition of cultural fitting in and measures this construct using an integrative approach. Specifically, in the OA context this study defines fitting in as the process by which a socializee adjusts to a given organizational culture through understanding, accepting, and internalizing its core value, norms, and practices, among others.

4.3.1 Measuring CSE

In the pilot study, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with 12 statements on the individual's self-evaluation. The CSE adopted in the study was taken from Judge et al. (2003), whose sample items to capture CSE dynamics included "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life" and "I am filled with doubts about my competence." For more information on this CSE measure, please refer to Appendix A1.

4.3.2 Measuring the Five Proposed Adjustment Dimensions [14]

Task Mastery. A total of six items were used to ask respondents about the extent to which they had adjusted to their tasks in their present job. As shown in Table 19, all except for item p2a were retained in the exploratory factor analysis model. In the OA literature, three most popular versions of task mastery scales have emerged: (1) task mastery scale by Morrison (1993a), (2) performance proficiency scale by Chao et al.(1994), and (3) job competency scale by Myers and Oetzel (2003). However, none of the three measurement models has exhibited well acceptable levels of goodness-of-fit (e.g., Taormina, 2004; Ashforth et al., 2007). That is why most OA researchers have not relied on only one source of the existing task mastery scales; rather, they (e.g., Myers & McPhee, 2006; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Gruman et al., 2006) have chosen multiple items from different sources including those items they developed when measuring the task mastery construct. [15] Therefore, this study also did not rely on only one source of task mastery scale. In other words, this study chose items from different sources. As a result, sample items used in this study were "I rarely make mistakes when conducting my job assignments" (Morrison, 1993a) and "I often show others how to perform duties" (Myers & McPhee, 2006). A sample item developed for this scale included the following: "In the present job, I can identify the potential problems before they happen." For more information, please refer to Appendix A2.

Fitting In and Standing Out. When measuring socializee fitting in and standing out in the pilot study, respondents were asked to indicate the level of difficulty they had encountered since entering their present organizations in a number of areas. "*Having difficulty*" was defined as feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed, or uneasy (Furnham & Bochner, 1982) and was measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*no difficulty*) to 5 (*extreme difficulty*).   It is assumed that the less difficulty one has experienced, the better one has culturally adjusted to or assimilated into a given new environment (e.g., Bojanic & Xu, 2006).

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[14] Although four more secondary OA adjustment dimensions were investigated in the pilot study, they were excluded mainly owing to model fit. These four dimensions were *impersonal and difficult situations* (Appendix A3, Items *p3t* to *p3ab*), *personal change* (Appendix A13), *interpersonal relationships* (Appendix A11), and *job involvement* (Appendix 5, Items *p5g* to *p5k*).

[15] Likewise, a review of the OA literature indicated that each of the measurement scales of the other four OA adjustment dimensions including fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification essentially needs refinement or revisions as none of them has been well developed.

More specifically, fitting in was measured by asking respondents to indicate the amount of difficulty they had experienced in each of the given situations (detailed in Appendix A3, Items *p3a* to *p3i* and Items *p3q* to *p3s*). As shown in Table 19, only five items—p3b, p3c, p3d, p3e, p3f—were retained in the EFA model of OA adjustment. Sample situations included "accepting the pivotal values [e.g., what is important and what is not] of most others in this organization," "accepting the common attitude [toward work] of most others in this organization," "accepting the pivotal organizational norms [e.g., what one should and should not do in this organizational context] followed by most others here," and so on.

Likewise, the same measuring strategy (detailed in Appendix A3, Items *p3l* to *p3p*) was used to capture the dynamics of standing out. As shown in Table 19, only four items— i.e., p3n, p3o, p3p, p3m—were retained in the EFA measurement model of OA adjustment. Sample situations were "doing jobs that everyone else is doing, but doing them better" and "acting more professionally than other coworkers" here. More information on these items is detailed in Appendix A3.

Role Negotiation. When measuring the role negotiation construct, respondents were asked to indicate the level of difficulty they had experienced since entering their respective employment organizations. The level of difficulty ranged from 1 (*no difficulty*) to 5 (*extreme difficulty*). It was assumed that the less difficulty one reported, the higher one's development of role negotiation skills in the present organization. As shown in Table 19, 5 items—p4b, p4c, p4e, p4g, p4h—were retained in the EFA measurement model of OA adjustment although a total of eight items were adopted/adapted for measuring this construct. Sample items included "reaching mutual agreements with others on my desirable job changes (e.g., job rotations, shift changes)" and "managing other people's expectations of me in this organization." More information on this is presented in Appendix A4.

Organizational Identification. As shown in Appendix A5, a total of six items (items p5a to p5f) were used to measure the organizational identification construct. Only one of the six items, i.e., item p5f, was deleted; and accordingly the other five items are illustrated in Table 19. Sample items included "I consider myself as being a

member of this organization" (Zea et al., 2003); "When someone criticizes my present hotel, I feel like a personal insult" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992); and "I value being a member of this organization" (Zea et al., 2003).

4.3.3 Measuring the Consequences

Three consequence variables were selected: OJS, OJP, and TI.[16] The adapted OJS scale (Appendix A6) consisted of eight items, three of which were from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh's (1983) study and five from Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) study. An example of this scale is "Overall, I am satisfied with my present job in this organization." The OJP concept (Appendix A7) was measured using a 5-item scale, two of which were from Chen and Klimoski's (2003) study and the remaining three adapted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) study. A sample item of this scale is "In comparison with other employees of the same rank, the quality of my job assignments I accomplished is the best." The TI concept (Appendix A8) was measured in the pilot study using a 4-item scale, two of which were taken from the work by Schnake, Williams, & Fredenberger (2007) and the other two from the work by Colarelli (1984). An example is "I often think of quitting this organization." Finally, OJS, OJP, and TI were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "1" (definitely disagree) to "7" (definitely agree).

4.3.4 Capturing Respondents' Demographic Characteristics

Ten manifested demographic variables were used in the pilot study, including socializees' objective organizational tenure,[17] work experience, gender, age, income, educational level, and so on (Appendix A9). In addition, five paired items were included to measure respondents' subjective newness to their organization, which are illustrated in Appendix A10.

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[16] Although *role innovation* (Appendix A12) was investigated in the pilot study, it was excluded in the formal data analysis of the pilot data owing to its poor model fit indices, as detailed later in section 4.6.5.

[17] Socializees' organizational tenure was based on their actual tenure in a given hotel. But if that hotel unit was part of a *chain* hotel organization and the socializees entered the hotel's chain prior to entering that particular hotel unit, their organizational tenure was then based on their entry into the chain organization.

Table 13 Respondents' Demographic Characteristics in the Pilot Study

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Organizational Tenure			
1-12 months	126	26.2	26.2
12.1-24 months	99	20.6	46.8
24.1 months and above	253	52.6	99.4
Missing	3	.60	100
Hotel Work Experiences			
1st job	184	38.3	38.3
2nd-3rd jobs	185	38.5	76.8
4th-5th jobs	68	14.1	90.9
6th-7th jobs	23	4.8	95.7
8th jobs and above	4	.80	96.5
Missing	17	3.5	100
Sex			
Male	189	39.3	39.3
Female	289	60.1	99.4
Missing	3	.60	100
Age			
25 years old and below	251	52.2	52.2
26-35 years old	169	35.1	87.3
36 years old and above	58	12.1	99.4
Missing	3	.60	100
Education			
Junior middle school or below	97	20.2	20.2
Senior middle school	240	49.9	70.1
3-year college diploma	100	20.8	90.9
4-year bachelor degree	41	8.5	99.4
Master's degree or above	0	0	99.4
Missing	3	.60	100
Income			
¥ 630 and below	52	10.8	10.8
¥631-1000	203	42.2	53
¥1001- 2000	168	34.9	87.9
¥2001-3000	49	10.2	98.1
¥3001 or above	7	1.5	99.6
Missing	2	.40	100
Department			
Line department	360	74.8	74.8
Staff department	112	23.3	98.1
Missing	1	.20	100

N=481

Table 14 Respondents' Organizational Characteristics in the Pilot Study

Organizational Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Hotel Star Level			
3-star	121	25.2	25.2
4-star	182	37.8	63.0
5-star	178	37	100
Branding			
Domestic Branding	434	90.2	90.2
International Branding	47	9.8	100
Hotel Location			
Haikou City	247	51.4	51.4
Sanya City	234	48.6	100

N=481

4.4 Participants and Procedure in the Pilot Study

During the pilot study conducted in June and July 2009, 650 questionnaires were administered to 8 three- to five-star hotels located in Haikou and Sanya, two major cities of Hainan Island, China.   A total of 554 copies were returned, of which 481 were usable.   Hotels were contacted for participation using snowball sampling, and respondents were selected using convenience sampling. Specifically, the hotels were selected for participation based on recommendation from referrals. The (general) managers of each selected hotel were then contacted by a letter of inquiry with a copy of the mainland Chinese version of the pilot questionnaire informing them of the study's purpose and inviting their participation. Following their agreement to participate, each of the eight (general) managers was provided with a sufficient number of questionnaires. Subordinates were appointed by the (General) Managers to administer the questionnaires. To motivate respondent cooperation, a small gift was offered each participant. Meanwhile, they were assured that the information collected

through this study's survey would be kept confidential and would be used for the author's dissertation only. Moreover, the respondents were told that there is no right or wrong response and their answers to each of the questions presented in the questionnaire should be reflective of their real perceptions. Likewise, hotel managers were informed that diagnostic feedback would be provided if their hotel participated in the survey. Tables 13 and 14 summarize the results of the respondents' sociodemographic characteristics.

Geographically, Hainan Island was chosen to conduct this field study for several reasons. One, as one of the pillar industries, hospitality and tourism plays a key role in the service sector and is the most important economic engine in Hainan's development (Xie, 2010; Gu & Wall, 2007). Since 2009, building Hainan into an international tourism destination has been positioned as one of China's national strategies (Li & Feng, 2010). Two, the hotel industry is developing very fast on the Island and accordingly managing and developing human resources are of vital importance for the industry's sustainable development. In fact, hotel human resources managers on the Island are being forced to re-examine their staff development strategies due to rapid over-development and increasing competition within the industry (Song, Mavrides, Holton, Bates, 2006). As such, empirical evidences and findings from Hainan's hotel socializees are very much likely to be informative to practitioners and researchers who are interested in socializees' organizational assimilation phenemonon.

Finally, this study enables a joint exploration on, and delving into, the OA problem as witnessed by hotel practitioners and scholars alike on the Island. In fact, the author's relationship with the hotel industry managers in Hainan was also a factor that facilitated in collecting the data. Furthermore, diagnostic feedback information on the strength and weakness of participative hotel employees' OA are rare and valuable for developing more effective human resources among hotels on the Island. [18]

4.5 Pilot Data Analysis Techniques

AMOS 17.0 and SPSS 17.0 were employed to analyze the data of this study. Specifically, the bootstrap method of SEM enabled by AMOS 17.0 was used to develop

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[18] In the main study, this study also chose Hainan as the field study site for the same reasons as that of the pilot study.

and evaluate individual and overall measurement models for the pilot study. In other words, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted using the bootstrap SEM method for the corresponding measurement models proposed in the pilot study. With regard to identifying the dimensionality of OA adjustment proposed in the pilot study, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted using SPSS 17.0. Finally, a series of descriptive analyses were also conducted to analyze the pilot data.

4.5.1 Exploring and Screening the Pilot Data

Prior to formally analyzing the pilot data, all variables used in the pilot study were examined for missing values, normality, and homogeneity. This section presents the results pertaining to these three issues.

Missing Values in the Pilot Data. Before data were entered into the SPSS file, an initial screening of the questionnaire was carried out. Specifically, a given copy of the returned questionnaires would be discarded if it had more than three missing values, except for those five items used for capturing subjective newness (detailed later). The results of screening the data entered indicated that the five variables used to measure subjective newness had the most missing values, ranging from 12.68% to 13.10%. The study thus discarded these five items (Appendix A10). Beyond these five variables, all other given variables presented as missing either less than 2.5% of their values or none at all. Given the small percentage of the missing values among the retained variables in the pilot data, the study used a mean substitution strategy to deal with the missing data, which is considered one of the best strategies under such circumstances (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). More specifically, Hair et al. (2010) and Newton and Rudestam (1999) argued that if the percentage of missing values present throughout observations and variables in a given multivariate data is less than 10%, any of the imputation methods, including the mean substitution strategy, can be applied.

Table 15 Skew and Kurtosis Values in the Pilot Study

Variable	Min.	Max.	Skew	T Value	Kurtosis	T Value
p2b	1	5	-.761	-6.818	.163	.732
p2c	1	5	-.909	-8.142	.969	4.338
p2d	1	5	-.475	-4.252	-.094	-.419
p2e	1	5	-.499	-4.472	.098	.438
p2f	1	5	-.476	-4.26	.055	.244
p3b	1	5	.744	6.66	-.168	-.752
p3c	1	5	.736	6.594	-.403	-1.804
p3d	1	5	.687	6.152	-.439	-1.966
p3e	1	5	.938	8.401	.171	.766
p3f	1	5	1.325	11.863	.841	3.764
p3m	1	5	.40	3.583	-.655	-2.93
p3n	1	5	1.149	10.288	.793	3.55
p3o	1	5	1.17	10.478	.883	3.953
p3p	1	5	.72	6.446	-.105	-.471
p4b	1	5	1.096	9.81	.565	2.528
p4c	1	5	.789	7.064	.292	1.306
p4e	1	5	.765	6.85	-.302	-1.353
p4g	1	5	.976	8.736	.194	0.867
p4h	1	5	1.031	9.23	.554	2.481
p5e	2	5	-1.083	-9.698	1.191	5.33
p5a	1	5	-.738	-6.606	.018	.079
p5b	1	5	-.675	-6.044	.481	2.154
p5c	1	5	-.483	-4.328	-.422	-1.89
p5d	1	5	-.559	-5.009	.083	.374

Table 15 Skew and Kurtosis Values in the Pilot Study (Continued)

Variable	Min.	Max.	Skew	T Value	Kurtosis	T Value
p6e	1	7	-.518	-4.636	-.354	-1.587
p6a	1	7	-.679	-6.076	-.077	-.343
p6b	1	7	-.239	-2.137	-.537	-2.402
p6d	1	7	-.402	-3.596	-.51	-2.283
p6c	1	7	-.442	-3.962	-.413	-1.848
p7a	1	7	-.092	-.821	-.501	-2.243
p7b	1	7	-.16	-1.43	-.29	-1.3
p7c	1	7	-.194	-1.734	-.236	-1.055
p7d	1	7	.012	.109	-.06	-.27
p8a	1	7	.078	.70	-1.1	-4.922
p8b	1	7	.138	1.234	-1.09	-4.879
p8c	1	7	-.165	-1.477	-1.067	-4.776
p1a	1	5	-.507	-4.538	-.089	-.397
p1b	1	5	.666	5.967	.312	1.397
p1c	1	5	-.529	-4.732	.272	1.218
p1d	1	5	-.34	-3.041	-.585	-2.618
p1e	1	5	-.52	-4.652	.631	2.827
p1f	1	5	.013	.12	-.689	-3.086
p1g	1	5	-.671	-6.012	.412	1.844
p1h	1	5	-.406	-3.637	-.346	-1.548
p1i	1	5	-.431	-3.86	-.398	-1.78
p1j	1	5	-.057	-.51	-.505	-2.263
p1k	1	5	-.54	-4.834	.352	1.578
p1l	1	5	-.36	-3.227	-.721	-3.228
Multivariate					353.088	55.886

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Normality. With regard to normality, the results of checking the skew and kurtosis values indicated that the skew absolute values in the pilot data ranged from .16 to 1.325, and the kurtosis values from .051 to 1.191 (Table 15). These values were far below the conventional threshold of 3.0 as suggested by most scholars (e.g., Kline, 2005). On this basis, the assumption of univariate normality of the pilot data was not likely to be violated, whereas the multivariate normality of the pilot data was quite likely to be violated since Mardia's (1970) multivariate kurtosis value of the pilot data was 353.08 (t = 55.886). In such a situation, estimation methods such as the bootstrap method should be applied when analyzing such multivariate nonnormal data (e.g., Hair et al., 2010; Nevitt & Hancock, 2001).

Homogeneity. As per Field (2005), the homogeneity of variance between socializee organizational tenure groups was tested. Specifically, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was performed respectively on nine factors—CSE, task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification, OJS, OJP, and TI—among three tenure groups (a 1- to 12-month group, a 12.1- to 24-month group, and a 24.1-month-and-above group) and three star-rated groups (three-star, four-star, and five-star hotel groups). The results indicated that all differences in variances of the tested variables among those categorized groups were not statistically significant. For example, the variances among the three tenure groups on CSE, task mastery, and OJS were $F(2,475) = .183$, $p > .05$, $F(2,475) = 1.013$, $p > .05$, and $F(2,475) = .107$, $p > .05$, respectively.

Coding Variables. To enhance readability and to differentiate a given item in the pilot and main studies, all items used in the pilot study were recoded based on the following criteria. First, the first letter of a given manifested variable used in the pilot study was coded as *p* (i.e., the first letter of the word *pilot*), while likewise, the first letter of a given manifested variable's counterpart variable in the main study, if any, was accordingly coded as *m* (i.e., the first letter of the word *main*). For example, one item used to measure the latent construct of OJS—"Most days I am enthusiastic about my present work"—was coded as *p6a* in the pilot data (Fig.5) and *m6a* in the main data (Fig.10). Second, a manifested variable that was coded using a given label was consistently used across all corresponding tables, figures, and texts.

Third, a negatively worded item both in the pilot and main data was labeled with the letter *R* at the end of the given statement (the first letter of *reversed*). For example, "I am often bored with my present job (*R*)" was a negatively worded item for the construct of OJS both in the pilot (Item p6f in Appendix A6) and main studies (Item m6f in Appendix B6). One first-order factor of "*pessimistic*" both in the main and pilot data had to be coded negatively, because the other first-order and second-order CSE factors were all positively coded. Otherwise, the second-order factor values would be biased since the first-order factors' value would have canceled out the other, which in turn would bias the subsequent path coefficients as well. For example, the p1h item—"I am filled with doubts about my competence (*R*)"—had to be coded negatively in relation to its corresponding first-order latent factor of "pessimistic" (Figure 3 and Appendix A1), so that its second-order factor score and the three corresponding first-order factors (Figure 3 and Appendix A1) did not cancel one another out. Finally, the same coding criteria were applied to variables in the main study as well.

4.5.2 SEM Normal Theory Estimation Methods

According to Kennedy (1998), the general terms estimation method or estimator are the formula or recipe by which data are transformed into an estimate. The estimates of interest in SEM are parameters, variances, covariances, or error estimates. The most commonly used estimation method in SEM is the maximum likelihood (ML). Chou and Bentler (1995), for example, noted that the ML method is preferred for its computational simplicity, accuracy, and correctness of statistical results when data are multivariate normally distributed and when the sample size is large enough. But they further noted that when data are nonnormal, the above stated advantages of the ML method may no longer exist. In practice, however, violations of multivariate normality assumptions are common and often unavoidable (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996). In such a case, scholars (e.g., Preacher and Hayes, 2008) recommend that some other SEM estimation method such as the bootstrap should be used.

4.5.3 The Bootstrap SEM Method

One notable approach to managing nonnormality in SEM is bootstrap resampling, which can be described as "establishing an empirical sampling distribution associated

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with a statistic of interest by repeatedly sampling from the original 'parent' sample data" (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001, p. 355). In a landmark article, Efron (1979) first contributed the bootstrap method, which led to a number of studies exploring the method. Recent bootstrapping investigations have emerged within the context of developing both structural and measurement models (e.g., Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Yung & Bentler, 1996). The bootstrap method is said to be a viable alternative to normal theory methods because the primary statistical concern in SEM centers on the sampling properties of parameter estimates and model fit statistics (Yung & Bentler, 1996). In fact, the AMOS program enables researchers to use the bootstrap method by offering bootstrap-derived robust statistics as an alternative to normal theory hypothesis testing methods (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001).

4.5.4 Psychometric Properities of Measurment Models

Generally, the importance of psychometric properties of constructs' measurement models cannot be overemphasized, because "there will always be a question about the extent to which measurement error has contaminated the findings" (Song et al., 2006, p. 444). The present study underscores two typologies of constructs' psychometric properties: (a) measurement model fit indices and (b) construct's reliability and validity. They are detailed next.

Measurement Model Fit Indices. [19] Model fit notes the degree to which a hypothesized model fits the actual model derived from the sample data (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). It is also known as *goodness-of-fit* (GOF), indicating "how well the specified model reproduces the observed covariance matrix among the indicator items, i.e., the similarity of the observed and estimated covariance matrices" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 646). Generally, five typologies of fit indices have emerged in the literature: (a) the χ^2 value and the associated *df*; (b) the absolute fit index, such as the goodness of fit index (GFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), or the standardized root mean residual (SRMR); (c) the incremental fit index (IFI), such as the comparative fit index (CFI) or the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI); (d) the goodness-of-fit index (GFI, CFI, TLI, etc.); and (e) the badness-of-fit index (RMSEA, SRMR, etc.). But despite the above multiple choices of GOF, researchers are little agreed as to the

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[19] It should be noted that model fit indices discussed in this section is applicable to both the measurement model and the structural model.

choice of fit indices and criteria of model evaluation (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). Likewise, no single "magic" value exists for a given GOF to separate good from poor models, and it is unwise to apply a single set of cutoff rules to all SEM models of any type (Hair et al., 2010). For example, for most of the incremental fit statistics such as TLI and CFI, some researchers tend to use a cutoff value of .90, whereas others prefer a value of .95. Notwithstanding this disagreement, research continues to support the following notion: "Model complexity unduly affects GOF indices, even with something as simple as just more indicators per construct" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 652). Hair et al. (2010) further argued that it is *unrealistic* to set the cutoff value to .95 in the case of complex models with larger samples and where a given model contains a large number of measured variables and parameter estimates.

In line with the above, this study chose to use the χ^2 value and the associated *df*, CFI, IFI, and RMSEA for two main reasons: One is that these four GOF indices cover all the above stated five typologies of GOF indices; the other is that the respective models developed for the two substudies are essentially complex models with relatively large sample sizes. The overall structural model of the main study (Figure 12) had a total of used for testing this overall model was 704. Thus, this study's models can be regarded as complex while using a relatively large sample size. Finally, in view of the foregoing nature of the models developed for both the pilot and main study, this study set the threshold value of .90 for CFI and IFI (Hair et al., 2010), .08 for RMSEA (Reisinger & Turner, 1999), and 3 for χ^2/df (Hair et al., 2010).

Construct's Reliability and Validity. According to Hair et al. (2010), *construct reliability* denotes "measure of reliability and internal consistency of the measured variables representing a latent construct" (p. 690). Nunally and Bernstein (1994) suggested that the reliability alpha value of a given latent construct should be .70 and above. In practice, a given latent construct with high internal consistency may not ensure that it measures what it is supposed to measure. In other words, a reliable construct does not necessarily mean that it is a valid construct. *Construct validity* therefore refers to the extent "to which a set of measured variables actually represents the theoretical latent construct those variables are designed to measure" (Hair et al., p. 669).

Furthermore, construct validity is generally seen to have three typologies: (1) face validity, (2) convergent validity and discriminant validity, and (3) nomological validity. First, face validity refers to the extent to which the content of the items is consistent with the construct definition based solely on the judgment of the researcher(s) and/or reviewer(s) (Hair et al., 2010). Verification of the face validity of a given measurement scale is necessary because it enables the researcher to judge whether it is worth pursuing. But it is far from sufficient for at least two reasons. One is that technically it is argued to be misleading to call face validity a type of validity at all (Rubin & Babbie, 1997). The other is that having face validity does not necessarily mean that a measure really measures what it is supposed to measure; rather, "it only means that it appears to measure what the researcher intends to measure" (Rubin & Babbie, 1997, p. 178).

Second, convergent and discriminant validity usually goes in pairs. According to Hair et al. (2010), whereas the former refers to a given set of manifested variables used to capture a specific latent construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common; the latter denotes "the extent a construct is truly distinct from other constructs both in terms of how much it correlates with other constructs and how distinctly measured manifested variables represent only this single construct" (p. 669). To check construct's convergent and discriminant validities, standardized factor loading estimates and *average variance extracted* (AVE) are commonly used. As a rule of thumb, standardized factor loading estimates should be .50 or higher for exploratory factor analysis and ideally .70 or higher for confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Adequate convergent validity of a given construct will be suggested when its corresponding AVE values are all .50 or greater; likewise, evidence of discriminant validity between two given constructs will be guaranteed if AVE estimates for the two constructs are greater than the square of the correlation between the two constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Third, *nomological validity* concerns test of validity that examines whether the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense (Hair et al., 2010). In assessing nomological validity, the matrix of construct correlations can be useful.

In short, it is imperative that the constructs' psychometric properties exhibit acceptable levels of measurement model fit, construct reliability, and construct validity. Without sound psychometric properties such as valid and reliable instrumentation, researchers

will be limited in their ability to reach conclusions and prescriptions on the problems of interest.

4.5.5 Sample Size

In addition to the above-stated normality issue, one more very important issue for SEM concerns sample size. Although no rule can apply to all SEM models (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006), it is generally agreed that "the minimum is to have at least five times as many observations as the number of variables to be analyzed and the more acceptable sample size would have a 10:1 ratio" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 102). Some researchers have even proposed a minimum of 20 cases for each variable (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, in performing a "20 itemed factor analysis, 100 observations would probably be too few, but for a 90-itemed factor analysis, 400 might be adequate" (DeVellis, 1991, p. 137). Therefore, in terms of factor analysis, a ratio of 5-10 observations per item should be up to 300 observations, with 300 regarded as good, 500 as very good, and 1000 as excellent (DeVellis, 1991).

From the above, the rule of thumb used for this study was 5:1 to 15:1. In other words, the sample size or observations used for the main study should have fallen somewhere between 340 and 1020, since 68 manifested variables were used in the main study's overall structural model (Figures 11 and 12). As for the pilot study, there were 48 manifested variables (Figure 6), which required a sample size between 240 and 720. In this respect, these samples in the main study (704 observations) and in the pilot (481 observations) fell right within the above-stated ranges. But the rule of thumb stated above can be applied only to those SEM methods based on multivariate normally distributed data.

For multivariate nonnormal data, the above rule of thumb could be applied only to determine the parent sample size. The rule of thumb for bootstrapping a sample size based on and derived from the parent samples was subject to some additional criteria. Again, there is no generally agreed upon criterion as to how many bootstraps should be produced for a given situation (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001). A review of the literature in this area indicates that among empirical studies using the bootstrap resampling technique, the generated bootstrap sample size usually ranged from 200 to 5000 (Lee, Chen, & Lu, 2009; Nevitt & Hancock, 2001; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Moreover,

Preacher and Hayes (2008) argued that more is better when generating bootstrap samples for detecting path causal relationships. On the basis of the above and given the complexity of the models developed in this study, 2500 and 5000 bootstraps were tailored for individual single models (e.g., the model in Figure 3) and each of the overall models (e.g., the model in Figure 6), respectively.

4.6 Results of the Measurement Models in the Pilot Study

The overall measurement model of the pilot study (Figure 6) was based on each of the three individual measurement models: (a) the best CSE competing measurement model, (b) the measurement model of the adjustment dimensions, and (c) the measurement model of the consequences. The sections that follow present both the overall measurement model and each individual measurement model.

4.6.1 CSE Competing Measurement Models in the Pilot Data

The multiplicity of factor structures for the CSE construct was presented earlier (under section 2.4.2). Thus, it was inevitable that multiplicity would most likely be true for this study's pilot CSE data. Specifically, as shown in Tables 16 and 17, three alternative CSE measurement models were specified: (a) the CSE pilot competing Model 1 (labeled CSE_PC1), (b) the CSE pilot competing Model 2 (CSE_PC2), and (c) the CSE pilot competing Model 3 (CSE_PC3). Competing results among the three alternatives revealed that CSE_PC1 fit the pilot data poorly (e.g., RMSEA = .128), even though this factor structure was exactly the same as documented in Judge et al.'s (2003) study. It turned out that the third alternative, namely, the CSE_PC3 model, outperformed either of the two competing alternative models in terms of all the fit indices listed (detailed in Table 17). For example, bootstrapping results indicate that the implied versus population maximum likelihood discrepancy of the third competing model was the smallest (198.312 with a standard error of .235) among the three alternatives, revealing that the third competing model was the best (Linhart & Zucchini, 1986).

This suggested that the cross-validation result of Judge et al.'s (2003) unidimensional first-order CSE factor structure was weak at best. On the other hand, the alternative model, comprising the unidimensional second-order construct with three first-order

factors, presented itself as the best alternative among the three possibilities. The findings in this study thus support the findings of Xu and Yang (2009) and Crawford (2008), who used the same CSE measure developed by Judge et al. (2003).

Notes: 1. GOF: χ^2=155.576, *df*=53, p= .000, χ^2/df=2.935, RMSEA= .063, CFI= .903, IFI= .904. 2. Sample size: 481 with 2500 bootstraps. 3. ILoC=Internal Locus of Control, CSE=Core Self-evaluation. 4. The reliability alpha value of the whole 12 items are .73; the reliability alpha values for pessimistic, optimistic, and self worth & ILoC are .756, .643, and .522 respectively. 5. Appendix A1 has more details on the manifested variables presented above.

Figure 3 The Best Competing Model of CSE in the Pilot Study

Table 16 Items Comprising the Factor(s) among CSE Competing Models in the Pilot Study

Models Tested	First Order Factors							Second Order
	Optimistic Self Evaluation	Pessimistic Self Evaluation	Emotional Stability	Self Worth & ILoC	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy	Locus of Control	
Model CSE_PC1 (12 items,1factor)	p1a, p1b, p1c, p1d, p1e, p1f, p1g, p1h, p1i, p1j, p1k, p1l							
Model CSE_PC2 (12 items, 3 factors)	p1k, p1a, p1e, p1c	p1l, p1f, p1h, p1d, p1j, p1b		p1i, p1g				
Model CSE_PC3 (12 items, 1 second order factor)	p1k, p1a, p1e, p1c	p1l, p1f, p1h, p1d, p1j, p1b		p1i, p1g				CSE

Notes: 1. ILoC= Internal Locus of Control, CSE=Core Self-evaluation, PC=Pilot Competing; 2. The Items comprising the factor(s) are detailed in Appendix A1.

Table 17 Fit Indices among CSE Competing Models in the Pilot Study

Models Tested	Model Fit Indices							Implied vs. Pop. ML Discrepancy(SE)	Model Comparison	Competing Results
	X^2	df	X^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI	IFI			
Competing Models with only First order Factor(s)										
Model CSE_PC1 (12 items,1 factor)	481.526	54	8.917	.00	.128	.597	.601	524.676 (.341)		
Model CSE_PC2 (12 items, 3 factors)	154.161	51	3.023	.00	.065	.903	.904	199.426 (.244)	CSE_PC2 vs. CSE_PC1	CSE_PC2 is better
Competing CSE Models with both First Order Factors and One Second Order Factor										
Model CSE_PC3 (12 items, 1 2nd order factor)	155.576	53	2.935	.00	.063	.903	.904	198.312 (.235)	CSE_PC3 vs.CSE_PC2	CSE_PC3 is better
Overall Competing Results	**Model CSE_PC3 Outperforms any other two competing models**									

Notes: 1. SE= Standard Error, ML=Maximum Likelihood, Pop. = Population, PC=Pilot Competing, CSE=Core Self-evaluation. 2. Sample size: 481 with 2500 bootstraps. 3.The 12-itemed CSE measure is adopted from Judge et al.'s (2003) work.

Table 18 Factor Loadings of the Best CSE Model in the Pilot Study

Paths	Factor Loading	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
Second Order Path					
CSE —> Pessimistic	.332	.086	.164	.501	.001
CSE —> Optimistic	.715	.067	.556	.821	.001
CSE—> Self Worth & ILoC	.893	.029	.800	.932	.001
First Order Path					
Pessimistic—> p1l	.692	.039	.613	.768	.001
Pessimistic —> p1f	.591	.042	.500	.665	.001
Pessimistic —> p1h	.646	.042	.557	.726	.001
Pessimistic —> p1d	.610	.045	.512	.691	.001
Pessimistic —> p1j	.579	.043	.488	.657	.001
Pessimistic —> p1b	.352	.038	.279	.429	.001
Optimistic —> p1a	.458	.051	.355	.553	.001
Optimistic —> p1e	.704	.045	.616	.794	.001
Optimistic—> p1c	.541	.044	.445	.620	.001
Optimistic—> p1k	.572	.054	.453	.668	.001
Self Worth & ILoC —> p1i	.481	.059	.364	.594	.001
Self Worth & ILoC —> p1g	.728	.066	.606	.870	.001

Note: Sample size is 481 with 2500 bootstraps.

4.6.2 EFA Results of the Adjustment Dimensions

EFA was used to explore the dimensionality of the newly integrated OA adjustment measure. Table 19 and Figure 4 summarize the final results of this analysis. Initial EFA results indicated that deleting some items from the item pool of the OA adjustment dimensions was necessary because of their low factor loadings and/or cross loadings on more than one dimension at a time. All deleted items are marked with the symbol † and are detailed in Appendices A2 to A5. The final EFA was performed using principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The results revealed the integrated OA adjustment measure to be multidimensional: Five distinct factors were extracted based on an eigenvalue greater than 1, collectively explaining 56.13% of the variance (factor loadings ranged from .795 to .437). These five extracted dimensions were (a) task mastery, (b) fitting in, (c) standing out, (d) role negotiation, and (e) organizational identification. Figure 4 and Table 19 present more details on the EFA results of the adjustment dimensions.

4.6.3 CFA Results of the Consequences

As Figure 5 and Table 20 show, CFA was performed to see whether the three consequence variables of OJS, OJP, and CI were distinct. After five trivial items (i.e., three from the OJS scale, one from the OJP scale, and one from the TI scale) were deleted, the three-factor consequence model fit the pilot data very well (CFI = .976, IFI = .977, RMSEA = .053, χ^2/df = 2.337). The factor loadings of the 12 retained items using SEM bootstrapping were all significant, ranging from .630 to .853. For example, as shown in Table 20, the path of OJS→$p6a$ was statistically significant: Loading was .630, with a 95% bias-corrected (BC) bootstrap confidence interval (CI) of .541 to .703 (SE = .041, sig. = .001).

4.6.4 Overall Measurement Results of the Pilot Study

Overall Measurement Model Fit. CFA was performed to see whether all nine latent variables used in the pilot study were distinct; the results indicated they were. But the overall model proposed for the pilot study fit the pilot data, according to Hair et al. (2010), only moderately well: CFI = .886, IFI = .887, RMSEA = .044, χ^2/df = 1.94.

The sample size used for running SEM was 481, which served as parent samples from which 5000 bootstrap samples were generated. Figure 6 depicts the results. [20]

Construct Reliability. As shown in Table 21, the reliability alpha values of the five extracted OA adjustment dimensions ranged from .78 to .86, whereas the three consequence variables' alpha values ranged from .85 to .89. Thus, all the reliability alpha values of the latent construct exceeded .70, a threshold suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). As for the CSE construct, although the reliability alpha value of the 12 items exceeded the threshold of .70 (i.e., .73), the alpha values of some first-order CSE factors were actually below the threshold. Specifically, the alpha values for pessimistic, optimistic, and self-worth and internal locus of control (ILoC) were .756, .643, and .522, respectively.

Construct Discriminant Validity. To check the construct's discriminant validity, respective *average variance extracted* (AVE) values were calculated for the corresponding latent constructs. The results indicated that AVE values for the three consequence variables ranged from .55 to .66, all exceeding the value of .50, a threshold recommended by Dillon and Goldstein (1984). The AVE values for the five OA adjustment dimensions, however, were all below and close to the threshold. These results could be interpreted in two ways. One is that some retained items used to capture the dynamics of each of the OA adjustment dimensions were only moderately good in that their factor loadings hovered around .50. Since these items were still in their exploratory stages, the cut-off criterion was reasonably set at .40 (Field, 2005). The other is that, in terms of their respective AVE values, the discriminant validities of the eight latent constructs were only moderately satisfactory on the one hand, but on the other, and for the most part, they were satisfactory in that the AVE values of all but two constructs (standing out and organizational identification) were greater than any of the squared correlation values on their respective same rows (Table 21).

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[20] The factorial structure identified by using the overall sample with 481 observations has been successfully cross-validated in two split sub-samples: $\triangle\chi^2$=31.243, $\triangle$df=31, p>.05. This means that factor structures identified in the overall sample is stable and is not significantly different across two split sub-samples: split sample 1 with 225 observations (46.8% of the overall sample whose organizational tenures were over 24 months) and split sample 2 with 253 observations (52.6% of the overall sample whose organizational tenures were between 1 month and 24 months).
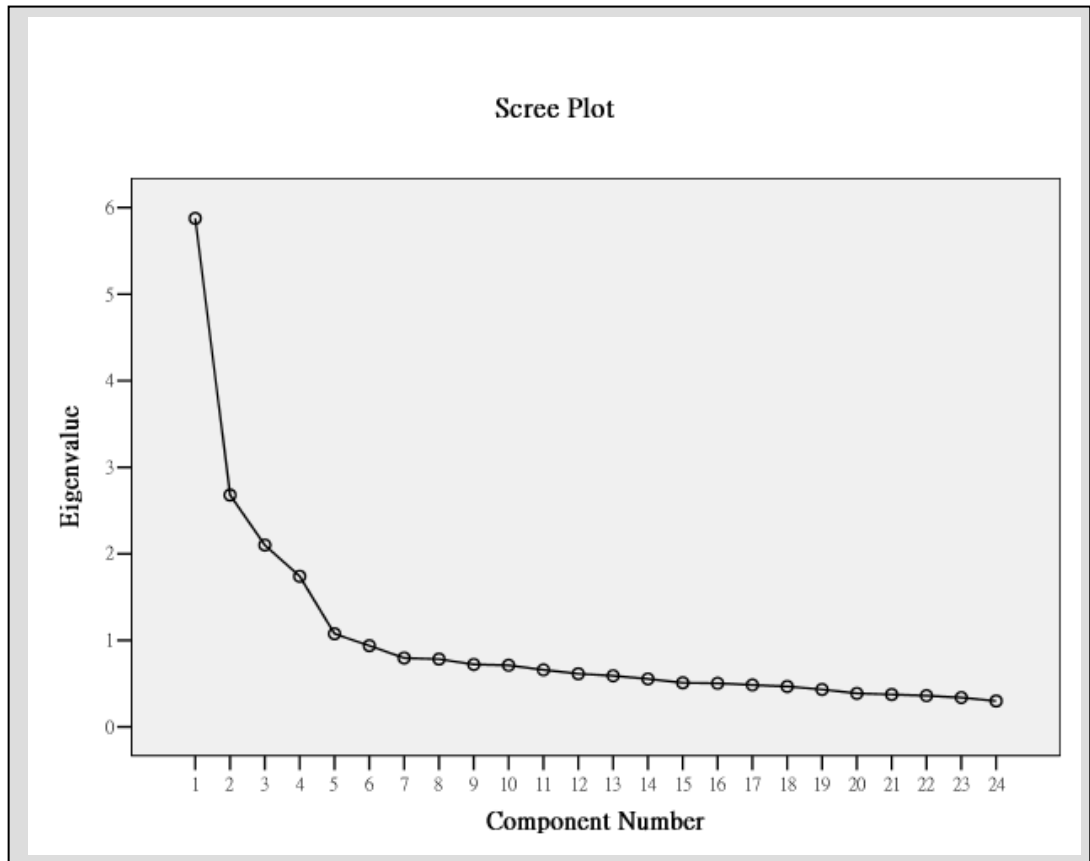
Figure 4 Screen Plot of the Adjustment Dimensions in the Pilot Study

Table 19 EFA Result of Adjustment Dimensionality in the Pilot Study

	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	Communalities
F1.Task mastery						
p2b	.741					.555
p2c	.710					.546
p2d	.741					.594
p2e	.672					.496
p2f	.684					.510
F2. Fitting in						
p3b		.724				.573
p3c		.787				.653
p3d		.788				.691
p3e		.705				.536
p3f		.658				.479
F3.Standing out						
p3n			.793			.702
p3o			.783			.675
p3p			.724			.644
p3m			.568			.478
F4. Role Negotiation						
p4b				.437		.385
p4c				.663		.501
p4e				.729		.595
p4g				.726		.590
p4h				.684		.579
F5.Organizational Identification						
p5e					.712	.527
p5a					.780	.640
p5b					.795	.666
p5c					.645	.472
p5d					.591	.385
Rotated Eigenvalues	2.714	2.982	2.450	2.609	2.716	
Variance Explained (%)	11.306	12.426	10.210	10.872	11.316	
Cumulative variance explained(%)	11.306	23.732	33.942	44.814	56.130	

Notes: N=481; KMO=.866; Bartlett's test of Sphericity Chi-square=3777.607, *df*=276, sig.=.000; Varimax Rotation Method Used.

Notes: 1. GOF: χ^2 =199.171, *df*=51, p= .000, χ^2/df =2.337, RMSEA= .053, CFI= .976, IFI= .977. 2. Sample size: 481 with 2500 bootstraps. 3. OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, TI=Turnover intention. 4. Appendix A6, A7 and A8 have more details on the manifested variables presented above.
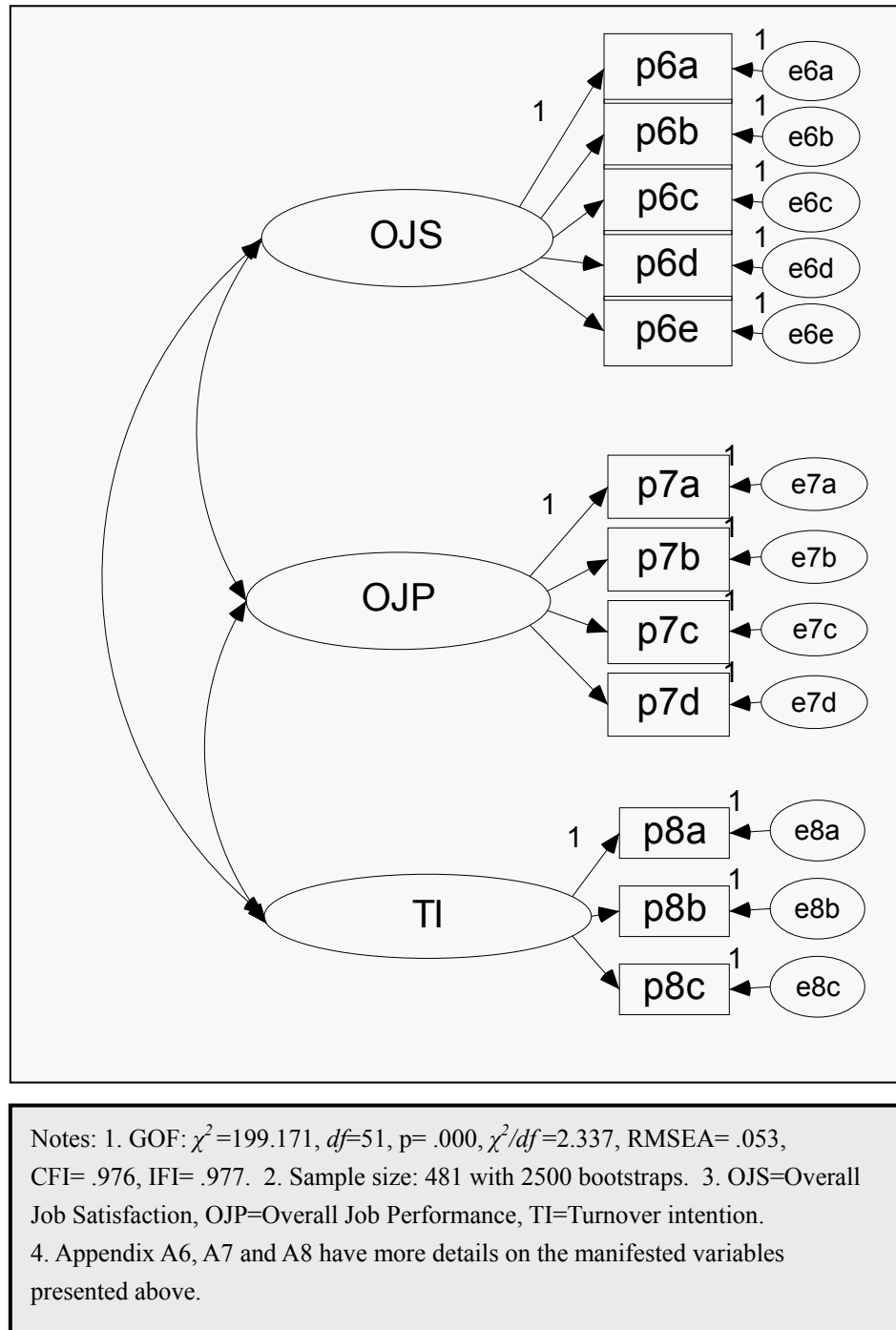
Figure 5 Measurement Model of the Consequences in the Pilot Study [21]

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[21] Throughout this thesis, "*the consequences*" in this study denote to the three distal outcome variables of overall job satisfaction (OJS), overall job performance (OJP), and turnover intention (TI) in the context of employees' organizational socialization.

Table 20 Factor Loadings of the Consequences in the Pilot Study

Path	Factor Loading	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
OJS —> p6a	.630	.041	.541	.703	.001
OJS —> p6b	.706	.033	.638	.769	.001
OJS —> p6c	.795	.026	.741	.843	.001
OJS —> p6d	.838	.022	.790	.876	.001
OJS —> p6e	.727	.028	.668	.781	.001
OJP —> p7a	.758	.027	.701	.807	.001
OJP —> p7b	.853	.022	.802	.890	.001
OJP —> p7c	.850	.024	.793	.891	.001
OJP —> p7d	.788	.026	.726	.830	.001
TI —> p8a	.835	.030	.774	.890	.001
TI —> p8b	.816	.031	.751	.870	.001
TI —> p8c	.792	.027	.734	.841	.001

Notes: Sample size: 481 with 2500 bootstraps; OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, and TI=Turnover Intention.
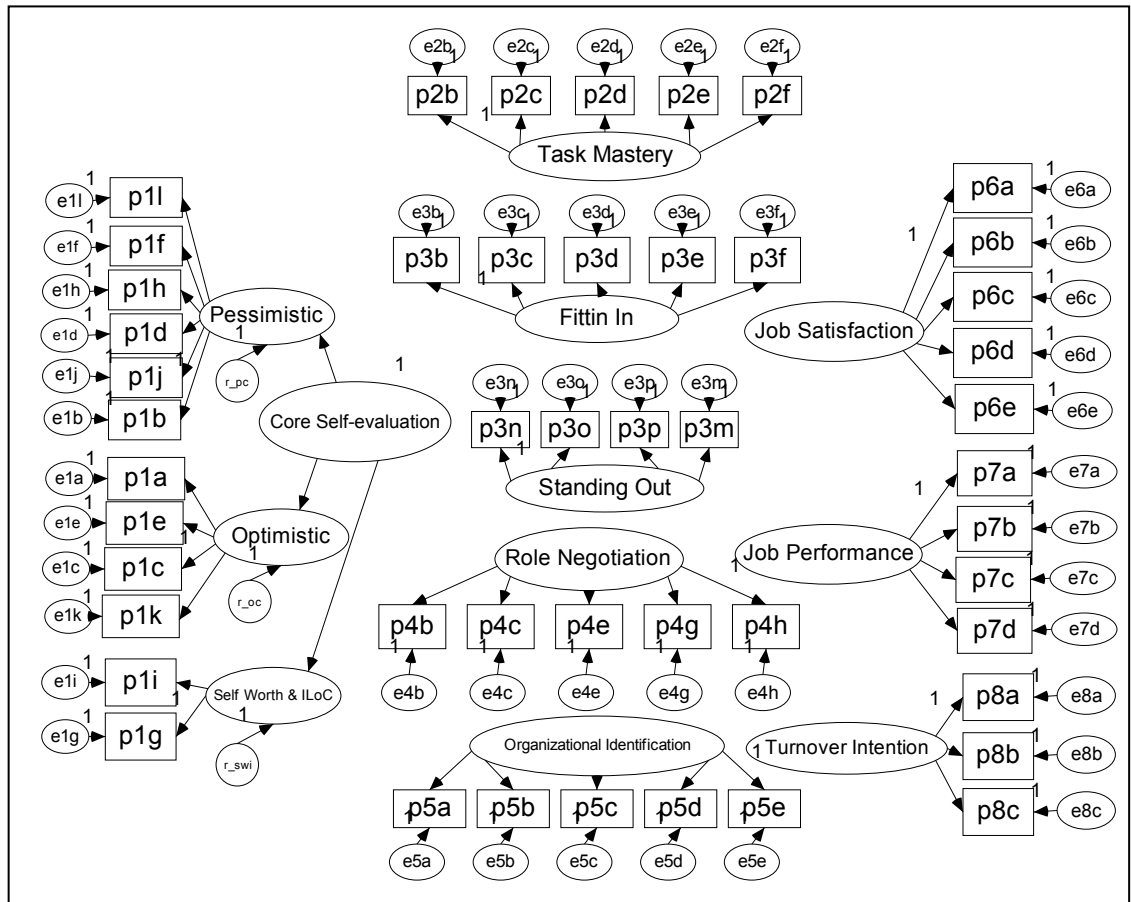
Notes: 1. Free correlations among all latent variables except for the first order latent CSE variables.

2. ILoC=Internal Locus of Control, CSE=Core Self-evaluation, OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction,

OJP=Overall Job Performance, TI=Turnover Intention. 3. Sample size: 481 with 5000 bootstraps.

4. GOF: χ^2=2024.657, df=1043, p= .000, χ^2/df=1.941, RMSEA= .044, CFI= .886, IFI= .887.

5. Appendix A has more details on the manifested variables presented above.

Figure 6 The Overall Measurement Model in the Pilot Study

Table 21 Results of Comprehensive Descriptive Statistics for the Latent Variables in the Pilot Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	AVE
1. CSE	[.73]	.28**	.06**	.23**	.19**	.14**	.35**	.29**	.05**	NA
2. Task Mastery	.53**	[.78]	.03**	.14**	.07**	.12**	.07**	.31**	.00	.42
3. Fitting in	-.25**	-.18**	[.82]	.15**	.30**	.06**	.08**	.00	.09**	.48
4. Standing out	-.48**	-.38**	.39**	[.79]	.50**	.06**	.05**	.06**	.04**	.47
5. Role Negotiation	-.44**	-.27**	.55**	.71**	[.77]	.12**	.11**	.01*	.06**	.41
6. Organizational Identification	.44**	.34**	-.25**	-.25**	-.34**	[.76]	.44**	.07**	.17**	.42
7. OJS	.59**	.26**	-.28**	-.23**	-.33**	.66**	[.86]	.10**	.25**	.55
8. OJP	.54**	.56**	-.05	-.24**	-.11*	.26**	.31**	[.89]	.00	.66
9. TI	-.22**	.07	.30**	.20**	.25**	-.41**	-.50**	-.01	[.85]	.66
Mean	3.41	3.74	2.05	2.09	2.05	3.91	4.96	4.41	3.74	NA
SD	.48	.66	.85	.80	.77	.66	1.18	1.23	1.67	NA
Minimum	1.92	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.60	1.00	1.00	1.00	NA
Maximum	4.92	5.00	5.00	4.75	4.60	5.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	NA

Notes: 1. N=481, with 5000 bootstraps. 2. "**" indicates that correlation is significant at .01 level; "*"indicates that correlation is significant at .05 level. 3. Reliability alpha values are on the diagonal. 4. Bivariate correlations are below the diagonal, while their corresponding squared correlation values are above the diagonal. 5. CSE=Core Self-evaluation, OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, TI=Turnover Intention.

4.6.5 Implications of the Pilot Study for the Main Study

Overall Evaluation of the Pilot Study. For the most part, the pilot study was successful because of the satisfactory construct reliability values and the moderately satisfactory values of construct discriminant validity. Apart from these aspects, the results of the pilot study also provided information on how the measurement items could be improved in the subsequent main study. But despite a number of strategies implemented to address the potential problems that respondents might face while responding to the pilot questionnaire, several problems surfaced after the pilot study.

Problem of Responding to Some Kind of Scaling. The first problem concerned scaling. The results indicated that some scaling patterns used to measure the latent constructs, such as subjective newness, [22] were not good. Specifically, respondents were presented with two opposing statements, and they were required to circle only one number from five choices (-2, -1, 0, +1, or +2) that appeared between each paired item that most closely reflected their perceived *subjective newness* to their organization. These items turned out to be those with the most missing values (noted earlier), partly because of this pattern of scaling, which perhaps could have been difficult for some respondents, given their relatively low educational qualifications. As a result, the main study alternatively used a 5-point Likert scale to capture the same subjective newness construct, as detailed in Appendix B11.

Problem of Responding to Some Negatively Worded Items. The second problem identified in the pilot study involved the issue of responding to negatively worded items. In terms of contributing to the measurement model fit indices, some such items turned out to have a poor fit compared with positively worded items. For example, Item *p6g*—"I am often bored with my present job"—was deleted during the CFA for the consequence measurement model. In other words, the fit indices significantly improved after this *p6g* item was excluded when doing the CFA analysis. This suggests that respondents in Hainan, as in many other studies (e.g., Myers, 2005a), did have some problems responding to the negatively worded items. DeVellis (1991) has fully discussed the issue of using both positively and negatively worded items in a questionnaire, concluding that "the disadvantages of items worded in an opposite

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[22] See Appendix 10 for specific information on measuring subjective tenures in the pilot study.

direction outweigh any benefits" (p. 70). As a result, unnecessary negatively worded items were reworded or removed in the subsequent questionnaire tailored for the main study.

Poor Model Fit Levels of the Excluded OA Adjustment Dimensions and OA Consequence Variable. As noted earlier (sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.1), four candidates for the OA adjustment dimensions, including impersonal and difficult situations, interpersonal relationships, job involvement, and personal change, and the one OA consequence variable of role innovation, were excluded in the formal pilot data analysis because of their poor model fit levels. Specifically, the χ^2/df values of the five constructs ranged from 5.14 to 20.16, all higher than the threshold level of 3 as suggested by Kline (2005). The RMSEA values of the five excluded constructs ranged from .093 to .200, all of which exceeded the threshold level of .08 suggested by Reisinger and Turner (1999).

Overall, the identification of these problematic latent constructs with unacceptable levels of model fit indices was a positive development for this study for two reasons. One is that after the pilot study, some constructs had to be excluded in the main study questionnaire in order to leave enough room to accommodate the 30-item OST construct, which was excluded in the pilot study questionnaires. The other is that at the pilot study stage, four more secondary OA adjustment dimensions (impersonal and difficult situations, job involvement, interpersonal relationships, and personal change) and one more secondary OA consequence (role innovation), were purposely added. The success of measuring these secondary latent constructs could have enhanced this study, whereas failure in measuring these constructs would not have significantly affected the study's overall results, since other primary constructs such as fitting in and job satisfaction had been successfully investigated.

Lastly, only some of these problematic latent constructs identified in the pilot study were revised and continuously measured in the main study. These were impersonal and difficult situations (detailed in Appendix B3, Items *m3o* to *m3t*), interpersonal relationships (detailed in Appendix B5, Items m5g to m5m), job involvement (detailed in Appendix B5, Items *m5n* to *m5q*), and subjective newness to the employment organization. This is because in part some problematic variables or latent constructs investigated in the pilot study had to be dismissed; otherwise, there would have been no

room to accommodate the 30-item OST construct examined only in the main study.

Consideration of Selecting an Alternative CSE Measure. The 2003 version of the CSE measure developed by Judge and his colleagues (2003) is not the first or best choice for investigators in the Chinese context for at least one notable reason, namely, that the CSE measure used in the present pilot study was reported, by its inventors (Judge et al., 2003), to have a unidimensional first-order factor structure. This one first-order factor CSE model fit the present pilot data very poorly, whereas its alternative CSE model, in which CSE presents itself as a construct that has one second-order factor with three corresponding first-order factors, exhibited the highest level of model fit among all competing CSE models (detailed earlier in section 4.6.1). Similarly, using Chinese samples, Xu and Yang (2009) also found that the best factor structure solution for the CSE construct proposed by Judge et al. (2003) was a second-order factor with three first-order factors. One important implication of the above combined findings is that CSE more likely presents itself as a second-order than a first-order factor in the Chinese context. Given the limitations of the 2003 version of the CSE measure, investigators need to integratively try some alternative versions of CSE measures in the CSE literature (detailed later in section 4.8.2).

4.7 Methodological Overview of the Main Study

Generally, the methods used in the main study were based on, but not limited to, the pilot study. In other words, while all methods used in the pilot study were adopted in the main study, several additional methods were also used in the main study. These included developing structural models by using the bootstrap SEM method and testing indirect effects between given latent constructs by performing Sobel's (1986) tests. Before describing these, some aspects of method, such as instrumentation, are detailed in the following sections.

4.8 Instrumentation in the Main Study

By and large, the instrumentation of the OA adjustment dimensions in the main study, as well as its consequence variables and the demographic and control variables, were revised from the pilot study. But the instrumentation of the two antecedents in the main study differed from those in the pilot study in two ways. One is that the CSE measure

adapted in the main study was integrated from other sister versions of CSE contributed by Judge and other scholars (e.g., Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968; Judge & Hurst, 2007; Judge et al., 2009). The other is that the OST construct was measured only in the main study (discussed earlier in section 4.2).

In terms of measurement scaling, all items used to measure the antecedents and consequences in the main study took the form of a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*definitely disagree*) to 7 (*definitely agree*). As for the items used to measure the OA adjustment dimensions, the same 5-point Likert scale as presented in the pilot study was adopted for the main study as well. In the main study, all demographic and control variables, except for the subjective newness construct, were measured in the same way as in the pilot study.

4.8.1 Measuring OST in the Main Study

The perceived OST of socializees following their organizational entry was measured by the 30-item OST scale developed by Jones (1986). Due to the fact that multiple factor structures of the OST construct have emerged in the OA literature (as summarized in Table 2), this study accordingly proposed a total of 7 competing OST models that are summarized in Table 25. Results indicated that the 17-itemed OST_C7 model (1 second-order factor with 3 first-order factors) has empirically exhibited the best level of model fit among all the competing models. Specifically, as shown in Figure 7, among the 17 items, six items (10a1, 10a3, 10a4, 10a5, 10b1, 10b3) capture the context dimension of OST, 5 items (10c1,10c2,1 0c3, 10d1, 10d2) measure the social dimension of OST, and 6 items (10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10f2,10f3) capture the content dimension of OST.

As shown in Appendix B10, sample items of the OST scale were (10c1) "I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization," (10d2) "I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization by observing my senior colleagues," (10b3) "I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods," and so on. For more information, please refer to Appendix B10.

4.8.2 Measuring CSE in the Main Study

As shown in Appendix B1, a total of 17 items were adopted for the CSE measure in the main study. Specifically, of the 17 items, 12 were directly adopted from the 2007 version of CSE measure contributed by Judge and Hurst (2007). The 2007 version has been recommended as an alternative for the 2003 version of the CSE measure.[23] Two other items were adopted from Judge et al. (2009), one item was from Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger (1998), and two items were from Eysenck and Eysenck (1968). The 17 items thus forms a pool of CSE items which enabled the author to identify which of these items will turn out to be good measurement items after data collection and data analysis.

As shown in Table 28, among the 12 competing CSE measurement models, Model CSE_MC12 (13 items, 3 first order factor, 1 second order factor) exhibited the best level of model fit (see Figure 8 for detail). Sample items of these 13 items were (m1b) "I feel that I am a person of worth, on an equal basis with others"; (m1j) "My feelings are easily hurt"; (m1o) "There is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life"; and (m1f) "When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work."

4.8.3 Measuring Adjustment Dimensions and Consequences

The items used for measuring the five adjustment dimensions and the three consequences were largely based on the pilot study, as detailed in sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3 respectively. In the main study, a total of 37 items was generated for the pool of OA adjustment that is proposed to have five dimensions including task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. Specifically, seven measurement items were generated for task mastery (Appendix B2), nine for fitting in (Appendix B3, Items *m3a* to *m3i*), five for standing out (Appendix B3, Items *m3j* to *m3n*), ten for role negotiation (Appendix B4, Items *m4a* to *m4j*), and six for organizational identification (Appendix B5, Items *m5a* to *m5f*). After deleting the trivial or bad items as indicated by corresponding CFA analyses in the main study, a total of 18 items in the item pool were retained and finally used to capture the five adjustment dimensions. As shown in Figure 9, four measurement items (m2a, m2b,

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[23] Email communication with Professor Judge, July 30, 2009, timothy.judge@cba.ufl.edu.

m2c, m2d) were eventually used for task mastery, four for fitting in (m3c, m3d, m3e, m3f), three for standing out (m3l, m3m, m3n), four for role negotiation (m4a, m4c, m4d, m4e), and three for organizational identification (m5a, m5b, m5e).

Sample item used for the five OA adjustment dimensions were: (m2c for task mastery) "I complete most of my present work assignments without assistance" (Morrison, 1993a); (m3f for fitting in) "accepting practices and customs commonly found in this hotel" (Cuellar et al., 1995); (m3m for standing out) "doing the job better than others in this organization" (Barge & Schlueter, 2004); (m4a for role negotiation) "negotiating with supervisors/coworkers about my desirable job assignment"; (m5a for organizational identification) "I am proud to be an employee of this hotel" (Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000).

Likewise, a 20-measurement items pool was generated for the consequence measure in the main study. Of the 20 items, seven measurement items were for OJS (Appendix B6, Items *m6a* to *m6g*), seven for OJP (Appendix B7, Items *m7a* to *m7g*), and six for TI (Appendix B8, Items *m8a* to *m8f*). After deleting the trivial or bad items as suggested by corresponding CFA analyses, 12 items were eventually retained in CFA model of the consequences in the main study. Of the 12 items, five (m6a, m6b, m6c, m6d) were specifically used for OJS, four (m7a, m7b, m7c, m7d) for OJP, and four (m8a, m8b, m8e, m8c) for TI. Finally, sample items used for the three consequences were: (m6c for OJS) "In general, I like working in this hotel" (Cammann et al., 1983); (m7c) "In comparison to other employees of the same rank, my work performance level is the highest" (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996). [24]

4.9 Participants and Procedure in the Main Study

The main study was conducted in the same place (Hainan Province) as that of the pilot study, from September to November of the same year, using the same sampling strategy and procedure for data collection. One additional similarity between the two studies was that the same incentives were given to participants across both the pilot and main studies. For the main study, a total of 1478 questionnaires were administered to regular and nonmanagerial staff of four- and five-star hotels regardless of their

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[24] Figure 11 illustrates all the measurement items eventually used to capture the dynamics of the proposed five adjustment dimensions, their two investigated antecedents and three proposed consequences

organizational tenures. As a result, 1306 copies (88.36% of the total) were returned, among which 1253 copies were useable. Of the 1253 respondents, 704 (approximately 56.18% of the usable copies) reported that their organizational tenures ranged between 1 month and 2 years following their entry into their present organizations. Data analyses in the main study were then conducted, using a sample size of 704.

In terms of the investigated hotels, the main study differs from the pilot study in an important way. That is, the surveyed eight hotels in the pilot study were ruled out in the main study. In other words, the hotels surveyed in the main study were not included in the pilot study. Moreover, the two data sets collected in the main study and the pilot study were kept separate when doing the corresponding data analyses, that is, the pilot data set was not combined with the main data set for statistical analyses.

4.10 Control Variables Used in the Main Study

As per the literature, several variables were included in the main study to control for potential exogenous influences on the hypothesized structural relationships. Eight variables were controlled for in the overall structural model of the main study, of which six were related to personal characteristics, comprising objective organizational tenure, [25] work experience, sex, age, income, and line versus staff department employees. This was based largely on the existing literature. Some scholars (e.g., Jackson, Stone, & Alvarez, 1992; Pfeffer, 1983, 1985), for example, have argued that employee demography in general comprises powerful explanatory variables in organizational behavior. Other scholars have provided empirical evidence on the influence of demographic variables on employee job attitudes and behaviors. To name a few, these scholars include Rollag (2004), Chen and Klimoski (2003), Song et al. (2006), and Fisher (1986), among many others. The other two control variables included respondent organizational characteristics, namely, hotel size (small, medium, and large)[26] and scale of operations (domestic vs. international).

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[25] The counterpart of objective organizational tenure is subjective newness to employment organization, which was not used as a control because of its poor reliability alpha value (.347) in the 704 samples.

[26] In terms of its total number of hotel rooms, a given hotel was categorized as small (smaller than 300 rooms), medium (between 300 and 600 rooms), or large (larger than 600 rooms), depending on its specific situation.

4.11 Data Analysis Techniques in the Main Study

All data analysis techniques (noted earlier in sections 4.5 and 4.6.5) from the pilot study were equally applied to the main data analysis as well. For example, two of the three candidates for OA adjustment dimensions, including impersonal and difficult situations (RMSEA = .159; χ^2/df = 18.79) and interpersonal relationships (RMSEA = .138; χ^2/df = 14.43) were again excluded in formal data analyses for the same reason of poor model fit exhibited in the main study sample. Although the job involvement model demonstrated good fit (RMSEA = .010; χ^2/df = 1.067) in the main study, it possessed relatively low factor loadings in that none of the construct's four items were higher than .67, and thus lower than the threshold level of .70 suggested by Hair et al. (2010), for a given CFA. In other words, the job involvement construct was excluded mainly because of the poor level of the construct's discriminant validity. But excluding problematic latent constructs did not affect this study's research objectives substantially. This is largely because some of the excluded latent constructs, such as interpersonal relationships—alternatively labeled the *people* dimension in Chao et al.'s (1994) OA adjustment measure—and *job involvement* (Myers & Oetzel, 2003), have been incorporated into their corresponding existing OA adjustment measures, albeit their psychometric properties have been found to be unsatisfactory.

In addition, several more techniques were also used to conduct the data analyses for the main study. First, the bootstrap SEM method was extended from estimating measurement models to estimating both the measurement and structural models proposed for the main study. Second, the same method was employed to cross-validate the factor structures of the latent variables used in the main study. Specifically, the sample of 704 was randomly split into two halves, each of which thus had 352 observations. Factorial invariance of the given latent constructs in the main study was then examined using the split samples.

Third, research hypotheses regarding the OA adjustment dimensions were then tested based on the statistical results of the measurement models developed and cross-validated in the main study. With regard to testing causal hypotheses, there are two types of direct causal relationships. One is the effect of a given independent variable (e.g., *X*) on its given dependent variable (e.g., *Y*) without controlling for given

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mediators (i.e., *M*), in other words, the effect of *X* on *Y* without controlling for *M*. The other is the effect of *X* on *Y* after controlling for *M*. Accordingly, hypotheses regarding direct causal effects were tailored for these two different situations in this study and are referred to here as the direct causal hypotheses.

Second, in a situation where multiple mediations are investigated, two types of causal indirect effects should be examined, as per Preacher and Hayes (2008). One is *the total indirect effect*, which concerns whether a given set of mediators transmits the effect of *X* to *Y*; the other is *the specific indirect effect* associated with each putative mediator belonging to the given set of mediators. Although it is *not* suggested that a significant total indirect effect is a precondition for investigating specific indirect effects, either or both kinds of indirect effects might be of theoretical interest and therefore worth examining (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This study tested both the overall and specific indirect effects. Whereas the former were tested using the bootstrap SEM method, the latter were investigated using Sobel's (1982, 1986) tests.

Finally, it is necessary to address the issue of multiple approaches to testing specific indirect effects. To date, at least a dozen methods for testing specific mediation hypotheses have been proposed (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). By far, the two most commonly used methods have been *the causal steps approach* and *the product-of-coefficients approach* (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The former, popularized by Baron and Kenny (1986), consists of steps taken by the investigator to estimate the paths of a simple mediation model in which there are *X* (independent), *Y* (dependent), and *M* (mediator) variables. Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested that several criteria should be met for a given mediation to occur. That is, variable *M* is a substantiated mediator if *X* significantly accounts for variance in *M*, *X* significantly accounts for variance in *Y*, *M* significantly accounts for variance in *Y* when controlling for *X*, and the effect of *X* on *Y* is reduced substantially when *M* is present simultaneously with *X* as a predictor of *Y* (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In addition, some researchers (e.g., Baron & Kenny, 1986) have argued that, for a given mediation to occur, such a precondition must hold: A given dependent variable (*Y*) must be significantly related to its corresponding independent variable (*X*) in the absence of its corresponding mediator(s). But others (e.g., Collins, Graham, & Flaherty, 1998) have argued that such a precondition is not necessary for mediation to occur. Thus, the precondition for a given mediation to occur remains an unresolved issue within this

causal step approach, which essentially focuses on the individual paths in the mediation model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

In the product-of-coefficients approach, mediation hypotheses tests focus on the product term—which is obtained by multiplying two individual path coefficients, one the coefficient between *X* and *M* and the other the one between *M* and *Y*—as well as its corresponding estimated standard error (*SE*). According to MacKinnon et al. (2002), the Sobel's test (1982, 1986) has been the most commonly used method for the product-of-coefficients approach thus far.

Using a Monte Carlo simulation method, MacKinnon et al. (2002) compared the advantages and disadvantages among the different approaches used to test mediation hypotheses. They noted that studies that used the causal steps approach "are the most likely to miss real effects but are very unlikely to commit a Type I error" (p. 96). Comparatively, the product-of-coefficient approach exhibited "more accurate Type I error rates than other methods" (p. 99). MacKinnon et al. also outlined several limitations of the causal step approach, for instance, the fact that its overall purpose is to establish conditions for mediation rather than being a statistical test of the indirect effect of *X* on *Y* through *M*. Another limitation is that it is difficult to extend the causal steps method to a multiple mediation model and to separate a given specific variable's mediating effect from those of other correlated mediators in the same model (MacKinnon et al., 2002; West & Aiken, 1997).

In consequence, this study used the product-of-coefficient approach to testing mediation hypotheses regarding a specific mediator's effect in a multiple mediation model for two main reasons. First, its mediation model is essentially a multiple mediation model, and second, the product-of-coefficient approach conceptually and statistically outperforms the causal step approach (MacKinnon et al., 2002).[27]

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[27] Notwithstanding the limitations of the causal step approach to testing the mediation hypothesis, information regarding the precondition for mediation is also available in Table 37.

4.12 Summary of Chapter 4

Chapter 4 first presents the research design of this study, which is characterized by a two-stage approach (i.e., a pilot vs. a main study), quantitative analysis, cross-sectional data, and self-reported questionnaires, among other features. Second, this chapter gives details on the research methodology used in the pilot study, including instrumentation (e.g., Likert scales), participants and procedures (e.g., employees of star-rated hotels), data collection (e.g., in Hainan China), data analysis techniques (e.g., the bootstrap SEM method), among other considerations. These methodological efforts were undertaken to differentiate good measurement items used in the pilot study from poor or trivial items. In turn, the results served as the basis for making corresponding revisions to the study's pilot questionnaire, resulting in the final version of the main study's questionnaire. Finally, this chapter presents the methodology of the main study, highlighting data analysis techniques such as (a) developing measurement and structural models for testing corresponding research hypotheses, and (b) specifying and testing the multiple mediation model as well as Sobel's tests for specific mediational effects among the given latent constructs used in the main study, among others.

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CHAPTER 5. RESULTS

This chapter first reports some basic and descriptive findings related to exploring and screening of the main study data. It then presents findings regarding testing and comparing the latent constructs' measurement models. Finally, the structural models developed in the main study are presented with a focus on their path coefficients and model fit indices, followed by presentations of the hypotheses testing results for the study.

5.1 Exploring and Screening the Main Data

Prior to formal analyses, the data set used in the main study was examined for missing values, normality, and homogeneity. First, the missing values in the main study were comparatively fewer than those in the pilot study. As a result, among all the given manifested variables used in the main data, a given variable in the main data presented itself as missing no more than 2% of the values or none at all. Again, this small percentage of missing values was attributable, in part, to data screening whereby a given copy of the returned questionnaire was discarded if it had more than three missing values. In addition, the success of the 704 data sets in minimizing potential missing values was also due largely to those efforts made during the instrumentation and data collection stages in the main study (noted in section 4.8). Given the small rate of missing values, this study used *mean substitutes* for those missing values, a widely used approach in such situations (Hair et al., 2010).

With regard to normality, the results of checking the skew and kurtosis values indicated that the skew absolute values in the data set ranged from .16 to 1.325, and the kurtosis values from .014 to 1.431 (Table 24). These values were far below the conventional threshold of 3.0 as suggested by most scholars (e.g., Kline, 2005). Thus, the assumption of univariate normality of the pilot data was not likely to be violated. The multivariate normality of the pilot data, however, was most likely violated, since Mardia's (1970) multivariate kurtosis value of the main data was larger than the

threshold of 3.0. In other words, the 704 data sets used for the main study were actually multivariate nonnormal data. As stated previously, a bootstrap SEM method should be used to analyze such data (e.g., Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Prior to formally analyzing the data, one final check of them involved homogeneity testing (detailed below).

As per Field (2005), the homogeneity of variance between the socializees' organizational tenure groups was tested. Levene's test for this was respectively performed on 16 latent variables, depicted in Figure 12, on the socializees' objective organizational tenure coded in months. The results indicate that, in terms of organizational tenure (gauged in months), all differences in variances among socializees on all tested variables were not statistically significant, with one exception: The variance on fitting in was statistically significant at $F(25, 675) = 1.586$, $p < .05$. The variances on the other tested variables of interest were not significant at all. For example, the variances on OST, $F(25, 675) = 1.171$, $p > .05$, task mastery, $F(25, 675) = .701$, $p > .05$, and OJP, $F(25, 675) = .962$, $p > .05$, were all statistically nonsignificant. Since the variances of all except for one tested variables did not differ significantly from one another in terms of objective organizational tenures, those socializees whose organizational tenure ranged from 1 month to 24 months were treated as part of a homogeneity group, pending further statistical analyses.

5.2 Respondents' Sociodemographic Characteristics

The sociodemographic data of the 704 respondents in the main survey had the following characteristics. Generally, the 704 respondents came from 19 luxury hotels in Hainan Province, of which 67.3% were four-star rated and 32.7% were five-star rated. Geographically, about 406 respondent hotels were located in Haikou City and 298 were located in Sanya City. In terms of branding, 574 respondent hotels were domestic hotels and the remaining 130 were international hotels.

The overall gender distribution was about 60.1% female and 39.9% male. About 78.4% were 25 years old and below, around 18.6% were between 26 and 35 years old, and around 3% were 36 years old and above. Approximately 69.2% had a senior middle school education or below, and around 30.8% had a university or college education. With regard to respondents' objective organizational tenure, approximately

56.4% were between 1 month and 12 months, the rest being between 12.1 and 24 months. In reported income, about 50.3% earned between RMB631 and RMB1000, and about 27.8% earned between RMB1001 and RMB2000. In terms of hotel work experience, at the time of data collection these were the first hotel jobs for 358 respondents (50.9%) and the second or third jobs for 260 (36.9%) respondents. The respondents' sociodemographic characteristics are summarized in Tables 23 and 24.

5.3 Results of Individual Measurement Models in the Main Study

Before the overall measurement model of the main study is described (Figure 11), the following sections present the four individual measurement models on which the overall measurement model was based: (a) the best OST competing measurement model, (b) the best CSE competing measurement model, (c) the measurement model of the adjustment dimensions, and (d) the measurement model of the consequences. The sections that follow present both the overall measurement model and each of the four respective measurement models.

5.3.1 OST Competing Measurement Models

Because OST has been presented as having different factor structures among previous studies in this area, this study summarized its multiple factor structures in the literature (Table 2). More specifically, it has gone a step further to outline seven competing alternatives of OST factor structures (Table 25), followed by a comparison between these seven alternatives in an attempt to identify the best competing OST model. Again, the bootstrap SEM method was performed for competing model comparisons; the results (Table 26) indicate that two competing models—the OST_C5 model and the OST_C7 model—outperformed the other five alternatives when compared with their respective model fit indices and implied versus population ML discrepancies (Linhart & Zucchini, 1986).

Finally, among the two most outstanding competing models, the OST_C7 model (i.e., one second-order factor with three first-order factors) was more parsimonious than its rival model of OST_C5 (three first-order factors). Therefore, taking Hair et al.'s (2010) suggestion, this study chose the more parsimonious OST model: the OST measurement model with one second-order factor and three first-order factors. This OST factor

structure presented itself as identical to that of Tan and Liao (2005) while similar to some others (e.g., Klynn, 2001). Figure 7 depicts the best competing factor structure of OST identified in this study.

5.3.2 CSE Competing Measurement Models in the Main Study

Given the multiplicity of CSE factor structure in the literature, the present main study outlines 12 competing CSE models based on both CSE factor structure variations either at the first-order or second-order levels, and total item varieties in a given factor structure (Table 28). A series of bootstrap SEM analyses were performed to compare all these competing CSE models. The results (Table 29) reveal that the CSE_MC12 model outperformed all other 11 competing alternatives: its implied versus population ML discrepancy value, 221.524 (*SE* = .193), turned out to be the smallest and thus the best among all competing models (Linhart & Zucchini, 1986). More specifically, this best competing model presented itself as a 13-item unidimensional second-order factor with three corresponding first-order factors. The factor structure as well as its corresponding factor loadings, along with other information, is presented both in Figure 8 and in Tables 28 to 30.

5.3.3 CFA Results of Adjustment Dimensions

CFA analyses were performed to see whether the factor structure as suggested by the EFA results obtained in the pilot data fit the main data. The results show that an 18-item measurement model of the OA adjustment dimensions demonstrated an excellent fit to the data set used in the main study, CFI = .98, IFI = .98, RMSEA = .033, χ^2/df = 1.778 (Figure 9). Moreover, all loadings in this measurement model were significant, ranging from .569 to .846. The loading of the path of organizational identification→*m5b*, for instance, was .819, coupled with a 95% BC bootstrap CI of .780 to .859 (*SE* = .020, sig. = .001) (Table 31).

Table 22 Skew and Kurtosis Values in the Main Study

Variable	Min.	Max.	Skew	T Value	Kurtosis	T Value
m1b	1	7	-.744	-8.062	.524	2.838
m1c	1	7	-1.414	-15.318	1.911	10.352
m1e	2	7	-1.246	-13.498	.855	4.63
m1f	1	7	-.667	-7.222	.296	1.601
m1g	1	7	-.60	-6.504	-.625	-3.384
m1h	1	7	-.575	-6.232	-.755	-4.089
m1i	1	7	-.651	-7.05	-.692	-3.75
m1j	1	7	-.278	-3.012	-1.013	-5.485
m1k	1	7	-.082	-.892	-.91	-4.929
m1l	1	7	-.375	-4.06	-.695	-3.763
m1m	1	7	-.475	-5.144	-.859	-4.652
m1o	1	7	-.458	-4.957	-.782	-4.234
m1q	1	7	-1.113	-12.06	.311	1.682
10a1	1	7	-1.322	-14.317	.796	4.31
10a3	1	7	-1.015	-10.991	.073	.397
10a4	1	7	-.976	-10.567	.388	2.099
10a5	1	7	-.703	-7.618	-.326	-1.766
10b1	1	7	-1.269	-13.743	.90	4.874
10b3	1	7	-.051	-.557	-1.346	-7.29
10c1	1	7	-.847	-9.174	.062	.335
10c2	1	7	-.752	-8.144	-.055	-.299
10c3	1	7	-.698	-7.559	-.028	-.153
10d1	1	7	-.698	-7.565	-.178	-.963
10d2	1	7	-.894	-9.682	.341	1.846
10e1	1	7	-.671	-7.27	-.297	-1.607
10e2	1	7	-.772	-8.357	.128	.691
10e3	1	7	-.611	-6.613	-.383	-2.075
10e4	1	7	-.738	-7.991	-.185	-1.004
10f2	1	7	-.307	-3.325	-.664	-3.595
10f3	1	7	-.556	-6.019	-.335	-1.814
m2b	1	5	-.755	-8.182	.39	2.111
m2a	1	5	-.233	-2.529	-.504	-2.73
m2c	1	5	-.908	-9.834	1.095	5.93
m2d	1	5	-.359	-3.89	-.068	-.367

Table 22 Skew and Kurtosis Values in the Main Study (Continued)

Variable	Min.	Max.	Skew	T Value	Kurtosis	T Value
m3c	1	5	.893	9.677	-.105	-.571
m3d	1	5	.716	7.757	-.187	-1.014
m3e	1	5	.841	9.107	-.246	-1.331
m3f	1	5	1.21	13.107	.623	3.372
m3l	1	5	1.132	12.259	.865	4.685
m3m	1	5	1.036	11.22	.471	2.551
m3n	1	5	.676	7.325	-.273	-1.48
m4a	1	5	1.033	11.191	.186	1.01
M4c	1	5	1.011	10.955	.362	1.959
m4d	1	5	.755	8.179	-.281	-1.521
m4e	1	5	.849	9.199	-.179	-.97
m5a	1	5	-.766	-8.301	0.515	2.787
m5b	1	5	-.991	-10.737	1.447	7.839
m5e	1	5	-.591	-6.401	.493	2.673
m6a	1	7	-.79	-8.555	.19	1.028
m6b	1	7	-.395	-4.278	-.284	-1.54
m6c	1	7	-.544	-5.892	-.2	-1.085
m6d	1	7	-.496	-5.372	-.209	-1.131
m7a	1	7	-.04	-.439	-.241	-1.306
m7b	1	7	.014	.15	-.121	-.657
m7c	1	7	-.041	-.445	.043	.234
m7d	1	7	.029	.315	.173	.94
m8a	1	7	.295	3.198	-.812	-4.396
m8b	1	7	-.016	-.173	-.909	-4.923
m8e	1	7	-.107	-1.159	-.429	-2.325
m8c	1	7	-.108	-1.172	-.773	-4.186
Org.Tenure	1	24	.228	2.475	-1.16	-6.284
Experiences	1	5	1.431	15.502	2.496	13.518
Sex	0	1	-.412	-4.461	-1.83	-9.913
Age	1	7	1.387	15.026	2.731	14.792
Income	1	5	.447	4.847	0.471	2.55
Line vs. Staff	0	1	.788	8.533	-1.379	-7.471
Org.Size	1	3	1.083	11.729	.174	.942
Domestic vs. International	0	1	1.625	17.606	.642	3.476
Multivariate					628.887	85.509

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Table 23 Respondents' Demographic Characteristics in the Main Study

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Organizational Tenure			
1-12 months	397	56.4	56.4
12.1-24 months	307	43.6	100
Hotel Work Experiences			
1st job	358	50.9	50.9
2nd-3rd jobs	260	36.9	87.8
4th-5th jobs	64	9.1	96.9
6th-7th jobs	14	2	98.9
8th jobs and above	8	1.1	100
Sex			
Male	281	39.9	39.9
Female	423	60.1	100
Age			
25 years old and below	552	78.4	78.4
26-35 years old	131	18.6	97
36 years old and above	21	3	100
Education			
Junior middle school or below	136	19.3	19.3
Senior middle school	351	49.9	69.2
3-year college diploma	155	22	91.2
4-year bachelor degree	61	8.7	99.9
Master's degree or above	1	0.1	100
Income			
¥ 630 and below	127	18	18
¥631-1000	354	50.3	68.3
¥1001- 2000	196	27.8	96.2
¥2001-3000	21	3	99.1
¥3001 or above	6	0.9	100
Department			
Line department	481	68.3	68.3
Staff department	223	31.7	100

N=704

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Table 24 Respondents' Organizational Characteristics in the Main Study

Organizational Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)	Cumulative Percent (%)
Respondents Hotel Star Level			
4-star	474	67.3	67.3
5-star	230	32.7	100
Hotel Size			
< 300 Beds	454	64.5	64.5
300-600 Beds	222	31.5	96
> 600 Beds	28	4	100
Branding			
Domestic Branding	574	81.5	81.5
International Branding	130	18.5	100
Hotel Location			
Haikou City	406	57.7	57.7
Sanya City	298	42.3	100

N=704

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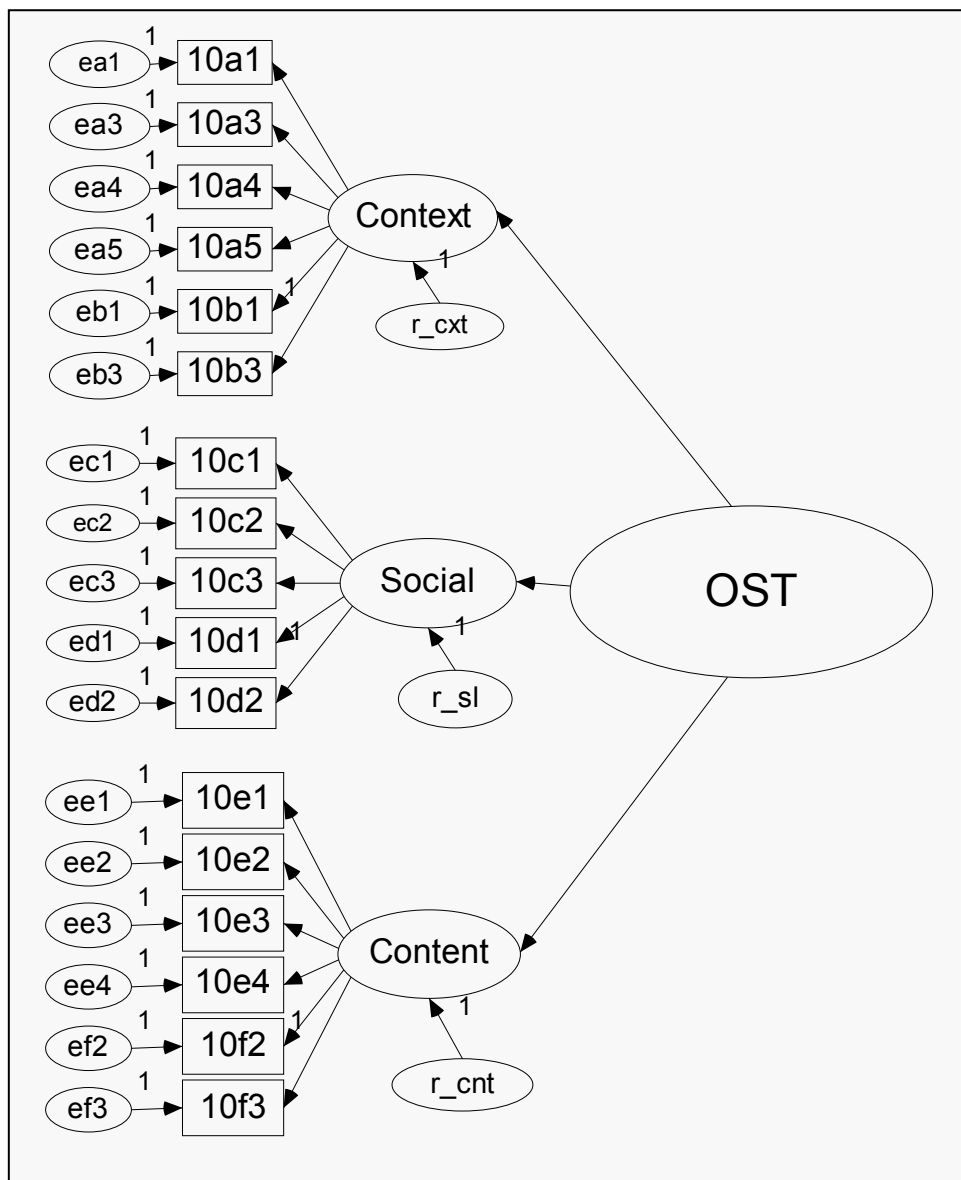
Notes: 1. GOF: χ^2 =314.284, *df*=116, p= .000, χ^2/df = 2.709, RMSEA= .049, CFI= .944, IFI= .944. 2. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps.
3. OST=Organizational Socialization Tactics. 4. Appendix B10 has more details on the manifested variables in this figure.

Figure 7 The Best Competing Model of OST

Table 25 Items Comprising Factor(s) among the OST Competing Models

Model Tested	First Order one factor						Second Order One Factor
	Context		Social		Content		
	Collective vs. Individual	Formal vs. Informal	Investiture vs. Divestiture	Serial vs. Disjunctive	Sequential vs. Random	Fixed vs. Variable	
Model OST_C3 (30 items, 6 factors)	10a1,10a2,10a3, 10a4,10a5	10b1, 10b2,10b3,10b4, 10b5	10c1,10c2,10c3,10c4, 10c5	10d1, 10d2,10d3,10d4,10d5	10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4, 10e5	10f1,10f2,10f3,10f4,10f5	
Model OST_C2 (30 items, 3 factors)	10a1,10a2,10a3,10a4,10a5, 10b1,10b2,10b3,10b4,10b5		10c1,10c2,10c3,10c4,10c5,10d1,10d2,10d3, 10d4, 10d5		10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10e5,10f1,10f2,10f3,10f4, 10f5		
Model OST_C1(30 items,1 factor)	10a1,10a2,10a3,10a4,10a5, 10b1,10b2,10b3,10b4,10b5,10c1,10c2,10c3,10c4,10c5,10d1,10d2,10d3,10d4,10d5,10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10e5,10f1,10f2, 10f3,10f4,10f5						
Model OST_C4 (17 items, 1 factor)	10a1, 10a3, 10a4, 10a5,10b1,10b3,10c1,10c2,10c3,10d1,10d2,10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10f2,10f3						
Model OST_C5 (17 items, 3 factors)	10a1,10a3,10a4,10a5,10b1,10b3		10c1,10c2,10c3,10d1,10d2		10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10f2,10f3		
Model OST_C6 (30 items, 3 first order factors)	10a1,10a2,10a3,10a4,10a5, 10b1,10b2,10b3,10b4,10b5		10c1,10c2,10c3,10c4,10c5,10d1,10d2,10d3,10d4, 10d5		10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10e5,10f1,10f2,10f3,10f4, 10f5		OST
Model OST_C7 (17 items, 1 second-order factor with 3 first-order factors)	10a1,10a3,10a4,10a5,10b1,10b3		10c1,10c2,10c3,10d1,10d2		10e1,10e2,10e3,10e4,10f2, 10f3		OST

Notes: Items comprising the factors can be found in Appendix B10; OST_C= Organizational Socialization Tactics Competing.

Table 26   Fit Indices among OST Competing Models

Models Tested	Model Fit Indices							Implied vs. Pop. ML Discrepancy(SE)	Model Comparison	Competing Results
	X^2	df	X^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI	IFI			
First order Factor Models										
Model OST_C1(30 items,1 factor)	2501.4	405	6.18	.00	.086	.645	.647	2593.635(.325)	NA	NA
Model OST_C2 (30 items, 3 factors)	2143.5	402	5.33	.00	.078	.705	.707	2239.787(.327)	OST_C1 vs. OST_C2	OST_C2 is better
Model OST_C3 (30 items, 6 factors)	2024.7	390	5.19	.00	.077	.723	.725	Fail to test	NA	OST_C3 is ruled out
Model OST_C4 (17 items, 1 factor)	601.02	119	5.05	.00	.076	.864	.865	653.293(.222)	NA	NA
Model OST_C5 (17 items, 3 factors)	314.28	116	2.71	.00	.049	.944	.944	369.427(.222)	OST_C5 vs. OST_C4	OST_C5 is better
Second Order Factor Models										
Model OST_C6 (30 items, 3 first order factors)	2143.5	402	5.33	.00	.078	.705	.707	2239.529(.322)	OST_C6 vs. OST_C7	OST_C7 is better
Model OST_C7 (17 items, 3 first order factors)	314.28	116	2.71	.00	.049	.944	.944	369.427(.222)	OST_C7 vs. OST_C5	OST_C 7 is equal to OST_C5
Overall Competing Results	OST_C5 is equal to OST_C7; OST_C5 and OST_C7 outperforms any other five competing models									

Notes: 1. OST_C=Organizational Socialization Tactics Competing; SE= Standard Error, ML=Maximum Likelihood, Pop.=Population. 2. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps.

Table 27 Factor Loadings of the Best OST Model

Paths	Factor Loadings	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
Second Order Paths					
Tactics —> Context	.892	.027	.837	.944	.001
Tactics —> Social	.893	.026	.843	.944	.001
Tactics—> Content	.837	.025	.789	.884	.001
First Order Paths					
Context —> 10a1	.529	.034	.460	.592	.001
Context —> 10a3	.356	.039	.281	.430	.001
Context —> 10a4	.572	.031	.509	.633	.001
Context —> 10a5	.458	.036	.391	.531	.001
Context —> 10b1	.705	.027	.651	.757	.001
Context —> 10b3	.300	.040	.206	.364	.001
Social —>10c1	.614	.028	.556	.666	.001
Social —> 10c2	.677	.027	.625	.729	.001
Social —> 10c3	.724	.024	.675	.770	.001
Social —> 10d1	.675	.025	.623	.724	.001
Social —> 10d2	.506	.033	.438	.566	.001
Content —> 10e1	.675	.023	.626	.717	.001
Content —> 10e2	.770	.019	.729	.804	.001
Content —> 10e3	.754	.020	.713	.792	.001
Content —> 10e4	.800	.018	.762	.833	.001
Content —> 10f2	.515	.031	.451	.571	.001
Content —> 10f3	.419	.034	.347	.479	.001

Note: Sample size is 704 with 2500 bootstraps.

Notes: 1. GOF: χ^2 =180.499, *df*=64, p= .000, χ^2/df = 2.82, RMSEA= .051, CFI= .953, IFI= .953. 2. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps. 3. CSE=Core Self-evaluation; 4. Appendix B1has more details about the manifested variables presented above.
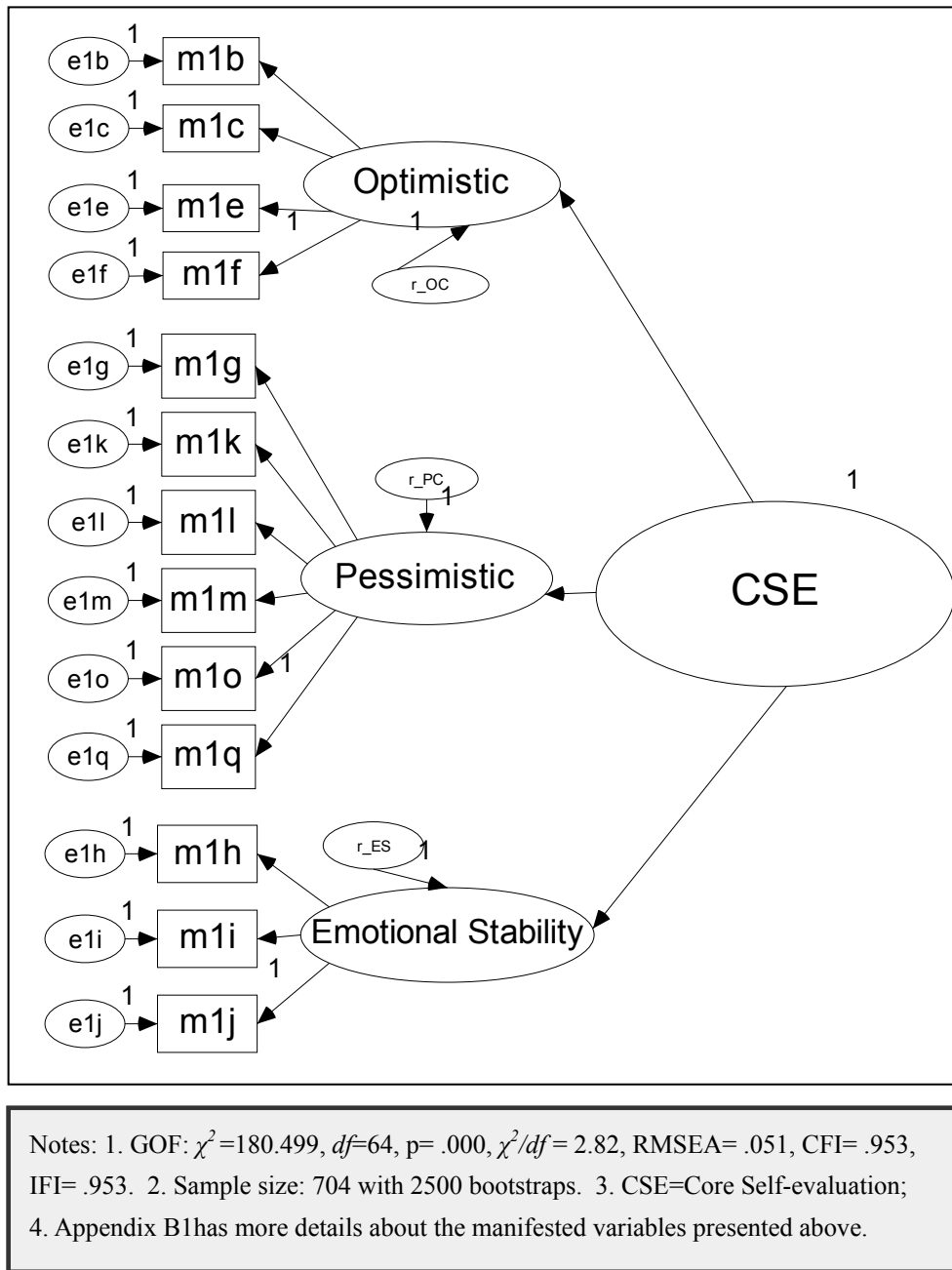
Figure 8 The Best Competing Model of CSE in the Main Study

Table 28 Items Comprising Factor(s) among the CSE Models in the Main Study

Models Tested	First Order Factors							Second Order Factor
	Optimistic Self Evaluation	Pessimistic Self Evaluation	Emotion Stability	Self Worth	Self-esteem	Self-efficacy	Locus of Control	
Model CSE_MC1 (12 items,1factor)	m1n, m1o, m1b, m1a, m1q, m1k, m1p, m1h, m1e, m1c, m1d, m1f							
Model CSE_MC2 (12 items, 3 factors)	m1p, m1d, m1c, m1e	m1n, m1o, m1q, m1h, m1k		m1a, m1b, m1f				
Model CSE_MC3 (17 items, 1factor)	m1a, m1b, m1c, m1d, m1e, m1f, m1m, m1n, m1o, m1q, m1l, m1g, m1k, m1i, m1h, m1j, m1p							
Model CSE_MC4 (17 items, 3 factors)	m1a,m1b,m1c,m1d,m1e,m1f	m1p,m1m,m1o,m1q,m1l,m1g,m1k, m1n	m1i,m1h,m1j					
Model CSE_MC5 (17 items, 4 factors)			m1h,m1i, m1j		m1a,m1b,m1q,m1k,m1p, m1m	m1c,m1f,m1d, m1g	m1l,m1e,m1o, m1n	
Model CSE_MC6 (13 items, 1 factor)	m1b, m1c, m1e, m1f, m1m, m1o, m1q, m1l, m1g, m1k, m1i, m1h, m1j							
Model CSE_MC7 (13 items, 4 factors)			m1h,m1i, m1j		m1q, m1b, m1k, m1m	m1c,m1f,m1g	m1l, m1e, m1o	
Model CSE_MC8 (13 items, 3 factors)	m1f, m1e, m1c, m1b	m1m, m1o, m1q, m1l, m1g,m1k	m1h, m1i, m1j					
Model CSE_MC9 (17 items, 3 factors)	m1a,m1b,m1c,m1d, m1e,m1f	m1m,m1n,m1o,m1q,m1l,m1g,m1k	m1i,m1h, m1j					CSE
Model CSE_MC10 (17 items, 4 factors)			m1h,m1i, m1j		m1q,m1b,m1a,m1k,m1p, m1m	m1c,m1f,m1d, m1g	m1l,m1e,m1o, m1n	CSE
Model CSE_MC11 (13 items, 4 factors)			m1h,m1i, m1j		m1q,m1b,m1k,m1m	m1c,m1f,m1g	m1l,m1e,m1o	CSE
Model CSE_MC12 (13 items, 3 factors)	m1f,m1e,m1c,m1b	m1m, m1o,m1q,m1l,m1g,m1k	m1i,m1h, m1j					CSE

Note: The item information is detailed in Appendix B1.

Table 29 Fit Indices among CSE Competing Models in the Main Study

Models Tested	Model Fit Indices							Implied vs. Pop. ML Discrepancy(S.E)	Model Comparison	Competing Results
	X^2	df	X^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI	IFI			
Competing CSE Models with Only First Order Factors										
Model CSE_MC1 (12 items,1factor)	603.68	54	11.18	.00	.12	.673	.675	643.179 (.232)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC1	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC2 (12 items, 3 factors)	193.463	53	3.65	.00	.061	.916	.917	231.405 (.184)	CSE_MC2 vs. CSE_MC8	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC3 (17 items, 1factor)	1033.78	119	8.69	.00	.105	.718	.72	1086.204 (.236)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC3	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC4 (17 items, 3 factors)	398.383	116	3.43	.00	.059	.913	.914	453.945 (.228)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC4	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC5 (17 items, 4 factors)	815.034	116	7.03	.00	.093	.785	.786	871.206 (.244)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC5	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC6 (13 items, 1 factor)	579.351	65	8.91	.00	.106	.792	.793	619.690 (.203)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC6	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC7 (13 items, 4 factors)	400.176	62	6.45	.00	.088	.863	.864	443.961 (.208)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC7	CSE_MC8 is better
Model CSE_MC8 (13 items, 3 factors)	190.053	64	2.97	.00	.053	.949	.949	231.088 (.193)	CSE_MC8 vs. CSE_MC2	CSE_MC8 is better
Competing CSE Models with both First and Second Order Factors										
Model CSE_MC9 (17 items, 3 factors)	428.816	118	3.63	.00	.061	.904	.905	482.199 (.220)	CSE_MC12 vs. CSE_MC9	CSE_MC12 is better
Model CSE_MC10 (17 items, 4 factors)	908.147	118	7.70	.00	.098	.757	.758	962.231 (.239)	CSE_MC12 vs. CSE_MC10	CSE_MC12 is better
Model CSE_MC11 (13 items, 4 factors)	499.696	64	7.81	.00	.098	.824	.825	541.210 (.204)	CSE_MC11vs. CSE_MC12	CSE_MC12 is better
Model CSE_MC12 (13 items, 3 factors)	180.499	64	2.82	.00	.051	.953	.953	221.524 (.193)	CSE_MC12 vs. CSE_MC8	CSE_MC12 is better
Overall Competing Results	Model CSE_MC12 outperforms any other eleven competing models									

Notes: S.E.= Standard Error; ML=Maximum Likelihood; Pop.=Population; Sample size for each of the competing models is 704 with a total of bootstrap samples of 2500.

Table 30 Factor Loadings of CSE in the Main Study

Paths	Factor Loadings	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
Second Order Paths					
CSE —> Optimistic	.470	.046	.376	.554	.001
CSE—> Pessimistic	.855	.019	.814	.887	.001
CSE—> Emotion Stability	.850	.026	.791	.892	.001
First Order Paths					
Optimistic—> m1f	.463	.026	.415	.519	.001
Optimistic —> m1e	.689	.034	.614	.750	.001
Optimistic —> m1c	.635	.033	.568	.699	.001
Optimistic —> m1b	.501	.039	.421	.574	.001
Pessimistic—>m1k	.584	.026	.531	.632	.001
Pessimistic —>m1g	.604	.029	.545	.657	.001
Pessimistic —> m1l	.623	.028	.570	.675	.001
Pessimistic —> m1q	.693	.025	.638	.736	.001
Pessimistic —> m1o	.669	.025	.617	.717	.001
Pessimistic —>m1m	.733	.022	.687	.775	.001
Emotion Stability —> m1j	.558	.035	.484	.623	.001
Emotion Stability —> m1h	.754	.024	.703	.798	.001
Emotion Stability —> m1i	.771	.023	.722	.813	.001

Notes: 1. Sample size is 704 with 2500 bootstraps. 2. CSE=Core Self-evaluation.

Notes: 1. GOF: $\chi^2 = 222.219$, df=125, p= .000, χ^2/df =1.778, RMSEA= .033, CFI= .980, IFI= .980. 2. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps. 3. Appendices B2, B3, B4, and B5 have more details on the manifested variables presented above.
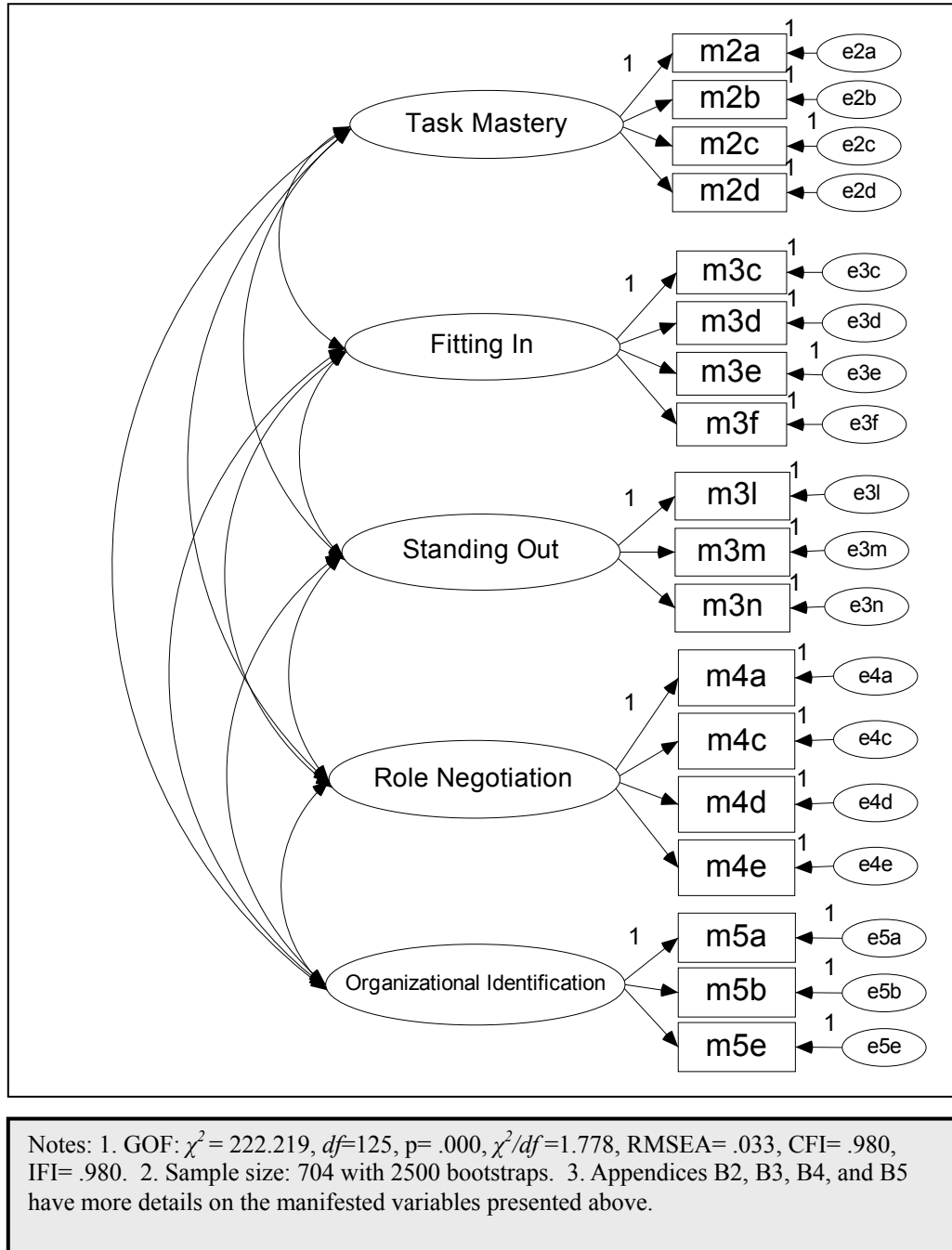
Figure 9 Measurement Model of the Adjustment Dimensions in the Main Study

Table 31 Factor Loadings of the Adjustment Dimensions in the Main Study

Path	Factor Loading	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
Task Mastery —> m2d	.569	.034	.498	.633	.001
Task Mastery —> m2c	.611	.032	.547	.671	.001
Task Mastery —> m2a	.646	.030	.584	.701	.001
Task Mastery —> m2b	.719	.029	.658	.772	.001
Fitting in —> m3f	.725	.023	.677	.768	.001
Fitting in —> m3e	.727	.023	.681	.768	.001
Fitting in —> m3d	.796	.019	.754	.832	.001
Fitting in —> m3c	.720	.023	.673	.761	.001
Standing Out —> m3m	.846	.017	.812	.876	.001
Standing Out —> m3n	.709	.023	.659	.752	.001
Standing Out —> m3l	.823	.018	.785	.855	.001
Role Negotiation—> m4a	.694	.024	.644	.739	.001
Role Negotiation—> m4c	.781	.021	.736	.821	.001
Role Negotiation—> m4e	.720	.024	.673	.765	.001
Role Negotiation—> m4d	.770	.021	.726	.809	.001
Organizational Identification—> m5a	.831	.020	.794	.869	.001
Organizational Identification—> m5e	.685	.025	.631	.732	.001
Organizational Identification—> m5b	.819	.020	.780	.859	.001

Note: Sample size is 704 with 2500 bootstraps.

5.3.4 CFA Results of the Consequences

With use of the 704 observations data set, a 12-item consequence measurement model (Figure 10) was specified for the main study covering three latent constructs: OJS (four items), OJP (four items), and TI (four items). This model demonstrated good fit indices: CFI = .965, IFI = .965, RMSEA = .064, χ^2/df = 3.919. Moreover, the factor loadings of the 12 items (Table 32) approached using the bootstrap SEM method were all significant, ranging from .517 to .889. A specific example of this was the path of OJS→$m6c$ being statistically significant, with a loading of .827 with a 95% BC bootstrap CI of .795 to .855 (SE = .015, sig. = .001).

5.4 Cross-Validating Measurement Models in the Main Study

To cross-validate the factor structures, the data set was randomly split into two samples, each of which had 352 observations. Overall, a series of cross-validation results indicated that all measurement models developed in the main study were stable across different samples and exhibited acceptable levels of model fit. The following section illustrates a specific example of how and why the specified OST factor structure, as depicted in Figure 7, exhibited both configural invariance and full metric invariance.

As shown in Table 33, the same factor structure identified using the sample of 704 fit the two split samples very well, in that the GOF in the first split sample was CFI = .94, RMSEA = .053, χ^2/df = 1.99 and that in the second split sample was CFI = .95, RMSEA = .045, χ^2/df = 1.72. Moreover, the nonrestrictive measurement model (Model OST_CVa) exhibited acceptable levels of model fit: CFI = .94, RMSEA = .035, χ^2/df = 1.85. These findings jointly suggested that configural invariance (i.e., the same basic factor structure) of OST existed across the two split samples. Furthermore, to test for metric invariance across the two samples, the study constrained each loading of OST to be equal across the two samples. The results indicated that the chi-square difference between the nonrestricted measurement model (Model OST_CVa) and the full metric invariance model (Model OST_CVb) was not significant, $\Delta\chi^2(16)$ = 18.425, p > .05. The conclusion is that these two models exhibited full metric invariance (i.e., the equivalence of the factor loadings). The foregoing findings regarding both configural invariance and full metric invariance thus show that the OST measurement model

developed in the main study was stable across both subsamples and exhibited acceptable levels of model fit.

Likewise, across different samples, this study also tested each of the factorial invariances of the other three measurement models—that is, the CSE measurement model (Figure 8), the measurement model of adjustment dimensions (Figure 9), and the measurement model of consequences (Figure 10)—using the same methods and procedures as that of the factorial invariance testing for OST. The results (Table 33 and Table 34) of testing both the configural invariance and the full metric invariance for each of the three measurement models reveal that each model developed using the data set was also stable across the two split samples and exhibited very acceptable levels of model fit.

5.5 Overall Measurement Model Fit Indices in the Main Study

Although each of the foregoing measurement models developed for the main study exhibited acceptable levels of model fit, the overall measurement model comprising all the foregoing measurement models may not necessarily have done the same. For this reason, an examination of fit indices was conducted for the overall measurement model, depicted in Figure 11. The results of the examination showed that this model also exhibited acceptable levels of model fit—CFI = .922, IFI = .922, RMSEA = .034, χ^2/df = 1.81—given that the overall measurement model was a complex model (Hair et al., 2010).

The overall measurement model thus provided a solid foundation for developing an overall structural model for the main study. It also led to examination of the discriminant validity of a given latent construct (detailed next).

5.6 Construct Discriminant Validity in the Main Study

According to Hair et al. (2010), discriminant validity refers to "the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs and how distinctly variables represent only this single measured construct" (p. 669). In the literature, this validity is often gauged by a latent construct's AVE value. Among the eight examined first-order factors, all except for task mastery (AVE = .41) exhibited AVE values above the

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threshold level of .50, as per Dillon and Goldstein (1984). Although task mastery exhibited a slightly low discriminant value, its AVE value was actually larger than any of the squared correlation values in the same row (Table 35), indicating that the task mastery construct exhibited good discriminant validity as well. Thus, each of the examined first-order latent factors possessed either moderately good or very good discriminant validity.

5.7 Construct Internal Consistency

This study also examined the latent constructs' reliability and validity. The results of checking the constructs' reliability values (Table 35) indicate that the Cronbach's alpha values in the main study range from .73 to .88, all exceeding .70, a threshold recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Therefore, those examined constructs in the main study all exhibited acceptable levels of construct internal consistency pending subsequent analyses, such as detecting the structural relationships among these latent constructs.

5.8 Overall Structural Model

As shown in Figure 12, the overall structural model was tested using the data set collected in the main survey. Again, the bootstrap SEM method was used, generating 5000 bootstrap samples for this purpose. In accordance with Hair et al. (2010), the results indicate that the specified model fit the data very well—CFI = .917, IFI = .918, RMSEA = .032, χ^2/df = 1.723—given the high complexity of the present model (i.e., as complex as having 16 latent constructs and 68 manifested variables). The well-fitted structural model in turn enabled this study to test the corresponding hypotheses (detailed next).

Notes: 1. GOF: χ^2 =199.863, *df*=51, p= .000, χ^2/df =3.919, RMSEA= .064, CFI= .965, IFI= .965. 2. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps. 3. OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, TI=Turnover Intention. 4. Appendices B6, B7, and B8 have more details on the manifested variables presented above.
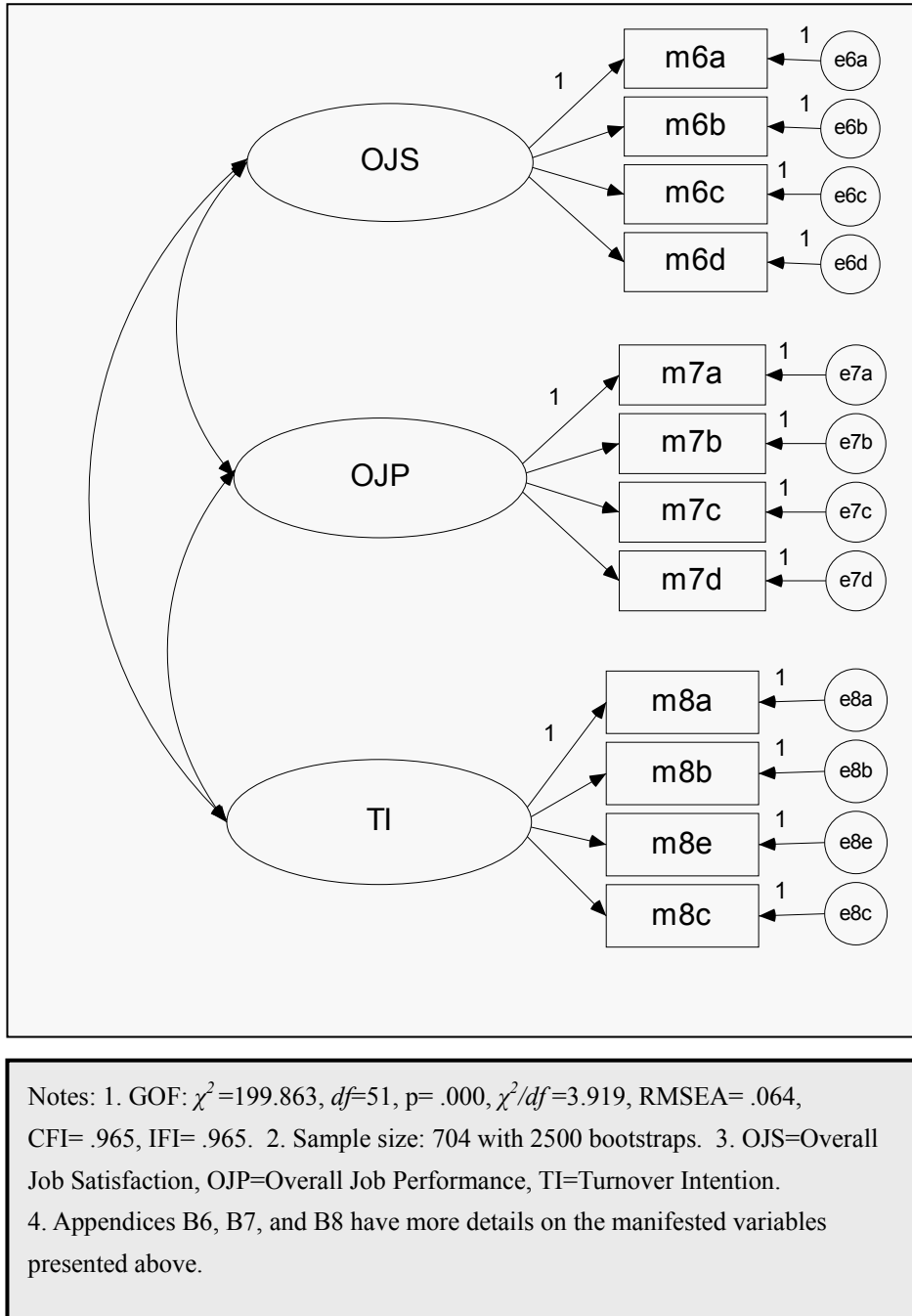
Figure 10 Measurement Models of the Consequences in the Main Study

Table 32 Factor Loadings of the Consequences in the Main Study

Path	Factor Loading	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
OJS —> m6a	.729	.021	.687	.768	.001
OJS —> m6b	.810	.016	.777	.840	.001
OJS —> m6c	.827	.015	.795	.855	.001
OJS —> m6d	.862	.014	.833	.886	.001
OJP —> m7a	.703	.022	.655	.741	.001
OJP —> m7b	.865	.014	.836	.888	.001
OJP —> m7c	.889	.012	.864	.912	.001
OJP —> m7d	.770	.018	.732	.805	.001
TI —> m8a	.805	.020	.763	.842	.001
TI —> m8b	.774	.021	.731	.815	.001
TI —> m8e	.517	.032	.449	.575	.001
TI —> m8c	.736	.024	.685	.780	.001

Notes: 1. Sample size is 704 with 2500 bootstraps.   2. OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, and TI=Turnover Intention.

Table 33 Cross-Validating the Factor Structures of OST and CSE in the Main Study

Models Tested	Model Fit Indices						Model Comparison	Model Differences		
	X^2	df	X^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI		ΔX^2	Δdf	significant status
Model OST_CV: Cross-Validation of OST Factor Structure										
OST model in Split sample 1 (N=352)	234.442	118	1.99	.000	.053	.94				
OST model in Split sample 2 (N=352)	203.078	118	1.72	.000	.045	.95				
Model OST_CVa: Nonrestricted measurement model	437.591	237	1.85	.000	.035	.94				
Model OST_CVb: Full metric invariance	456.016	253	1.80	.000	.030	.94	OST_CVb vs. OST_CVa	18.425	16	none significant at α= .01
Model CSE_CV: Cross-Validation of CSE Factor Structure										
CSE Model in Split sample 1 (N=352)	130.228	64	2.03	.000	.053	.95				
CSE Model in Split sample 2 (N=352)	134.913	64	2.11	.000	.056	.95				
Model CSE_CVa: Nonrestricted measurement model	265.162	129	2.06	.000	.035	.95				
Model CSE_CVb: Full metric invariance	287.442	141	2.04	.000	.040	.94	CSE_CVb vs. CSE_CVa	22.28	12	none significant at α= .01

Notes: OST_CV=Organizational Socialization Tactics Cross-Validation; CSE_CV=Core Self-evaluation Cross-Validation.

Table 34 Cross-Validating the Factor Structures of the Adjustment Dimensions and the Consequences in the Main Study

Models Tested	Model Fit Indices						Model Comparison	Model Differences		
	X^2	df	X^2/df	p	RMSEA	CFI		ΔX^2	Δdf	significant status
Model TAD_CV: Cross-Validation of TAD Factor Structure										
Model TAD in Split sample 1 (N=352)	185.618	125	1.48	.000	.037	.98				
Model TAD in Split sample 2 (N=352)	208.334	125	1.67	.000	.044	.96				
Model TAD_CVa: Nonrestricted measurement model	393.952	250	1.58	.000	.029	.97				
Model TAD_CVb: Full metric invariance	416.163	263	1.58	.000	.029	.97	TAD_CVb vs. TAD_CVa	22.211	13	none significant at α= .01
Model TC_CV: Cross-Validation of TC Factor Structure										
TC Model in Split sample 1 (N=352)	136.224	51	2.67	.000	.069	.96				
TC Model in Split sample 2 (N=352)	129.351	51	2.54	.000	.066	.97				
Model TC_CVa: Nonrestricted measurement model	265.575	102	2.60	.000	.048	.96				
Model TC_CVb: Full metric invariance	273.145	111	2.46	.000	.046	.96	TC_CVb vs.TC_CVa	7.57	9	none significant at α= .01

Notes: TAD_CV=The Adjustment Dimension Cross-Validation; TC_CV= The Consequences Cross-Validation.
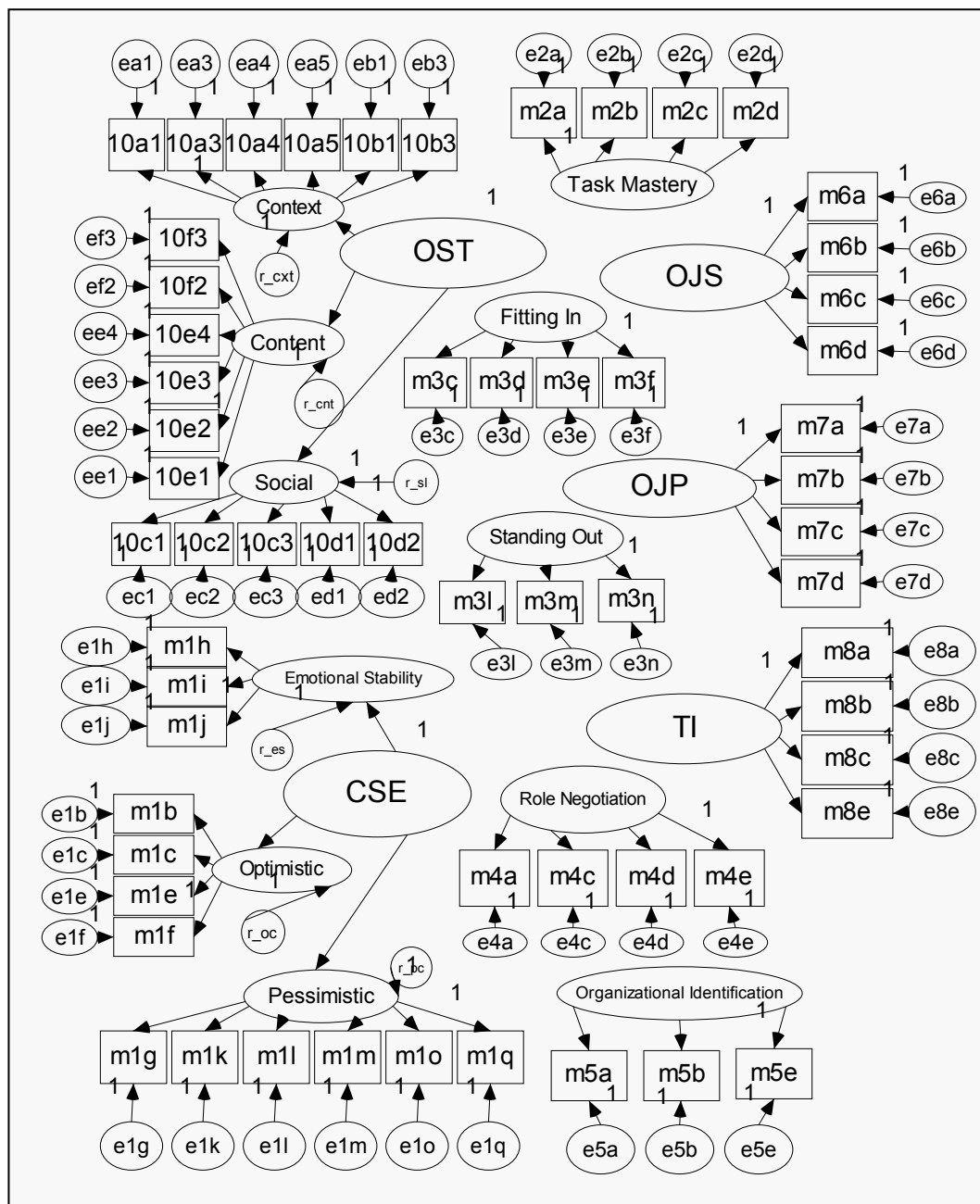
Notes: 1. Free correlations among all latent variables except for the first order latent variables of CSE and OST. 2. Sample size: 704 with 5000 bootstraps. 3. GOF: χ^2 =3005.650, df=1661, p= .000, χ^2/df =1.81, RMSEA= .034, CFI= .921, IFI= .922. 4. OST=Organizational Socialization Tactics, CSE=Core Self-evaluation, TI=Turnover Intention, OJP=Overall Job Performance, OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction. 5. Appendix B has more details on the manifested variables presented above.

Figure 11 The Overall Measurement Model in the Main Study

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Table 35 Results of Comprehensive Descriptive Statistics for the Latent and Control Variables in the Main Study

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	AVE
1. CSE	[.84]	.14**	.07**	.07**	.17**	.20**	.12**	.14**	.01	.12**	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01*	.05	.00	.01*	NA
2. OST	.37**	[.87]	.10**	.07**	.05**	.18**	.42**	.44**	.03**	.00	.00	.00	.01*	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04**	NA
3.Task Mastery	.26**	.32**	[.73]	.02**	.16**	.06**	.05**	.05**	.29**	.00	.05**	.02**	.00	.03**	.10**	.01	.00	.00	.41
4. Fitting in	-.26**	-.32**	-.15**	[.83]	.22**	.27**	.08**	.08**	.00	.07**	.00	.00	.00	.01**	.00	.00	.01*	.01*	.55
5. Standing out	-.41**	-.23**	-.40**	.47**	[.83]	.36**	.05**	.08**	.08**	.03**	.00	.00	.00	.02**	.04**	.01*	.00	.00	.63
6.Role Negotiation	-.45**	-.42**	-.25**	.52**	.60**	[.83]	.18**	.19**	.01*	.08**	.00	.00	.00	.02**	.03**	.01*	.01*	.01**	.55
7.Org.Identification	.35**	.65**	.23**	-.28**	-.23**	-.43**	[.82]	.59**	.08**	.17**	.00	.00	.00	.02**	.01*	.01*	.00	.03**	.61
8.OJS	.37**	.66**	.23**	-.27**	-.27**	-.43**	.77**	[.88]	.07**	.27**	.00	.00	.00	.02**	.00	.01**	.00	.01*	.65
9.OJP	.09	.17**	.54**	.05	-.29**	-.10*	.23**	.27**	[.88]	.00	.03**	.02**	.01*	.02**	.04**	.00	.00	.00	.66
10.TI	-.34**	-.27**	.03	.27**	.17**	.29**	-.41**	-.52**	.07	[.80]	.00	.00	.00	.04**	.02**	.02**	.00	.00	.51
11.Tenure	-.01	-.02	.21**	-.05	-.06	-.04	.04	-.01	.18**	.06	NA	.02**	.00	.06**	.07**	.00	.00	.00	NA
12.Experiences	-.09	-.04	.13**	.02	-.03	-.02	-.01	.01	.14**	.03	.13**	NA	.01*	.06**	.05**	.00	.01**	.01*	NA
13.Sex	.06	-.11*	-.07	-.04	-.02	.01	-.03	-.05	-.09*	-.03	.05	-.10*	NA	.01*	.00	.02**	.00	.00	NA
14.Age	.04	.04	.16**	-.11**	-.14**	-.15**	.13**	.13**	.15**	-.21**	.25**	.25**	-.08*	NA	.12**	.04**	.00	.00	NA
15.Income	.11*	-.06	.31**	-.05	-.21**	-.17**	.10**	.07	.19**	-.13**	.27**	.23**	-.03	.34**	NA	.09**	.01**	.00	NA
16.Dept.	.23	.014	.08	-.06	-.09*	-.10*	.09*	.11**	.05	-.14**	.04	-.04	-.13**	.20**	.30**	NA	.00	.00	NA
17.Hotel Size	.07	.01**	.03	-.09*	-.04	-.10*	.07	.04	.01	.02	.01	-.10**	.01	.03	.11**	.03	NA	.26**	NA
18.Local vs. Global	.09*	.21**	.06	-.08*	-.07	-.11**	.17**	.08*	.05	-.01	-.02	-.10*	-.05	.02	.02	-.02	.51**	NA	NA
Mean	5.14	5.17	3.76	2.02	2.07	2.12	3.85	5.04	4.10	3.87	10.98	1.66	.60	2.05	2.18	.32	1.39	.18	NA
SD	.94	.93	.67	.91	.91	.94	.79	1.25	1.21	1.40	6.95	.815	.49	.99	.79	.47	.56	.39	NA
Minimum	2.54	1.24	1.50	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	NA
Maximum	7.00	7.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	24.00	5.00	1.00	7.00	5.00	1.00	3.00	1.00	NA

Notes: 1. Sample size is 704 with 5000 bootstraps. 2. CSE= Core Self-evaluation, OST= Organizational Socialization Tactics, OJS=Overall Job Satisfaction, OJP=Overall Job Performance, TI=Turnover Intention, Org. = Organizational, AVE= Average Variance Extracted. 3. "**" indicates that correlation is significant at .01 level; "*" indicates that correlation is significant at .05 level; Reliability Alpha Values are on the diagonal. 4. Bivariate correlations are below the diagonal, while their corresponding squared correlation values are above the diagonal.
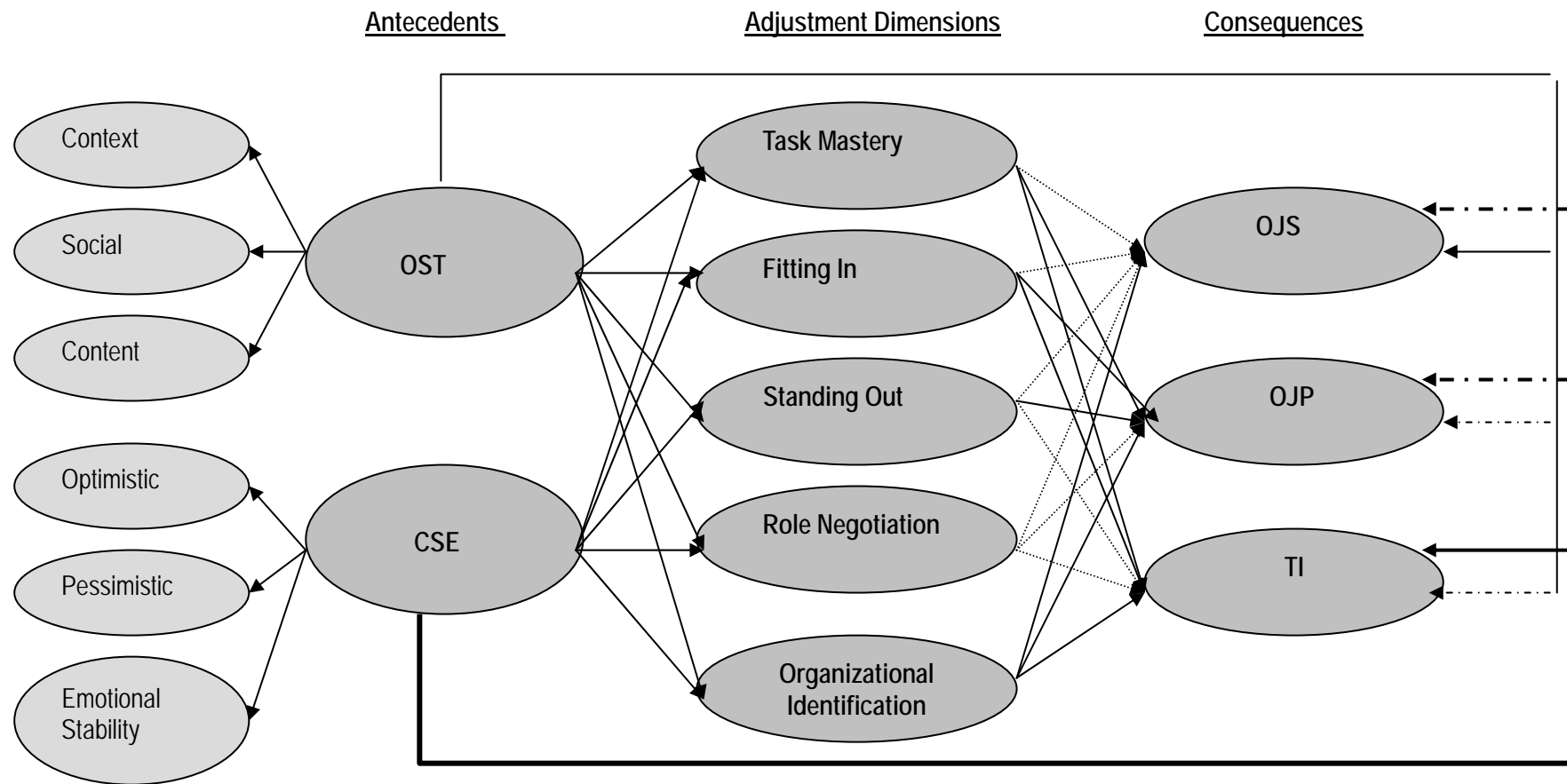
Significant Path ⟶ None Significant Path ┄┄► Goodness of Fit: χ^2/df =1.723, RMSEA= .032, CFI= .917, IFI= .918
704 Observations with 5000 bootstraps; Partialed out are influences of 2 organizational characteristics and 6 employees demographic variables.

Figure 12   Statistical Results of the Overall Structural Model in the Main Study

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5.9 Testing the Hypotheses

5.9.1 Testing the Hypotheses on the OA Adjustment Dimensions

As shown in Table 6, the first hypothesis (H1) developed for this study was as follows: The proposed OA adjustment measure is essentially multidimensional, such that each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification) is both distinct from and correlated to the others. Additionally, it has five subhypotheses, such as Hypothesis 1.1 (H1.1), that task mastery would present itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment.

To test these hypotheses, the measurement model regarding the five OA adjustment dimensions was initially developed (depicted in Figure 9 and noted in section 5.3.3) and eventually cross-validated using the two split samples (Table 34). Overall, the specified OA adjustment model (Figure 9) turned out to exhibit high levels of model fit. The results further indicate that the five OA adjustment dimensions were not only distinct but also significantly correlated with one another. The absolute bivariate correlations among the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions were all significant at the .01 level, ranging from .15 to .60 (Table 35). Finally, the 18 usable items were distributed among the five OA adjustment dimensions confirmed therein (Figure 9): task mastery (four items), fitting in (four items), standing out (three items), role negotiation (four items), and organizational identification (three items). Overall, these combined findings suggest that H1, as well as its five subhypotheses H1.1, H1.2, H1.3, H1.4, H1.5, all gained empirical support in this study.

5.9.2 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the OST-Adjustment-OJS Paths

Prior to detailing the results of the hypotheses tests related to the OST-adjustment-OJS paths, it is necessary to underscore that all causal hypotheses in this study were developed sequentially for each of the following five paths: (a) the antecedent-consequence path without controlling for OA adjustment dimensions, (b) the antecedent-adjustment path, (c) the adjustment-consequence path, (d) the antecedent-

adjustment-consequence path, and (e) the antecedent-consequence path after controlling for the adjustment dimensions. In line with the same sequential order, the results of testing the hypotheses both on the CSE-adjustment-OJS paths and on all other causal paths are presented as follows.

The OST—OJS Path in the Absence of Mediators. As noted earlier, the second hypothesis of the study (H2) stated that institutionalized OST would relate to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators of task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. As shown in Table 35, the mean value of the OST construct was 5.17, revealing that on average, OST as witnessed by the 704 respondents was essentially institutionalized in this study. The results summarized in Table 37 further indicate whether the institutionalized OST was related to OJS. In particular, Table 37 presents both the model fit indices and path coefficient of the model labeled PfM_1, in which OJS is the endogenous variable and OST the exogenous variable. More specifically, this model exhibited high levels of fit, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .043, χ^2/df = 2.316. In addition, the OST→OJS causal path was statistically significant (β = .656, $p < .01$). Thus, these combined findings suggest that H2 was supported.

Testing the OST—Adjustment Hypotheses. In support of Hypothesis 3 as well as its five subhypotheses, institutionalized OST was found to be significantly related to each of the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions: task mastery (β = .285, $p < .01$), fitting in (β = -.269, $p < .01$), standing out (β = -.117, $p < .05$), role negotiation (β = -.293, $p < .01$), and organizational identification (β = .619, $p < .01$). In other words, socializees perceived institutionalized OST as positively related to their task mastery and organizational identification, but negatively related to the level of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation. Table 38 presents details on these direct causal paths as well as all other proposed direct causal paths in the overall structural models.

Testing the Adjustment—OJS Hypotheses. As shown in Table 38, OJS was found to be significantly predicted by organizational identification (β = .623, $p < .01$), but not significantly by task mastery (β = -.043, $p > .05$), fitting in (β = .024, $p > .05$), standing out (β = -.070, $p > .05$), or role negotiation (β = -.000, $p > .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 4 was only partially supported in that only one of its subhypotheses (H4.5)

gained empirical support, whereas the other four (H4.1, H4.2, H4.3, and H4.4) were all rejected.

Testing OST's Overall Indirect Effects on OJS via the Adjustment Dimensions. In a situation involving multiple mediation, a given *X* variable's indirect effect on a given *Y* variable via *M* comprises two types, namely, the overall versus the specific indirect effect (noted earlier in section 4.11). This was also true for the OST-adjustment-OJS model, which had both overall indirect effects (i.e., OST on OJS via the five mediators collectively) and specific indirect effects (e.g., OST on OJS via task mastery while simultaneously controlling for the other four mediators). The results (Table 39) indicate that the overall indirect effect of OST on OJS via the five mediators collectively was statistically significant: OST-adjustment-OJS ($\beta = .375$, $p = .001$). In other words, the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions collectively and substantially transmitted OST's effects to OJS.

Testing OST's Specific Indirect Effects on OJS via the Adjustment Dimensions. Despite OST's substantiated overall indirect effect on OJS via the adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether each of the specific indirect effects would be significant. This involved Hypothesis 5 developed in this study, which specifically stated that the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJS would be mediated by each of the five adjustment dimensions. Sobel's tests were performed to identify these specific indirect effects. The results (Table 40) indicate that OST-OJS was mediated specifically only by organizational identification ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = .386$, $z = 8.123$), and not by the other four OA adjustment dimensions such as standing out ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = .008$, $z = 1.053$). Therefore, H5 was only partially supported in that four of its subhypotheses (H5.1, H5.2, H5.3, and H5.4) were rejected and only one (H5.5) was supported.

The OST—OJS Path in the Presence of Mediators. Although it was clear that the OST-OJS relationship was significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this direct causal path would be significant after controlling for the five mediators. This question led to the sixth hypothesis in this study, that institutionalized OST would be related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification). The results (Table 38) indicate that, after controlling for

the five mediators, the OST-OJS relationship remained significant, (β = .240, p = .002). This means that OST-OJS relationship was only partially mediated by the set of proposed five adjustment dimensions. Thus, H6—that institutionalized OST would be positively and significantly related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators—was supported.

5.9.3 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the OST-Adjustment-OJP Paths

The OST—OJP Relation in the Absence of Mediators. To assess OST's direct influence on OJP in the absence of the five mediators, this study proposed and tested a structural model in which OJP was the endogenous variable and OST the exogenous variable. The SEM results (Table 37) indicate that this model of PfM_2 exhibited acceptable levels of fit: CFI = .93, RMSEA = .052, χ^2/df = 2.905. The results further indicate that the CSE→OJP causal path was statistically significant (β = .169, SE = .045, p = .001). Thus, H7—that OST would be related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was supported.

Testing the Adjustment—OJP Hypotheses. As shown in Table 38, OJP was significantly predicted by all mediators except for role negotiation. Specifically, OJP was predicted by task mastery (β = .470, p = .001), fitting in (β = .0217, p = .001), standing out (β = -.263, p = .001), and organizational identification (β = .258, p = .001), but was not significantly predicted by role negotiation (β = .123, p = .079). Thus, H8 was only partially supported in that four of its subhypotheses (H8.1, H8.2, H8.3, and H8.5) were supported while one (H8.4) was rejected.

OST's Overall Indirect Effects on OJP via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 39, the overall indirect effect of OST on OJP via the five proposed mediators was significant (β = .23, SE = .06, p = .001). In other words, the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions jointly and substantially transmitted OST's effect to OJP, pending further examination of the specific indirect effects of OST on OJP via the five adjustment dimensions (detailed next).

OST's Specific Indirect Effects on OJP via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 42, the results of the Sobel's tests indicate that

except for role negotiation, the remaining four OA adjustment dimensions significantly mediated the OST-OJP relationship when simultaneously controlled for. In other words, the OST effect on OJP was specifically and significantly mediated by task mastery ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .134, z = 4.504, p = .000), fitting in ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.058, z = -3.196, p = .001), standing out ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .031, z = 1.988, p = .046), and organizational identification ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .160, z = 3.833, p = .000), but was not specifically mediated by role negotiation ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.036, z = 1.670, p = .094). Thus, H9—that the relationship between OST and OJP would be mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification)—was only partially supported. Furthermore, four of H9's subhypotheses (H9.1, H9.2, H9.3, and H9.5) were all supported, whereas H9.4 was rejected.

The Direct OST-OJP Relationship in the Presence of Mediators. Although it was clear that the OST-OJP relationship was significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this same direct causal path would be significant after controlling for the five mediators. This question led to the 10th hypothesis in this study, that institutionalized OST would be related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators. The results (Table 38) indicate that, after controlling for the five mediators, the OST-OJP relationship became nonsignificant (β = -.057, p = .466), meaning that it was fully mediated by the set of proposed five adjustment dimensions. Thus, H10—that institutionalized OST would be significantly and positively related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators—was rejected.

5.9.4 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the OST-Adjustment-TI Paths

The OST—TI Relation in the Absence of Mediators. To assess OST's direct influence on TI in the absence of the five mediators, this study proposed and tested a structural model in which TI was the endogenous variable and OST the exogenous variable. The SEM results (Table 37) indicate that this model of PfM_3 exhibited acceptable levels of fit, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .044, χ^2/df = 2.343, while further results showed that the CSE→OJP causal path was statistically significant (β = -.264, SE = .045, p = .001).   Thus, H11—that institutionalized organizational

socialization tactics (OST) would be negatively and significantly related to turnover intention (TI) without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was supported.

Testing the Adjustment—TI Hypotheses. As shown in Table 38, TI was significantly predicted by task mastery ($\beta = .250$, $p = .001$), fitting in ($\beta = .145$ $p = .018$), and organizational identification ($\beta = -.384$, $p = .001$), but not by role negotiation ($\beta = -.031$, $p = .725$) or standing out ($\beta = -.017$, $p = .829$). Thus, H12 was only partially supported in that three of its subhypotheses (H12.1, H12.2, and H12.5) were supported while two (H12.3 and H12.4) were rejected.

OST's Overall Indirect Effects on TI via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 39, the overall indirect effect of OST on OJP via the five proposed mediators was significant ($\beta = -.194$, $SE = .066$, $p = .002$). In other words, the results reveal that the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions jointly and substantially transmitted OST's effects to TI, pending further examination of the specific indirect effects of OST on TI via the five adjustment dimensions (detailed next).

OST's Specific Indirect Effects on TI via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 43, the results of the Sobel's tests indicate that only three of the five specific indirect effects of OST on TI via the adjustment dimensions were substantiated, namely, task mastery ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = .071$, $z = 3.160$, $p = .001$), fitting in ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = -.039$, $z = -2.259$, $p = .023$), and organizational identification ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = -.238$, $z = -4.564$, $p = .000$). The other two specific indirect effects turned out to be not significant, namely, standing out ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = .002$, $z = .222$, $p = .823$) and role negotiation ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}} = .009$, $z = .386$, $p = .698$). Thus, H13—that the relationship between OST and TI would be mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification)—was only partially supported. Furthermore, three subhypotheses of H13 (H13.1, H13.2, and H13.5) were all supported, whereas H13.3 and H13.4 were accordingly rejected.

The Direct OST-TI Relationship in the Presence of Mediators. Although it was clear that the OST-TI relation was significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this same direct causal path

would be significant in the presence of the five adjustment dimensions. The results (Table 38) indicate that, after controlling for the five mediators, the OST-TI relationship became nonsignificant, (β = .000, p = .956). This means that the OST-TI relationship was fully mediated by the set of proposed five adjustment dimensions. Thus, H14—that institutionalized OST would be negatively and significantly related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was rejected.

5.9.5 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the CSE-Adjustment-OJS Paths

The CSE—OJS Path in the Absence of Mediators. To assess CSE's direct influence on OJS in the absence of the five mediators, this study proposed and tested a structural model in which OJS was the endogenous variable and OST the exogenous variable. The SEM results indicate that this model exhibited high levels of fit, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .046, χ^2/df = 2.513, while other results (Table 37) further indicate that the OST→OJS causal path was statistically significant (β = .362, SE = .043, p = .001). Thus, H15—that CSE would be positively and significantly related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was supported.

Testing the CSE—Adjustment Hypotheses. In support of Hypothesis 16 as well as its five subhypotheses, Table 38 shows that CSE was found to be significantly related to each of the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions: task mastery (β = .140, p < .05), fitting in (β = -.148, p < .01), standing out (β = -.348, p < .01), role negotiation (β = -.328, p < .01), and organizational identification (β = .110, p < .05). In other words, the extent to which socializees positively evaluated themselves was positively related to their task mastery and organizational identification, but negatively related to the corresponding level of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.

CSE's Overall Indirect Effects on OJS via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 39, the overall indirect effect of OST on OJP via the five proposed mediators was significant (β = .083, SE = .037, p < .05). In other words, the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions jointly and substantially transmitted CSE's effect to OJS, pending further examination of the specific indirect effects of CSE on OJS via the five adjustment dimensions (detailed next).

CSE's Specific Indirect Effects on OJS via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 46, the results of the Sobel's tests indicate that except for organizational identification, the remaining four OA adjustment dimensions did not mediate the CSE-OJS relation significantly when controlled for simultaneously. In other words, the effect of CSE on OJS was not significantly mediated by task mastery ($\beta_{product-of-coefficients}$ = -.006, z = -.079, p = .42), fitting in ($\beta_{product-of-coefficients}$ = -.004, z = -.512, p = .61), standing out ($\beta_{product-of-coefficients}$ = .024, z = 1.16, p = .24), or role negotiation ($\beta_{product-of-coefficients}$ = .000, z = .000, p = 1.00). But the same CSE-OJS relationship was specifically mediated by organizational identification ($\beta_{product-of-coefficients}$ = -.069, z = 2.187, p = .028). Thus, H17—that the relationship between CSE and OJS would be mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification)—was only partially supported. More specifically, four of the subhypotheses of H17 (H17.1, H17.2, H17.3, and H17.4) were all rejected, whereas H17.5 was supported.

The Direct CSE-OJS Relationship in the Presence of the Five Mediators. Although it was clear that the CSE-OJS relationship was significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this same direct causal path would be significant after controlling for the five mediators. This question led to the 18th hypothesis, that CSE would be related to OJS after the five proposed mediators were controlled for. The results (Table 38) indicate that the CSE-OJS relationship became nonsignificant, (β = .067, p > .05), meaning that it was fully mediated by the proposed five adjustment dimensions. Hence, H18—that CSE would be significantly and positively related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was rejected.

5.9.6 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the CSE-Adjustment-OJP Paths

The CSE—OJP Path in the Absence of Mediators. To assess CSE's direct influence on OJP in the absence of the five mediators, this study proposed and tested a structural model in which OJP was the endogenous variable and CSE the exogenous variable. The SEM results indicate that this model of PfM_5 exhibited acceptable levels of fit, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .055, χ^2/df = 3.089; results (Table 37) further indicated that the CSE→OJP causal path was statistically not significant (β = .079, *SE*

= .049, p = .120). These findings suggest that H19—that CSE would be related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—should be rejected.

CSE's Overall Indirect Effects on OJP via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 39, the overall indirect effect of CSE on OJP via the five proposed mediators was significant (β = .113, SE = .043, p < .05). In other words, the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions jointly and substantially transmitted CSE's effect to OJP, pending further examination of the specific indirect effects of CSE on OJP via the five adjustment dimensions.

CSE's Specific Indirect Effects on OJP via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 48, the results of the Sobel's tests indicate that except for role negotiation, the remaining four OA adjustment dimensions mediated the CSE-OJP relationship significantly when controlled for simultaneously. More specifically, the effect of CSE on OJP was significantly mediated by task mastery ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .066, z = 2.316, p = .020), fitting in ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.032, z = -2.29, p = .022), standing out ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .092, z = 3.41, p = .000), and organizational identification ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .028, z = 1.95, p = .045), but not by role negotiation ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.040, z = -1.680, p = .090). Thus, H20—that the relationship between CSE and OJP would be mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, organizational identification)—was only partially supported. More specifically, four of the subhypotheses of H20 (H20.1, H20.2, H20.3, and H20.5) were supported, while H20.4 was rejected.

The Direct CSE-OJS Relationship in the Presence of Mediators. Although it was clear that the CSE-OJP relationship was not significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this nonsignificant status would still hold if this relationship was controlled by the five proposed mediators. The results (Table 38) indicate that the CSE-OJP relationship remained nonsignificant (β = .069, p > .05), and thus, H21—that CSE would be positively and significantly related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was accordingly rejected.

5.9.7 Testing the Direct and Indirect Hypotheses on the CSE-Adjustment-TI Paths

The CSE—TI Path in the Absence of Mediators. To assess CSE's direct influence on TI in the absence of the five mediators, this study proposed and tested a structural model in which TI was the endogenous variable and CSE the exogenous variable. The SEM results (Table 37) indicate that this model of PfM_6 exhibited highly acceptable levels of fit, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .043, χ^2/df = 2.328; results (Table 37) further indicate that the CSE→TI causal path was statistically significant (β = -.345, SE = .045, p = .001). Thus, H22—that CSE would be negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was supported.

CSE's Overall Indirect Effects on TI via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 39, the overall indirect effect of CSE on TI via the five proposed mediators was not significant (β = -.013, SE = .037, p > .05). In other words, the results reveal that the five proposed OA adjustment dimensions jointly did not substantially transmit CSE's effect to TI. This nonsignificant overall indirect effect did not necessarily suggest that the same multiple mediation model would exhibit nonsignificant specific indirect effects as well. Rather, it would be quite possible to "find specific indirect effects to be significant in the presence of a nonsignificant total indirect effect" (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p. 882).

CSE's Specific Indirect Effects on TI via the Adjustment Dimensions. As shown in Table 50, the results of the Sobel's tests indicate that only three of the five specific indirect effects of OST on TI via the adjustment dimensions were substantiated: task mastery ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .035, z = 2.053, p = .040), fitting in ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.021, z = -1.86, p = .048), and organizational identification ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = -.042, z = -2.033, p = .042). The other two specific indirect effects turned out to be not significant: standing out ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .006, z = .220, p = .820) and role negotiation ($\beta_{\text{product-of-coefficients}}$ = .010, z = .382, p = .698). Thus, H23—that the relationship between CSE and TI would be mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification)—was only partially supported. More specifically, three

of the subhypotheses of H23 (H23.1, H23.2, and H23.5) were supported, whereas H23.3 and H23.4 were rejected.

The Direct CSE-TI Relationship in the Presence of Mediators. Although it was clear that the CSE-TI relationship was significant in the absence of the five adjustment dimensions, it remained unknown whether this significant status would still hold if this relationship was controlled by the five proposed mediators. The results (Table 38) indicate that, after controlling for the five mediators, the CSE-TI relationship remained significant ($\beta = -.246$, $p = .001$). Thus, H24—that CSE would be significantly and negatively related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment—was supported in this study.

Table 36 Results of Testing Hypotheses H1.1, H1.2, . . . H1.5

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H1	The proposed OA adjustment measure in the present study is essentially multidimensional, such that each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification) is both distinct from and correlated to the others.	Supported
H1.1	Task mastery presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment	Supported
H1.2	Fitting in presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment	Supported
H1.3	Standing out presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment	Supported
H1.4	Role negotiation presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment	Supported
H1.5	Organizational identification presents itself as a distinct latent construct in the multidimensional measurement model of OA adjustment	Supported

Table 37 Structural Models of the Preconditions for Mediations

Model Tested	Fit Index			Antecedent-Consequence Path	Coefficient	SE	Bootstrapping		Sig.
	X^2/df	RMSEA	CFI				BC 95% CI		
							Lower	Upper	
Model PfM_1	2.316	.043	.96	OST —> OJS	.656	.029	.596	.708	.001
Model PfM_2	2.905	.052	.93	OST —> OJP	.169	.045	.083	.262	.001
Model PfM_3	2.343	.044	.95	OST —> TI	-.264	.045	-.347	-.175	.001
Model PfM_4	2.513	.046	.96	CSE —> OJS	.362	.043	.273	.441	.001
Model PfM_5	3.089	.055	.94	CSE —> OJP	.079	.049	-.019	.171	.120
Model PfM_6	2.328	.043	.96	CSE —> TI	-.345	.045	-.426	-.248	.001

Notes: 1. Sample size: 704 with 2500 bootstraps; 2. PfM=Precondition for Mediation.

Table 38 Direct Effects Among the Latent Constructs in the Main Study

Path	Coefficient	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
OST —> OJS	.240	.073	.092	.375	.002
OST —> OJP	-.057	.074	-.203	.089	.466
OST —> TI	.000	.092	-.172	.182	.956
OST —> Task Mastery	.285	.053	.177	.383	.000
OST —> Fitting In	-.269	.051	-.371	-.173	.000
OST —> Standing Out	-.117	.051	-.214	-.020	.019
OST —> Role Negotiation	-.293	.047	-.381	-.198	.000
OST —> Organizational Identification	.619	.042	.528	.694	.001
Task Mastery —> OJS	-.043	.051	-.142	.058	.429
Task Mastery —> OJP	.470	.057	.356	.580	.001
Task Mastery —> TI	.250	.064	.113	.370	.001
Fitting In —> OJS	.024	.046	-.065	.114	.594
Fitting In —> OJP	.217	.054	.108	.320	.001
Fitting In —> TI	.145	.058	.025	.255	.018
Standing Out —> OJS	-.070	.059	-.192	.043	.223
Standing Out —> OJP	-.263	.066	-.390	-.129	.001
Standing Out —> TI	-.017	.076	-.161	.137	.829
Role Negotiation —> OJS	.000	.063	-.125	.124	.954
Role Negotiation —> OJP	.123	.07	-.014	.260	.079
Role Negotiation —> TI	-.031	.080	-.190	.127	.725

Table 38 Direct Effects Among the Latent Constructs in the Main Study (Continued)

Path	Coefficient	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Sig.
			Lower	Upper	
Organizational Identification —> OJS	.623	.064	.499	.745	.001
Organizational Identification —> OJP	.258	.065	.131	.388	.001
Organizational Identification —> TI	-.384	.080	-.534	-.221	.001
CSE —> OJS	.067	.049	-.029	.163	.174
CSE —> OJP	-.069	.055	-.206	.011	.077
CSE —> TI	-.246	.064	-.369	-.120	.001
CSE —> Task Mastery	.140	.058	.025	.256	.020
CSE —> Fitting In	-.148	.053	-.250	-.040	.006
CSE —> Standing Out	-.348	.053	-.449	-.241	.001
CSE —> Role Negotiation	-.328	.048	-.420	-.232	.001
CSE —> Organizational Identification	.110	.049	.014	.206	.026

Table 39 Total Indirect Effect of an Antecedent on a Consequence
Via the Proposed Mediators

| Path | Standardized Total Indirect Effect | | | | |
| | Coefficient | SE | BC 95% CI | | Sig. |
			Lower	Upper	
OST —> OJS	.375	.058	.273	.493	.001
OST —> OJP	.23	.06	.111	.345	.001
OST —> TI	-.194	.066	-.33	-.074	.002
CSE —> OJS	.083	.037	.012	.158	.024
CSE —> OJP	.113	.043	.033	.198	.005
CSE —> TI	-.013	.037	-.087	.057	.64

Notes: 1. BC=Bias Corrected ; CI=Confidence Interval; SE=Standard Error;
2. N=704 with 5000 bootstraps.

Table 40 Specific Individual Indirect Effect of OST on OJS through Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	**.285**	.053	**.000**	-.043	.051	.429	-.012	-.83	.400
Fitting In	**-.269**	.051	**.000**	.024	.046	.594	-.006	-.519	.603
Standing Out	**-.117**	.051	**.019**	-.07	.059	.223	.008	1.053	.291
Role Negotiation	**-.293**	.047	**.000**	.000	.063	.954	.000	.000	1.000
Organizational Identification	**.619**	.042	**.001**	**.623**	.064	**.001**	.386	8.123	**.000**

Table 41   Results of Testing Hypotheses H2, H3, . . . H6

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H2	Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported
H3	Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OA adjustment in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.	Supported
H3.1	Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	Supported
H3.2	Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty fitting in.	Supported
H3.3	Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty standing out.	Supported
H3.4	Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in role negotiation.	Supported
H3.5	Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	Supported
H4	Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJS.	Partially supported
H4.1	Task mastery predicts OJS positively and significantly.	Rejected
H4.2	Difficulty fitting in predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	Rejected
H4.3	Difficulty standing out predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	Rejected
H4.4	Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJS negatively and significantly.	Rejected
H4.5	Organizational identification predicts OJS positively and significantly.	Supported
H5	The relationship between OST and OJS is mediated by each of the five adjustment dimensions (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Partially supported
H5.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between OST and OJS.	Rejected
H5.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between OST and OJS.	Rejected
H5.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between OST and OJS.	Rejected
H5.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between OST and OJS.	Rejected
H5.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between OST and OJS.	Supported
H6	OST is related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators.	Supported

Table 42 Specific Individual Indirect Effect of OST on OJP through the Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	.285	.053	.000	.470	.057	.001	.134	4.504	.000
Fitting In	-.269	.051	.000	.217	.054	.001	-.058	-3.196	.001
Standing Out	-.117	.051	.019	-.263	.066	.001	.031	1.988	.046
Role Negotiation	-.293	.047	.000	.123	.070	.079	-.036	1.670	.094
Organizational Identification	.619	.042	.001	.258	.065	.001	.160	3.833	.000

Table 43 Results of Testing Hypotheses H7, H8, . . . H10

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H7	Institutionalized OST is positively and significantly related to OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported
H8	Each of the five adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to OJP.	Partially supported
H8.1	Task mastery predicts OJP significantly and positively.	Supported
H8.2	Difficulty fitting in predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	Supported
H8.3	Difficulty standing out predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	Supported
H8.4	Difficulty in role negotiation predicts OJP significantly and negatively.	Rejected
H8.5	Organizational identification predicts OJP significantly and positively.	Supported
H9	The relationship between OST and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions..	Partially supported
H9.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	Supported
H9.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	Supported
H9.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	Supported
H9.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	Rejected
H9.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and OJP.	Supported
H10	Institutionalized OST is significantly and positively related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Rejected

Table 44 Specific Individual Indirect Effect of OST on TI through the Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	.285	.053	.000	.250	.064	.001	.071	3.160	.001
Fitting In	-.269	.051	.000	.145	.058	.018	-.039	-2.259	.023
Standing Out	-.117	.051	.019	-.017	.076	.829	.002	.222	.823
Role Negotiation	-.293	.047	.000	-.031	.080	.725	.009	.386	.698
Organizational Identification	.619	.042	.001	-.384	.080	.001	-.238	-4.564	.000

Table 45   Results of Testing Hypotheses H11, H12, . . . H14

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H11	Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported
H12	Each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions is either positively or negatively, and significantly, related to TI.	Partially supported
H12.1	Task mastery is negatively and significantly related to TI.	Supported
H12.2	Perceived difficulty in fitting in is positively and significantly related to TI.	Supported
H12.3	Perceived difficulty in standing out is positively and significantly related to TI.	Rejected
H12.4	Perceived difficulty in role negotiation is positively and significantly related to TI.	Rejected
H12.5	Organizational identification is negatively and significantly related to TI.	Supported
H13	The relationship between OST and TI is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.	Partially Supported
H13.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	supported
H13.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between institutionalized OST and TI.	Supported
H13.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between OST and TI.	Rejected
H13.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between OST and TI.	Rejected
H13.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between OST and TI.	Supported
H14	Institutionalized OST is negatively and significantly related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Rejected

Table 46 Specific Individual Indirect Effect of CSE on OJS through the Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	**.140**	.058	**.020**	-.043	.051	.429	-.006	-.079	.42
Fitting In	**-.148**	.053	**.006**	.024	.046	.594	-.004	-.512	.61
Standing Out	**-.348**	.053	**.001**	-.07	.059	.223	.024	1.16	.24
Role Negotiation	**-.328**	.048	**.001**	.000	.063	.954	.000	.000	1.00
Organizational Identification	**.110**	.049	**.026**	**.623**	.064	**.001**	**.069**	2.187	**.028**

Table 47 Results of Testing Hypotheses H15, H16, . . . H18

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H15	CSE is positively and significantly related to OJS without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported
H16	Positive CSE is significantly and positively related to OA adjustment in terms of higher levels of task mastery and organizational identification and lower levels of difficulty in fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation.	Supported
H16.1	CSE is positively and significantly related to task mastery.	Supported
H16.2	CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in fitting in.	Supported
H16.3	CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty in standing out.	Supported
H16.4	CSE is negatively and significantly related to the level of difficulty of role negotiation.	Supported
H16.5	CSE is positively and significantly related to organizational identification.	Supported
H17	The relationship between CSE and OJS is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.	Partially supported
H17.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	Rejected
H17.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	Rejected
H17.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	Rejected
H17.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	Rejected
H17.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJS.	Supported
H18	CSE is significantly and positively related to OJS after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Rejected

Table 48 Specific Individual Indirect Effect of CSE on OJP through the Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	.140	.058	.020	.470	.057	.001	.066	2.316	.020
Fitting In	-.148	.053	.006	.217	.054	.001	-.032	-2.29	.022
Standing Out	-.348	.053	.001	-.263	.066	.001	.092	3.41	.000
Role Negotiation	-.328	.048	.001	.123	.070	.079	-.040	-1.680	.090
Organizational Identification	.110	.049	.026	.258	.065	.001	.028	1.95	.045

Table 49 Results of Testing Hypotheses H19, H20, . . . H21

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H19	CSE is positively and significantly related to overall OJP without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Rejected
H20	The relationship between CSE and OJP is mediated by each of the five proposed adjustment dimensions.	Partially supported
H20.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	Supported
H20.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	Supported
H20.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	Supported
H20.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	Rejected
H20.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and OJP.	Supported
H21	CSE is positively and significantly related to OJP after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Rejected

Table 50   Specific Individual Indirect Effects of CSE on TI through the Proposed Mediators

Mediator	Antecedent-Adjustment Path			Adjustment-Consequence Path			Product of Coefficient	Sobel's *z*	Sig.
	Coefficient	SE	p	Coefficient	SE	p			
Task Mastery	.140	.058	.020	.250	.064	.001	.035	2.053	.040
Fitting In	-.148	.053	.006	.145	.058	.018	-.021	-1.860	.048
Standing Out	-.348	.053	.001	-.017	.076	.829	.006	.220	.820
Role Negotiation	-.328	.048	.001	-.031	.080	.725	.010	.386	.698
Organizational Identification	.110	.049	.026	-.384	.080	.001	-.042	-2.033	.042

Table 51 Results of Testing Hypotheses H22, H23, . . . H24

Code	Statement	Supported / Rejected
H22	CSE is negatively and significantly related to TI without controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported
H23	The relationship between CSE and TI is mediated by each of adjustment dimensions.	Partially supported
H23.1	Task mastery mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	Supported
H23.2	Fitting in mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	Supported
H23.3	Standing out mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	Rejected
H23.4	Role negotiation mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	Rejected
H23.5	Organizational identification mediates the relationship between CSE and TI.	Supported
H24	CSE is significantly and negatively related to TI after controlling for the five proposed mediators of adjustment (task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification).	Supported

5.10 Summary of Chapter 5

This chapter begins with exploring and screening the main data, providing descriptive statistics on the main data and diagnostic information on whether certain basic assumptions have been met. The results indicated that the multivariate normality assumption related to the main data were most likely to have been violated, whereas other assumptions such as univariate normality and homogeneity were most likely to have been met. Thus the decision was made, based on this diagnostic information, to analyze these multivariate nonnormal data using the bootstrap SEM method.

The second major component of this chapter involves the measurement models pertaining to the main study. First, because of the issue of a multiplicity of factor structures affecting the two antecedents, namely OST and CSE, performing CFA made it possible to compare a series of models so that each of the best competing measurement models of OST and CSE could then surface. Second, CFA was also performed for the five OA adjustment dimension models, the three OA consequence models, and the overall measurement model comprising the two antecedents, the five OA adjustment dimensions, and the three OA consequences, respectively. The results indicated that each of these measurement models exhibited acceptable levels of fit. Third, to check the stability of each factor structure of the latent constructs used for data analyses, a series of cross-validations of these factor structures used in the main study were performed across two split samples. The results also indicated that each identified and confirmed factor structure is stable and reliable across different samples, pending further analyses.

The third main component of this chapter concerns hypotheses testing. As expected, the model of five OA adjustment dimension exhibits excellent levels of fit, suggesting that the first hypothesis as well as its five subhypotheses have been supported. The other hypotheses of this study dealt with the causal linkages among the proposed latent constructs. An overall structural model, involving all the proposed OA antecedents, adjustment dimensions, and OA consequences, was then tested using the bootstrap SEM method. All direct causal hypotheses were subsequently tested based on the path coefficients obtained from the structural model; the specific indirect causal hypotheses were then tested by additionally performing a series of Sobel's tests, the related findings being summarized and presented in a series of tables and figures.

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses how the study's findings relate to and/or contribute to the body of OA literature. It further discusses practical and theoretical implications, followed by acknowledging limitations and giving direction for future studies. In the final section, concluding remarks are made based on the chapter's discussion.

As noted earlier, two goals were set for this particular study. One was to explore and confirm the proposed OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective; the other was to test the effects of the proposed antecedents (OST and CSE) on the consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI) both directly and indirectly (via the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions). This study has successfully realized these two main goals by theoretically proposing and empirically testing the respective measurement and structural models.

6.1 An Overview of the Study's Originality

In making these propositions and carrying out the tests, this study provides, within the OA domain, the first ever empirical evidence on the CSE construct as well as its role in predicting OA proximal and distal outcomes. Likewise, within the same domain, another of the study's originalities is to take a quantitative approach to measuring such new constructs as fitting in, as well as their structural relationships with other latent constructs. Adding these new elements into the study's models makes a unique contribution to the body of OA literature. The very presence of these new constructs in both the measurement model of OA adjustment (Figure 9) and the overall structural model (Figure 12) creates a competing environment for relatively classic latent OA constructs such as OST. In such a new environment, the competing influences between, for example, OST and CSE on the proximal and distal OA outcomes can be, and indeed have been in this study, so novel and rare that they have not been documented

elsewhere in the OA domain thus far. Therefore, it is appropriate to state that this study provides novel and comprehensive insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon.

Another noteworthy contribution of this study concerns the cross-cultural and cross-industry validation of some existing findings. As noted earlier, the generalizability of existing OA findings have remained limited or unknown, since OA researchers have tended to concentrate on the same few occupations or industries using well-educated, white-collar samples (Ashforth et al., 2007; Fisher, 1986). In contrast, this study used samples comprising hotel employees who predominately had a senior middle school education or below and who held nonmanagerial positions at the time of responding to the questionnaires. In so doing, this study finds that the OST-OJS relationship substantiated in white-collar samples (e.g., Huang & Cao, 2008), for instance, still remained significant even though most hotel employees had relatively low levels of education. With respect to cross-cultural validation, the results indicate that some findings were consistent (e.g., the OST-task mastery relationship) across samples with different national cultures, while other findings, such as the relationship between OJS and role negotiation, were not consistent between the Chinese sample and Miller et al.'s (1999) Western sample. Therefore, such cross-validation of existing OA findings adds more value to the literature.

Overall, the study's findings fall into two areas, one concerning the OA adjustment dimensions and the other involving the direct and indirect causal links among the latent constructs adopted or adapted in the main study. The sections that follow focus on both overall findings and more specific ones.

6.2 Interpreting Findings Regarding the Adjustment Dimensions

One major finding of the study relates to the development of a new measurement model for the OA adjustment dimensions from an integrative perspective. This measurement model extends OA research substantially. It contributes new (fitting in and standing out) and partly new (role negotiation) dimensions, while simultaneously continuing to use some traditional dimensions (task mastery and organizational identification) in the new set of OA measurement scales. The factor structure of the newly integrated adjustment measure was successfully explored in the pilot study and confirmed in the main study.

At least four success-related indicators of the psychometric properties have been exhibited for the OA adjustment measurement model developed in the main study. First, the five-adjustment-dimension model exhibits excellent levels of GOF: CFI = .980, IFI = .980, RMSEA = .033, χ^2/df = 1.778. Second, the model's five-factor structure is stable such that it was successfully cross-validated in the two split samples of the main study. Third, each latent construct in the five OA adjustment dimensions is reliable in that each respective Cronbach's alpha value ranges from .73 to .83. And fourth, all five dimensions exhibit acceptable levels of discriminant validity and predictive validity (e.g., all five dimensions were significantly predicted by both CSE and OST).

Therefore, this new integrative OA adjustment model contributes substantially to the OA literature. The significance of the study comes to the fore when considering that OA research has been hampered in that (a) all other existing OA adjustment measures in the literature possess more or less unsatisfactory psychometric properties (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Taormina, 2004), and (b) study findings using these problematic OA adjustment measures have been greatly contaminated (Ashforth et al., 2007). Thus, by exploring and confirming the OA adjustment dimensions across different samples, this study has satisfactorily answered the first research question (noted earlier in section 1.4).

6.3 Interpreting the Direct and Indirect Causalities

The other major findings of the study concern the direct and indirect causal relationships among the selected latent OA constructs. Specifically, these findings are distributed along four causal paths: (a) the antecedent-adjustment path, (b) the adjustment-consequence path, (c) the antecedent-consequence path, and (d) the antecedent-adjustment-consequence path. The sections that follow discuss the respective findings on each of the four causal paths sequentially.

6.3.1 Antecedent-Adjustment Causalities

The second research question of the study asked whether each of the proposed adjustment factors could be significantly predicted by the selected antecedents of CSE and OST, respectively. The results indicate that OST and CSE each predict all five

proposed mediators, thus generating insight into the OA phenomenon in at least three notable ways. First, to the author's knowledge, CSE has never been documented in any other empirical OA study, although OA research (e.g., Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Song & Chathoth, 2010) has increasingly laid emphasis on the influence of personal factors during a socializee's OA process. It follows that the findings associated with this entirely new CSE construct in explaining the OA phenomenon from this perspective of individual differences are of great value, particularly considering that personal factors, such as CSE, are theoretically postulated to have a strong and holistic influence on the OA process and outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2007).

Second, in support of the third hypothesis as well its five subhypotheses, institutionalized OST relates to each of the proposed five adjustment dimensions both directly and significantly. Among the five direct causal paths, the OST-task mastery relationship substantiated in this study echoes Anakwe and Greenhaus' (1999) finding. To the author's knowledge, all other relationships (i.e., OST's respective direct relationship with fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification) have never been documented in the OA literature. Therefore, this study extends OST's relationship from the limited number of OA adjustment dimensions (e.g., task mastery) to the foregoing four more important and yet neglected dimensions.

Third, the above reported direct effects of OST and CSE on the five adjustment dimensions were simultaneously tested. Such competing influences have been examined in only a few OA empirical studies to date. Gruman et al. (2006), for example, investigated OST's competing influences with a socializee's task specific self-efficacy on a number of adjustment dimensions (e.g., person-organization fit). This study takes this approach further by extending self-efficacy to CSE while going a further step to also examine the competing influences between OST and CSE on proximal OA outcomes. Again, to the author's knowledge, these particular competing influences between OST and CSE have never been documented elsewhere thus far.

6.3.2 Adjustment-Consequence Causalities

While being predicted by the OA antecedents of OST and CSE, the five adjustment dimensions in turn predicted their respective OA consequences, including OJS, OJP,

and TI, depending on the given paths. This helps answer the third research question of this study, as detailed one by one in the following pages on adjustment-OJS, adjustment-OJP, and adjustment-TI causalities.

Adjustment-OJS Causalities.   Specifically, OJS is predicted by organizational identification, but not by the other four proposed OA adjustment dimensions. In the sections that follow, each of these five causalities is discussed respectively. First, contrary to this study's hypothesis, task mastery failed to predict OJS significantly. In fact, this finding regarding task mastery-OJS causality in this study was consistent with that of Klein, Fan, & Preacher (2006), but inconsistent with that of Taormina (2004). As noted earlier (in section 3.6.3), task mastery had more competing influences in the prediction of job satisfaction in Klein et al.'s (2006) study than in Taormina's (2004) study. In other words, it seems that in a more competitive environment where task mastery has to compete with other additional influences in the prediction of job satisfaction, task mastery tends to give way to other competing influences. Just like Klein et al.'s (2006) study, this study's environment for task mastery is more competitive than that of Taormina's (2004) because in this study two additional and significant influences─CSE and OST─competed with task mastery in the prediction of OJS. In fact, this supposition seems to have been supported by the following two facts. One is that task mastery is consistently and moderately correlated to job satisfaction both in this study (r=.23, p<.01) and previous studies that have examined the same correlation. The other is that it is well known that significant correlation between two variables may not necessarily lead to corresponding significant causality between the two. Anyhow, the task mastery-job satisfaction relationship should be further examined in future studies, given the fact that to date this causality has been insufficiently examined in the OA literature.

Second, contrary to this study's expectation, OJS was not predicted by fitting in or standing out, although OJS was found to be significantly and moderately correlated to fitting in and standing out respectively. Again, this might be attributable to the fact that other competing influences, such as CSE, OST, and organizational identification, are so influential for OJS—the three factors jointly and significantly explain 69.10% of the OJS variance—that fitting in, standing out, and role negotiation (to be detailed later), for example, have to give way to these three compelling influences. However, due the exploratory nature of the foregoing findings, future studies focusing on the foregoing

causalities are warranted.

Third, findings regarding OJS and organizational identification support what has been reported previously in the literature (e.g., Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). In other words, the organizational identification-OJS relationship is validated cross-culturally. But one other finding—the prediction of OJS by role negotiation—that has been substantiated in the Western context failed to gain empirical support in this study's Chinese context. One possible explanation for the discrepancy is that the same causal path was controlled by different sets of competing influences between this study and its counterparts in the literature. Miller et al. (1999) substantiated the relationship between role negotiation and job satisfaction in an environment where no other OA adjustment dimensions, and other antecedents (e.g., self esteem, role discretion, work facilitation, among others) and consequences (e.g., role ambiguity and role conflict), were being controlled. But in this study, the role negotiation–job satisfaction relationship was in a different environment where four other OA adjustment dimensions (i.e., task masery, fitting in, standing out, organizational identification) and different OA antecedents (i.e., OST and CSE), were being controlled. In fact, this supposition is somewhat supported by the fact that the bivariate correlation between job satisfaction and role negotiation was significant in this study ($r = .43$, $p < .01$) as well as Miller et al.'s study (r=.50, p<.01). Again, this is understandable because a substantiated bivariate correlation between two variables may not necessarily lead to a significant causality between the two.

Another possible explanation for this discrepancy in terms of the predictive powers of role negotiation on OJS is that this study's sample differed from the Western sample of Miller et al., in terms of both national culture and organization characteristics. Specifically, Miller et al.'s (1999) study was based on a survey of a large insurance company located in the United States, whereas this study investigated hotels in China. It is likely that socializees in the hotels were more likely to "be just like everybody else in the same organization," whereas socializees in the insurance company were comparatively expected to "stand out in the crowd." This in turn may cause differences in socializee role negotiation experiences across different professions, which would likely affect a socializee's perceptions of job satisfaction in different ways. In this respect, it is therefore warranted that future research further investigate this discrepancy across different samples and national cultures.

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Adjustment-OJP Causalities. The second major causal path of adjustment-consequence concerns adjustment-OJP relationships. The results indicate that OJP is predicted by all except the role negotiation dimensions. In fact, in this study, 40.20% of OJP variance was collectively explained by all OA adjustment dimensions except role negotiation. To the author's knowledge, these findings have never been reported elsewhere in the OA literature. In fact, the substantiated adjustment-consequence relationship supports Saks and Ashforth's (1997) theoretical notion that, as with proximal OA outcomes, the OA adjustment dimensions should be predictive of their corresponding distal OA outcomes such as job performance. In this regard, this study unexpectedly found that role negotiation does not impact OJP significantly. Again, this causal link should be examined and verified in future OA studies.

Adjustment-TI Causalities. The third major adjustment-consequence relationship involves adjustment-TI causality. The results reveal that whereas TI was not predicted by role negotiation or standing out, it was significantly predicted by task mastery, fitting in, and organizational identification, respectively. Collectively, a total of 37.40% of TI variance was significantly explained by these three OA adjustment dimensions and the CSE factor. Although this study did not find much variance in TI, this is reasonable in that it is well known that organizational employee turnover or TI is said to be a complex phenomenon such that its predictors are subject to a large number of factors beyond what was included in this study's conceptual framework.

One final noteworthy finding is that role negotiation failed to predict any of the three consequences, respectively, although it was significantly correlated with each of them, including OJS ($r = -.43$, $p < .01$), OJP ($r = .10$, $p < .05$), and TI ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). As noted earlier, in terms of its influence on these three particular consequences, role negotiation gave its predictive power to other competing influences in this study. This was not, however, necessarily true for role negotiation and its prediction of some other consequences such as role innovation, which has been posited to be influenced by role negotiation (Miller et al., 1999). For this reason, future studies would be warranted in extending this study's findings by additionally investigating more consequences such as role innovation while continuing to assess these five OA adjustment dimensions.

6.3.3 Antecedent-Consequence Causalities Without Mediators

The fourth research question of this study asked whether the antecedents of CSE and OST could significantly predict each of the consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI), respectively. The following sections address this question.

OST-Consequence Causalities. In the absence of the five OA adjustment dimensions, the results (Table 37) indicate that OST is predictive of OJS, OJP, and TI, respectively. First, the contribution of this finding lies in the cross-cultural validation in this study of the OST-OJS, OST-OJP, OST-TI relationships. This finding is important because it lends empirical evidence that OA findings in the area of OST-consequences causalities are applicable across different national cultures such as the ones between US and China, given the fact that, in terms of the OA phenomenon, there are both similarities and differences between the foregoing two national cultures (Taorimina & Bauer, 2000). Second, this finding helps generalize the substantiated OST-OJS relationship across different groups in terms of respondents' educational levels. Specifically, the OST-OJS relationship has been equally confirmed in two different Chinese samples: One is the sample in this study, in which the respondents primarily had a senior middle school education or below, and the other is Huang and Cao's (2008) sample, in which respondents had a college diploma or higher. Finally, the substantiated OST-TI relationship extends the OST-TI literature (e.g., Li & Xu, 2008; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) in that it shows that the OST-TI finding can be generalized to star-rated hotels that are essentially people based and labor intensive.

CSE-Consequence Causalities. Likewise, in the absence of the five OA adjustment dimensions, the results indicate that CSE is predictive of OJS and TI respectively, but is not predicative of OJP. Chinese collectivist national culture may help explain this insignificant causality between CSE and OJP. In the context of the collectivist culture, employees especially newcomers or recent newcomers are not usually expected to go the extra mile in terms of achieving higher performance than average co-workers. Otherwise, they will be more likely to be punished by their jealous coworkers especially those with longer organizational tenures. On the other hand, new socializees with higher CSE are usually intelligent people who would protect themselves from being potentially intimidated by their coworkers with longer

organizational tenures. For this reason, they usually choose *not* to achieve high performance in a direct manner. Rather, they choose to achieve their high performance in an indirect manner. In fact, this supposition has been largely supported in that, as shown in Table 48, except for the role negotiation dimension, all the other four OA adjustment dimensions proposed in this study significantly transmitted the CSE effect to OJP, although CSE's direct effect on OJP was not significant.

In terms of the CSE-OJS relationship, this study extends the OA literature, although this causality has long been theorized by Judge et al.'s (1997) study, which is external to OA literature. Likewise, the CSE-TI relationship successfully explored in this study extends the OA literature substantially. That is, previous studies have found that the TI of socializees is related to their corresponding task-specific self-efficacy (Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and relatedly, that their intent to stay with their placement organizations after an internship program is significantly predicted by their generalized self-efficacy (Song & Chathoth, 2010) and global self-esteem (Song & Chathoth, 2010, in press). The CSE-TI relationship in this study thus extends the above related causalities significantly because CSE, a second-order factor, is built on four first-order factors: generalized self-efficacy, global self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability (Ashforth et al., 2007; Piccolo et al., 2005).

6.3.4 Antecedent-Consequence Causalities Controlling for Mediators

As shown in Figure 12, after the five OA adjustment dimensions are controlled for, OST's influence on OJS remains significant, albeit reduced slightly, compared with the same causality but without controlling for the five adjustment dimensions. This finding is consistent with Bauer et al.'s (2007) study, which concluded that a socializee's job satisfaction was still related to his or her perceived OST after controlling for social acceptance and role clarity. This finding suggests that possibly the OST-OJS relationship is partially mediated by the five OA adjustment dimensions (detailed later). But in this study, OST's influence on OJP and TI disappeared after the five OA adjustment dimensions were controlled for, suggesting that OST-TI and OST-OJP are both fully mediated by the five proposed mediators (detailed next).

6.3.5 Antecedents' Influences on Consequences via the OA Adjustment Dimensions

As noted earlier, OA research has been criticized for tending to ignore psychological, social, and cultural processes that might mediate the relationships between OA antecedents and consequences (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). As a result, to date a small number of OA antecedents (e.g., OST, behavioral proactivities), mediators (e.g., role ambiguity/clarity, perceived fit, social acceptance), and consequences (e.g., job satisfaction, TI, role orientation) have been investigated. In this respect, this study extends the OA literature by investigating additional antecedents (CSE), mediators (the proposed five OA adjustment dimensions), in addition to the most frequently examined antecedent of OST, and consequences including OJS, OJP, and TI. In so doing, this study successfully adds several new insights to OA's mediating effects. The multiple mediation effects in this study comprise both overall multiple mediation effects and specific multiple mediation effects (detailed next).

The overall multiple mediation effects results (Table 39) indicate that the five multiple mediators—task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification—jointly transmitted OST's overall indirect effects to OJS, OJP, and TI, respectively. Likewise, the same five multiple mediators were found to jointly transmit CSE's overall indirect effects to OJS and OJP but not to TI.[28] These particular findings, to the author's knowledge, have never been documented elsewhere in the OA literature.

The specific multiple mediation effects results are summarized in Tables 41 (H5.1–5.5), 43 (H9.1–9.5), 45 (H13.1–13.5), 47 (H17.1–17.5), 49 (H20.1–20.5), and 51 (H23.1–23.5). Overall, more than 50% of the hypothesized specific multiple mediation effects are statistically significant in this study. Specifically, the six antecedent-consequence paths are OST-OJS, OST-OJP, OST-TI, CSE-OJS, CSE-OJP, and CSE-TI, and they were more or less specifically mediated by each of the five multiple mediators. First, task mastery and fitting in each mediated all except the two paths of OST-OJS and CSE-OJS, respectively. Second, both the OST-OJP and CSE-OJP paths were

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[28] Although the overall indirect effect of CSE on TI via the five OA adjustment dimensions was not substantiated (Table 39), its specific indirect effects on TI were substantiated via task mastery, fitting in, and organizational identification, but not substantiated via standing out or role negotiation (Table 50).

respectively mediated by standing out. Third, organizational identification mediated all six antecedent-consequence paths. Taken together, all mediators but role negotiation significantly mediated between two and six of the antecedent-consequence paths proposed in this study. Again, to the author's knowledge, these specific multiple mediation effects have never been reported elsewhere in the OA literature. The fifth research question of the study has thus been addressed.

6.4 Practical Implications

Two main practical implications can be drawn from this study's findings. One is that the validated measurement scales in general and the adjustment measure in particular could serve as diagnostic tools in developing human resources in the organizational context. The other is that the new mediation model enables practitioners to have a more comprehensive understanding of the OA phenomenon, which in turn may help prevent human resource development (HRD) managers from pursuing success by assimilating socializees in a piecemeal fashion.

6.4.1 OA Measures as Diagnostic Tools

In practice, the adjustment measure could serve as a diagnostic tool in developing human resources in the organizational context. This study developed the adjustment measure with two explicit goals. The first was to identify and then operationalize the dimensions that are proximal and specific to the OA process. The second was to organize these factors into a valid set of OA adjustment scales. Thus, the validated adjustment measure may potentially provide a sounder diagnostic inventory to identify targets for intervention by organizations through their practices in developing human resources in the workplace. For example, the failure of socializees to learn about their organizational culture could put a cap on their career development even though they may have adjusted well to their work assignments (Chao et al., 1994). In other words, if a socializee "is about equal in all adjustment areas but one, a deficiency in that area may highlight a specific problem" (Chao et al., 1994, p. 731).

Specifically, practitioners could use the adjustment scales in several ways: (a) as a way to assess a socializee's potential OA adjustment problems before conducting major management interventions, (b) as part of a follow-up evaluation of OA programs, and

(c) as a way to target interventions aimed at enhancing socializee adjustment either by the organization or by the socializees themselves. In fact, such diagnostic functions of the adjustment scale are of great value, particularly considering that OA is ongoing and is known to last as long as a socializee's entire organizational tenure. This suggests that, regardless of their newness as organizational employees, socializees' adjustment to their organization is a multifaceted phenomenon involving a constellation of adjustment dimensions that vary in strength from one domain to another, and thus interventions will have to be tailored to meet the specific needs of each socializee's gestalt in a given space and time.

More specifically, the integrated OA adjustment index developed in this study could be utilized as a "pulse-taking" diagnostic tool in an action research approach to organizational human resources development. To begin with, the action research approach could be to identify problem areas of a given socializee in a given hotel workplace. After pinpointing those specific OA adjustment dimensions that are potential barriers to his or her OA practices, a follow-up interview with the socializee could then be conducted to help generate an insight into his or her problems. For example, if scores on the perceived difficulty in standing out is high, an in-depth interview would possibly provide an insight into the real reason why standing out has been so difficult for that socializee. For instance, the reason could be motivational such that the socializee does not want to stand out possibly due to an unwritten rule of job performance culture: those who stand out of the crowd in his or her organization are often punished by his or her jealous co-workers. Alternatively, the reason could also be the socializee's inability of standing out due to poor job skills even if standing out is always encouraged in the organization.

The socializee can then be engaged in a collaborative action planning strategy to facilitate his or her adjustment. Management interventions for the standing out, for example, might include specialized job skill training (if the reason is lack of skill), performance culture enhancement (if the reason concerns the poor performance climate). Likewise, management interventions might also include job skill competition (if a number of socializees' task mastery scores are low), old-time-to-newcomer mentoring on cultural adjustment (if most newcomers reported that their difficulties in fitting in are high), mutual goals setting (if role negotiation practices have been unidirectional such that supervisors turn a deaf ear to subordinates expectations on their

job assignment), family-like atmosphere building (if most of the socializees' organizational identification scores are low), among others.

Likewise, other measurement scales, such as CSE, OST, OJS, OJP, and TI, that have been refined and justified to measure the proposed antecedents and consequences in the organizational context could also be used for diagnosis and intervention pertaining to OA problems that frequently occur when socializing or assimilating employees following their organizational entry. The OST scale in the main study, for example, can also serve as a diagnostic tool. In a given hotel, the overall OST as perceived by a given group of socializees may present itself as either institutionalized (consisting of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, or investiture) or individualized (consisting of individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, or divestiture). If the overall OST has unexpectedly turned out to be individualized, managers need to further check which specific factors are low on score. In case that OST presents itself to be more disjunctive, as opposed to be more serial, subsequent management interventions could be to make role models available to inform socializees how to proceed in the new role rather than not to make explicit role models available to socializees, who are thus left alone. Likewise, in case that OST presents itself as more divestiture, as opposed to be more investiture, management interventions could then be to seek to build upon the socializee's values and attitudes rather than to tear down and completely reorient the socializee's values and attitudes.

Finally, hotel management orientation toward a more effective OA program could also be identified by comparing different groups of socializees' assimilation index. For instance, if t-test results indicate that socializees with college or higher diploma have significantly higher difficulty in fitting in than their counterpart group of socializees with diploma of senior middle school or below, a tailored training program focusing on fostering socializees' cultural adjustment competency is needed for the group of socializees with college or higher diploma.

6.4.2 Avoiding Dealing with OA Problems in a Piecemeal Fashion

It is well known that nothing is more practical than theory. This is also true for the new theoretical mediation OA model proposed and tested in this study, which posits that, at any cross-sectional point in time, a socializee's self-evaluated CSE and OST will

predict his or her concurrent perceptions of OJS, OJP, and TI both directly and indirectly via the OA adjustment dimensions, including task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. This theoretical model could enable HRD managers to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the complex OA phenomenon.

This comprehensive understanding in turn could help prevent HRD managers from dealing with OA problems in a piecemeal fashion. For example, most of the investigated hotel's HRD managers paid attention to a socializee's OA consequences including job satisfaction, turnover, and commitment to the organization, while paying little or no attention to OA antecedents (such as OST and CSE) or mediators (e.g., the five OA adjustment dimensions).[29] Another typical example of this piecemeal fashion involves the overemphasis by practitioners on influential organizational factors while neglecting personal factors when assimilating socializees. This can be observed in hotel newcomer-orientation programs, in which socializees are usually well trained by their employment organization in the job-related and organizational culture-based knowledge, skills, and attitudes, whereas more often than not, the same socializees are not trained in fostering a positive self-evaluation.[30] This study, on the other hand, has shown that neglecting to foster a socializee's positive self-evaluation has a negative impact, with socializees being afflicted by poor proximal OA outcomes (e.g., greater difficulty fitting into the organizational culture system). Such poor proximal OA outcomes further result in a higher level of socializee TI. Thus, it is not difficult to discern how and why dealing with OA problems piecemeal can be harmful and negative. One implication of this finding is that priority should be given to those job applicants who already have a positive self-evaluation.

The other important implication of the same finding is that positive self-evaluations need to be fostered in socializees following their organizational entry. Although CSE is a personality variable that is known as "something born to be" and thus cannot be easily changed, recent research does suggest that exercises or interventions on improving first-order CSE factors can be possible and effective. Judge et al. (2007), for instance, have argued that "practically, one advantage of self-efficacy is its malleability" (p. 118). McNatt and Judge (2008) have additionally lent this empirical

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[29] Personal communication with managers of the investigated hotels during data collection in 2009.
[30] Personal communication with managers of the investigated hotels during data collection in 2009.

support by showing that a self-efficacy intervention by firm management augmented socializee self-efficacy and improved the job attitudes of recent insiders while reducing insider turnover 5 months later. Moreover, Ekeland, Heian, and Hagen (2005) found that improving people's global self-esteem was effective at least in the short term. Given these facts, industry practitioners could purposely develop some specific programs—such as positive performance feedback or effective modeling and coaching (Luthans & Youssef, 2004)—tailored to augment socializees' CSE, which in turn would promote the levels of their proximal and distal OA outcomes.

6.5 Theoretical Implications

Two major theoretical implications can be derived from this study. One relates to the measurement model of OA adjustment (Figure 9), and the other pertains to the overall theoretical framework of the study, that is, a new mediation model of OA (Figures 1 and 12).

6.5.1 The Measurement Model of OA Adjustment

As expected, this study has proposed and empirically validated a new measurement model of OA adjustment, in which it is regarded as a multifaceted phenomenon having five basic dimensions comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. This newly developed model contributes new (fitting in and standing out) and partly new (role negotiation) dimensions, while simultaneously continuing to use some traditional good dimensions (task mastery and organizational identification). This theoretical contribution is of great value, particularly considering that OA research has been hampered by the unsatisfactory psychometric properties of other existing OA adjustment measures in the OA literature (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Taormina, 2004), and that study findings using these problematic OA adjustment measures have been greatly contaminated (Ashforth et al., 2007). Jointly, these arguments—together with the multiplicity issue of OA adjustment—imply that, on the way to theorizing the OA adjustment phenomenon, the five OA adjustment dimensions, along with other identified indicators of adjustment, should be included in future studies interested in examining the multifaceted phenomenon of socializee adjustment. They also imply that the integrative approach should be prioritized for future OA researchers to

conceptualize and measure this latent construct of OA adjustment.

6.5.2 The Overall Structural Model

The complexity of the OA phenomenon has led to a multiplicity of approaches in the OA literature. A review of the literature (Table 5) indicated that five major approaches have emerged, consisting of (a) the OA stage-model approach, (b) the OST approach, (c) the individual differences approach, (d) the OA adjustment approach, and (e) the integrative approach. Although each approach has its merits in capturing OA dynamics, it is obvious that each one alone is unable to capture the dynamics in a comprehensive and realistic manner. In other words, whereas using the first four diversified lenses or approaches to studying the OA phenomenon may help generate additional novel insights into the dynamics of OA, such a diversity of approaches may also present an obstacle to integrative dialogue and development in OA research. Furthermore, the lack of consistency in conceptualizing and measuring OA adjustment has been an additional hurdle for OA research development. Although a great deal of OA research exists, integration of the multiple approaches that have emerged in the research has been relatively lacking (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), with only a few exceptions. In short, the problem of the relative lack of integration, coupled with a multiplicity of approaches to understanding the same OA phenomenon, has in turn hampered OA research substantially (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Saks et al., 2007).

By taking the integrative approach, this study has proposed and tested an overall structural model of OA, that is, a new mediation model of OA, in which socializee success-related OA consequences (OJS, OJP, and TI) are posited as functions of causal antecedents (OST and CSE) and mediators comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. In so doing, the present study advances existing OA theory in at least four important ways. First, this new OA model organically incorporates useful elements scattered among the different approaches, namely, CSE from the individual differences approach, OST from the socialization tactics approach, adjustment dimensions from the OA content approach, and OJS, OJP, and TI mainly from the stage-model approach. This integrative nature of the study has thus increased the likelihood of generating insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon far more comprehensively and realistically than any one of the approaches

listed above.

Second, this new structural model also balances both old and new theories that have emerged in the OA domain. For example, as one of the best developed theories (Saks et al., 2007), OST can be considered one of the oldest constructs in the OA domain. In contrast, CSE theory is so new that it has never been documented in OA empirical studies (Ashforth et al., 2007) elsewhere to date. It follows that those findings regarding the competing influences of the new (CSE) and the old (OST) on OA adjustment and consequences have uniquely contributed to understanding the OA phenomenon through a more comprehensive and interactive lens.

Third, the new model is essentially a multiple mediation model, which adds value to the OA literature, especially considering that mediation models have been rare and that many of them are actually simple mediation models in the OA field. According to Preacher and Hayes (2008), a multiple mediation model has many advantages over a simple mediation model. For example, the likelihood of parameter bias due to omitted mediators is reduced when multiple putative mediators are simultaneously present in a multiple mediation model. An additional example is that adopting multiple mediators in the same model is one way to pit competing theories against one another within a single model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). This study thus has important implications for OA researchers when modeling theoretically OA processes and outcomes, in that its new mediation model has explored both the overall and the specific indirect effects of CSE and OST on OJS, OJP, and TI, respectively, via a set of multiple mediators, namely task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification.

Finally, this new OA mediation model posits that both organizational factors (i.e., OST) and personal factors (e.g., CSE) have an impact on a socializee's success-related OA consequences in terms of higher levels of OJS and OJP and lower levels of TI, while also theorizing how and why these impacts occur. More specifically, this mediation model posits that the extent to which socializees positively evaluate both themselves (i.e., CSE) and what their organization has done for their assimilation (i.e., OST) affects their concurrently perceived OA consequences in terms of OJS, OJP, and TI, over and above the extent to which they have adjusted well to their organizational systems. In other words, the extent to which a socializee has adjusted to his or her

organizational system in this study was captured by measuring both role taking (task mastery, fitting in, and organizational identification) and role making (standing out and role negotiation) aspects. Ashforth et al. (2007) have regarded such mediational effects as a new trend in which OA proximal outcomes (i.e., the OA adjustment dimensions) transmit the influences of OA antecedents to OA distal outcomes (i.e., OA consequences). They have also called for OA research to continue this trend, since "it underscores the unique contribution that socialization offers to understanding organizational dynamics" (p. 52). Therefore, this empirically tested new mediation model of OA is of paramount importance, particularly considering the relative lack of theory in the OA domain (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and the fact that a "mediation model will likely pave the way to more holistic and inclusive models" of OA (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 21).

6.6 Limitations and Future Studies

This study does have limitations although it provides some valuable findings for both scholars and practitioners alike. One lies in the fact that the hotels included in the study were not selected via random sampling and that the respondents within each hotel were selected based on convenience sampling. In addition, this study's findings may not be generalizable to other parts of China because a large number of the sampled hotels in Hainan are essentially resort hotels, rather than business hotels. Moreover, this study's findings in the main study cannot be applied to economy or moderately-priced star rated hotels as well. Therefore, questions regarding the generalizability of the study's findings remain somewhat unanswered. However, the issue of generalizability is mitigated by the following facts. One is that 19 star-rated luxury hotels participated in the main survey of the study, making up approximately 35.19% of all star-rated luxury hotels in the two cities, or 25.68% of all star-rated luxury hotels in Hainan Province. In addition, a total of 1478 questionnaires were sent out to respondents in the 19 hotels in the main survey, comprising 20.19% of the targeted population in the surveyed hotels. This involvement of relatively large proportions of the targeted hotels as well as their employees in the main survey thus enhances the generalizability of the study's findings. Second, coupled with 5000 bootstrap observations, the sample of 704 used in the main study was reasonably large. In addition, all factor structures used in the main study were successfully validated across two independent split samples. As argued by DeVellis (1991), empirical findings from a factor analysis based on larger samples, for

example, increases the generalizability of findings. Moreover, cross-validating a factor analytic solution on a separate sample is one of the best means of demonstrating generalizability (DeVellis, 1991).

One additional limitation of this study pertains to the control variable of local versus non-local socializees. This study did not ask the respondents to indicate whether they were local residents of Hainan Province for one notable reason: The questionnaires already included a number of control variables and they were somewhat lengthy. The lack of this information, however, disabled this study to detect the potential effect, of such control variable, on the proximal and distal OA outcomes. But this problem, to the author's knowledge, has been alleviated by the fact that a large number of the non-local socializees who work in Hainan hotels have already assimilated into Hainan's social and environmental systems. For example, a large number of non-local employees have had their educational experiences in Hainan province before their entry into the employment hotel. As a result, the difference between local and non-local socializees' OA experiences could be a secondary issue such that its influences on socializees' OA outcomes may be only moderate or low. Anyhow, it is warranted that future studies should work around this limitation by taking into consideration this control variable of local versus non-local hotel employees.

One final limitation of the study is that the data were cross-sectionally designed and self-reported, which in turn could lead to the potential problems of common method variance and inflation bias. But whereas these problems cannot be completely ruled out, several considerations lessen this concern. First, all latent constructs in the study were measured by multiple items, and most of these demonstrated high construct reliability and discriminant validity across different samples. In fact, such procedures as assuring protection of respondent anonymity, as recommended by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003), were used to reduce method bias at the response reporting stage. Second, Saks et al. (2007) discussed the issue of cross-sectional versus longitudinal research design, postulating that the stronger relationships (e.g., OST-OJS) found in cross-sectional as opposed to longitudinal studies are attributable to socializees' "needs at the time of data collection rather than statistical inflation" (p. 439). Finally, Song and Chathoth (2010, in press) have argued that "data collection at any cross-sectional time can serve as an alternative and reasonable strategy to capture the dynamics of the socializees OA phenomenon" (p. 8).

That being said, future research with cross-cultural and longitudinal data is necessary to confirm and generalize this study's findings. In addition, more OA success-related outcomes—such as turnover, supervisor-rated job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior, among others—as well as their respective causal relationships with the five OA adjustment and the two OA antecedents, should be investigated in future studies.

6.7 Conclusion

In a nutshell, on the basis of, but not limited to, the existing OA research, this study has proposed theoretically a new mediation model of OA with empirical support from star-rated luxury hotel employees in Hainan Province, China. It concludes that, for the most part, OA success-related consequences—in terms of higher OJS, higher OJP, and lower TI—are functions of the causal antecedents—both CSE and OST— and OA adjustment dimensions comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. This study further concludes that the newly integrated OA adjustment measures, as well as other validated antecedents (CSE and OST) and consequence (OJS, OJP, and TI) measures, can be effectively used to capture, diagnose, and manage socializee problems in order to capitalize continuously on the process and outcomes of assimilating socializees into the organizational context.

6.8 Summary of Chapter 6

This chapter discusses the study's findings in terms of how they relate to or contribute to the body of OA literature. It first underscores the value or originality of this study's findings at a relatively general level. It then moves to more specific discussions of how each of the findings related or contributed to the OA literature. These involves the newly developed OA adjustment measure comprising five dimensions, namely, task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. The newly developed and validated measure was shown to have many merits in that it exhibited excellent levels of model fit and its latent constructs all had satisfactory internal consistency and discriminant and predicative validity. One additional noteworthy merit was its balancing of both old and new elements of the OA adjustment dimensions.

Turning to the structural models of the study, this chapter discusses how the findings of the structural relationships exhibited among the selected latent constructs relates to and/or contributed to knowledge and understanding of the complex OA phenomenon. To name a few examples, the study's novel insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon include its organic integration of four different approaches used in the OA domain, as well as the competing influences of both personal and organizational factors on both proximal and distal OA outcomes, and of the two selected OA antecedents on the respective three OA consequences through a group of five multiple mediators.

The chapter's third focus is on the theoretical and practical implications derived from the study's findings, comprising two main parts: (a) findings associated with the measurement models of OA adjustment, and (b) findings regarding structural relationships among the tested latent constructs in the main study. In practice, the newly integrated OA adjustment measure, as well as other validated antecedent (CSE and OST) and consequence (OJS, OJP, and TI) measures, could be used effectively to capture, diagnose, and manage the problems of socializees. As for the second part of the study's findings, whether substantiated or not, each of the direct and indirect causal paths as depicted in Figure 12 would be informative and helpful for practitioners. A thorough and comprehensive understanding of the OA phenomenon could prevent practitioners from managing problems of assimilating organizational members in a piecemeal fashion. In addition to these practical implications, this study's findings have theoretical implications as well. First, because there has been a relative lack of OA theory and because multiplicity issues have hampered OA studies, one important implication of this study's findings was that the same integrative approach it adopted should also be prioritized by OA scholars to generate novel insights into the dynamics of the OA phenomenon in a comprehensive and realistic manner.

The fourth major component of this chapter concerns limitations and directions for future research. The generalizability of the study's findings is limited owing to the sampling techniques used. This is, however, mitigated in that a relatively large proportion of the targeted population was included in the study. Likewise, the common method bias stemming from cross-sectional and self-reported data was lessened for a number of reasons detailed in the foregoing sections. Therefore, future studies should work around these limitations.

The final section of this chapter outlines the conclusion while stating that, for the most part, OA success-related consequences or outcomes in terms of higher OJS, higher OJP, and lower TI, were functions of causal antecedents—both socializees' CSE and their respective OST—and the OA adjustment dimensions comprising task mastery, fitting in, standing out, role negotiation, and organizational identification. It further concludes that the newly integrated OA adjustment measure, as well as other validated antecedent (CSE and OST) and consequence (OJS, OJP, and TI) measures, can be effectively used to capture, diagnose, and manage socializee problems so as to capitalize continuously on the process and outcomes of assimilating socializees into the organizational context.

APPENDIX A   Questionnaire Used in the Pilot Study

Questionnaire on Hotel Employees' Organizational Assimilation

Dear Associate,

This survey is conducted by a faculty, in *Tourism School of Hainan University,* who is currently pursuing PhD degree in hotel and tourism management in *School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.* I would like to invite you, hereby, to spare me about 30 minutes to fill out this questionnaire, which is about hotel employees' adaptation to work, environment, and so on. There is no right or wrong response. Therefore, your answers to each of the questions presented herein should be reflective of your real perception. Otherwise, your dishonest answers will do harm to this research. Please be assured that the information collected through this survey will be ***kept confidential*** and will be used for my PhD dissertation only. As such, please *do not* write down *your name* in this questionnaire. In response to your gesture to participate in this survey, a small *gift* is enclosed in the envelope. Should you have any queries, please feel free to contact me by e-mail.

Yours sincerely,   Zibin SONG (email: zibin.song@   )

Before moving on to responding to this questionnaire, please check whether or not you meet with the following three preconditions: (1) You are a regular employee in a certain department of a hotel; (2) you are currently not in a managerial position, i.e., you are a non-managerial staff such as an ordinary staff, headwaiter, or supervisor; and (3) your organizational tenure of this hotel should be no less than 30 days.

If you fail to meet any of the above-stated three preconditions, please stop here and return this questionnaire back to the co-worker who handed out this questionnaire. Otherwise, please go ahead and fill out this questionnaire.

附录 A: 用于"皮试"调研的调查问卷

酒店员工适应工作及其环境氛围的问卷调查

尊敬的酒店员工:

您好！我是海南大学旅游学院的老师, 正在香港理工大学酒店与旅游业管理学院攻读博士学位。在此, 恳请您在百忙之中抽出 30 分钟左右的时间填写这份问卷。内容探讨的是员工适应酒店工作及其环境氛围等。您回答的问题**不存在对与错**的差别, 但应该是您的**真实感受**。任何**虚假或不认真**填写的数据**不但没有帮助**, **反而有害**。请放心, 您提供的信息, 我们将**严守秘密**, 并且**仅用于博士论文所需的研究**。为此, 请您答卷时**不要写上自己的姓名**, 只需要根据以下每题的具体要求, 或**圈选/勾选**答案, 或**填写**具体的**数字**。为答谢您的合作, 信封内专门为您准备了 1 份**小礼物**, 请取出并留用。如果您有任何疑问或需求, 欢迎通过电子邮件联系我。

　　此致
敬礼！

<div align="center">宋子斌 (zibin.song@ 　　　　　　)</div>

在正式填写问卷之前，请核实一下您是否符合以下**三个先决条件**:

第一、您是这家酒店某一个具体部门的**专职员工**。

第二、您目前的工作职位**不高于主管级(含)**, 即您**属于一般员工、领班或主管当中的一个类别**。

第三、您在这家酒店的**店龄（即工作年限）不少于 1 个月**。

如果您不符合以上三个条件中的任何一个, 请不要填写, 并且将此问卷退回原处。如果您符合以上条件, 请继续填写。

Appendix A1   Judge et al.'s (2003) CSE Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ1: The following are statements [31] that describe yourself. To what extent do you agree or disagree each of them?

1=strongly disagree 2= disagree 3=neither agree or disagree *4=agree 5=strongly agree*					
p1a. I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.* [32]	1	2	3	4	5
p1b. Sometimes I feel depressed (R). [33] *	1	2	3	4	5
p1c. When I try, I generally succeed. *	1	2	3	4	5
p1d. Sometimes when I fail, I feel worthless(R). *	1	2	3	4	5
p1e. I complete tasks successfully. *	1	2	3	4	5
p1f. Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work (R). *	1	2	3	4	5
p1g. Overall, I am satisfied with myself. *	1	2	3	4	5
p1h. I am filled with doubts about my competence(R). *	1	2	3	4	5
p1i. I determine what will happen in my life. *	1	2	3	4	5
p1j. I do not feel in control of my career-related success (R). *	1	2	3	4	5
p1k. I am capable of coping with most of my problems. *	1	2	3	4	5
p1l. There are many times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me (R). *	1	2	3	4	5

---

[31] All the 12 items of the CSE scale were adopted from Judge et al.'s (2003) work.
[32] Items with "*" are adopted from existing works in the literature.
[33] "R" hereinafter stands for "a reversed item".

附录 A1: Judge et al. (2003) 核心自我评价（CSE）"皮试"量表（中文版 ）

PQ1： 以下是关于**您个性**方面的描述。 请根据您的**真实情况**，从每一个陈述后的五个备选答案（即 1、2、3、4、5）中，圈选其中的一个。

1=很反对　2=反对　3=既不反对也不同意　4=同意　　5=很同意					
p1a. 我能得到自己生命中应该得到的成功, 对此我很自信。[34]	1	2	3	4	5
p1b. 有时候, 我感到压抑。	1	2	3	4	5
p1c. 只要我努力去做的事情, 一般都能成功。	1	2	3	4	5
p1d. 在我失败的有些时候, 我感到自己一钱不值。	1	2	3	4	5
p1e. 我能成功地完成任务。	1	2	3	4	5
p1f. 有时, 我对自己的工作感到失控。	1	2	3	4	5
p1g. 总的来说, 我对自己感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5
p1h. 我很怀疑自己的能力。	1	2	3	4	5
p1i. 就我的未来将会发生什么样的事情而言, 我自己能够决定。	1	2	3	4	5
p1j. 我感到自己无法控制, 那些与自己事业有关的成功与失败。	1	2	3	4	5
p1k. 我能应对遇到的大多数难题。	1	2	3	4	5
p1l. 很多时候, 我感到自己没有希望或前途暗淡。	1	2	3	4	5

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[34]本附录 A 中各中文量表每个具体项目的来源等详情，请参见其对应的英文项目的标注。

Appendix A2   Task Mastery Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ2: Please indicate your level of agreement by circling ___only one___ of the five choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) to the right of each item that most closely reflects your experiences in these areas.

1=strongly disagree 2= disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree *4=agree 5=strongly agree*					
p2a. I have developed adequate knowledge required in my present job.[35] † [36]	1	2	3	4	5
p2b. I have developed adequate skills and abilities to perform my present job within this organization. ** [37] [38]	1	2	3	4	5
p2c. I complete most of my present work assignments without assistance.* [39]	1	2	3	4	5
p2d. I rarely make mistakes when conducting my job assignments. * [40]	1	2	3	4	5
p2e. In the present organization, I often show other co-workers how to perform duties. ** [41]	1	2	3	4	5
p2f. In my present job, I can prevent work accidents before their happenings (e.g., identifying potential problems before they happen). #	1	2	3	4	5

---

[35] Items without "*" ,"**" , or "#" are hereinafter the ones developed for the study.

[36] Items with "†" indicate, hereinafter, that they are excluded in the overall measurement and structural models in this study.

[37] Items with "**" are hereinafter the ones borrowed from existing works but with revisions.

[38] Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003); Chao et al. (1994).

[39] Reio and Sutton (2006); Morrison (1993a).

[40] Morrison (1993a); Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003).

[41] Myers and McPhee (2006).

附录 A2: 工作任务胜任感"皮试"测试量表（中文版）

PQ2：以下p2a-p2f六个小题目中，每题都有五个备选答案，请从 1、2、3、4、5 当中只选出其中最适合您实际情况的答案。请留意，每小题只选一个答案，**一题多选**或**不选**都**视为无效。**

1=很反对　2=反对　3=既不反对也不同意　4=同意　　5=很同意					
p2a. 我已经学到了足够的知识,能够满足本酒店对我的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5
p2b. 我已经拥有了足够的工作技能和能力,能够胜任本酒店当前这个工作职位。	1	2	3	4	5
p2c. 在没有别人帮助的情况下,我能独立完成绝大多数布置给我个人的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
p2d. 就完成目前各项工作任务而言,我很少出差错。	1	2	3	4	5
p2e. 在本酒店我经常给其他同事做示范,告诉他/她们应当如何履行工作职责。	1	2	3	4	5
p2f. 在目前这个工作岗位上,我能做到防患于未然(例如,能够事先识别出那些潜在的或还没有爆发出来的事故)。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A3 Scale of Fitting In, Standing Out, and Impersonal & Difficult Situations in the Pilot Study

PQ3: Please indicate *the level of difficulty* you have had since you entered this organization in the following areas**.** Note that ***"having difficulty"*** here means *feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed, and/or uneasy.* [42] *Please note that 1=no difficulty, 2=slight difficulty, 3=moderate difficulty, 4=great difficulty, and 5=extremely difficulty.*

Since I came to this organization, I have experienced (1,2,3,4, or 5)					
p3a. Accepting the behaviors exhibited by most others in the present organization ** [43] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3b. Accepting the pivotal values (e.g., what is important and what is not) of most others in this organization **	1	2	3	4	5
p3c. Accepting the common attitudes (toward work) of most others in this organization **	1	2	3	4	5
p3d. Accepting the main ideas of most others in this organization ** [44]	1	2	3	4	5
p3e. Accepting the pivotal organizational norms (e.g., what one should and should not do in this organizational context) followed by most others here	1	2	3	4	5
p3f. Accepting practices and customs commonly found in this organization **	1	2	3	4	5
p3g. Understanding unwritten rules of the organization ** [45] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3h. Getting used to the pace of work life in this organization # [46] † [47]	1	2	3	4	5
p3i. Seeing things from the standpoint of most others in the present organization ** †	1	2	3	4	5
p3j. Behaving "just like everybody else**"** in this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3k. Avoid saying or doing something wrong in the present organization ** [48] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3l. Receiving recognition from others for my contributions to this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3m. "Standing out from the crowd" in this organization in a proper way #	1	2	3	4	5

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[42] Furnham and Bochner (1982).

p3n. Doing jobs that everyone else here are doing, but to do them better # [49]	1	2	3	4	5
p3o. Acting more professionally than other co-workers here #	1	2	3	4	5
p3p. Gaining my personal competitive advantage over other co-workers in this hotel	1	2	3	4	5
p3q. Understanding written rules of the organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3r. Dressing myself according to the trend followed by most colleagues in this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3s. Appreciating the culture indigenous to the present work setting and organization # [50] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3t. Effectively dealing with bureaucracy in this organization #	1	2	3	4	5
p3u. Effectively dealing with people in authority in this organization # †	1	2	3	4	5
p3v. Effectively dealing with difficult people in this organization # †	1	2	3	4	5
p3w. Effectively and appropriately coping with job role conflict, such as different job requirements from different people for the same task at this workplace †	1	2	3	4	5
p3x. Dealing with complaints in this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3y. Dealing with disputes / conflicts in this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p3z. Making people I meet here happy by telling them what they want to hear, rather than telling them the truth ** [51] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3aa. Figuring out other people's real intentions or motives behind their actions in this organization ** [52] †	1	2	3	4	5
p3ab. Getting things done effectively in this organization * [53] †	1	2	3	4	5

---

[43] Items of p3a, p3b, and p3c were adapted from Bojanic and Xu's (2006) work.

[44] Items of p3d and p3f were adapted from Cuellar et al.'s (1995) work;

[45] Reio and Sutton (2006).

[46] "#" indicates that the item is developed for the study based on existing works in the literature.

[47] Items p3h, p3i, p3t, p3u, and p3v were adapted from Ward & Kennedy's (1999) work;

[48] Rollag (2000).

[49] Items of p3n and p3o are ideas from Barge and Schlueter's (2004) work.

[50] Louis (1990).

[51] Kacmar and Ferris (1991).

[52] Chao et al. (1994).

[53] Taormina (2004).

附录 A3："融入"、"突出" 与应对艰难尴尬情形的"皮试"测量表（中文版）

请分别在在以下几个方面表明您感受到得"困难"程度。请留意这里"困难"的意思是感到担心、不舒服、害怕、尴尬、和/或焦躁不安。请在以下p3a-p3o每小题的五个备选答案中，选择一个最合适您实际感受的的答案

自从进入本酒店以来，我在以下……方面感受到的困难程度是……。 1=没有困难　2=稍微有点困难　　3=有点困难　4=困难较大　5=非常困难					
p3a. 接受本酒店绝大多数人表现出的那种言谈举止	1	2	3	4	5
p3b. 接受本酒店绝大多数人持有的核心价值观(即人们所认为的什么东西重要或不重要)	1	2	3	4	5
p3c. 接受本酒店大多数人所抱有的那种工作态度	1	2	3	4	5
p3d. 接受本酒店大多数人所持有的那些主要观点	1	2	3	4	5
p3e. 接受本酒店大多数人所遵循的那些主观规范(即应该或不应该做什么)	1	2	3	4	5
p3f. 接受本酒店那些常见的风俗习惯	1	2	3	4	5
p3g. 搞懂本酒店那些没有文字记载的规矩(即潜规则)	1	2	3	4	5
p3h. 适应本酒店的工作节奏(即做事情的快慢程度)	1	2	3	4	5
p3i. 从本酒店大多数人的视角，看待周围事物	1	2	3	4	5
p3j. 使自己的言谈举止与这里的每一个人保持一致	1	2	3	4	5
p3k. 在本酒店避免说错话或做错事	1	2	3	4	5
p3l. 让其他人认可我对本酒店所做出的贡献	1	2	3	4	5
p3m. 以恰当的方式在本酒店出人头地(即与众不同或脱颖而出)	1	2	3	4	5
p3n. 与本酒店其他人做相同的工作,但比他/她们做得更好	1	2	3	4	5
p3o. 做到比其他同事更精通自己的专业	1	2	3	4	5
p3q. 理解本酒店那些有文字记载的规章制度	1	2	3	4	5
p3r. 像本酒店大多数同事那样,穿着打扮自己	1	2	3	4	5

自从进入本酒店以来，我在以下......方面感受到的困难程度是......。					
1=没有困难　2=稍微有点困难　　3=有点困难　4=困难较大　5=非常困难					
p3s. 欣赏目前本酒店特有的那种企业文化	1	2	3	4	5
p3t. 有效地应对本酒店存在的官僚作风	1	2	3	4	5
p3u. 有效地与本酒店的权贵人物打交道	1	2	3	4	5
p3v. 有效地与本酒店内难以相处的人打交道	1	2	3	4	5
p3w. 妥善处理工作中遇到的角色冲突(例如,不同的人对同一个工作任务的不同要求)	1	2	3	4	5
p3x. 妥善处理本酒店内出现的投诉	1	2	3	4	5
p3y. 处理本酒店内出现的争端或冲突	1	2	3	4	5
p3z. 讨好本酒店的其他人。例如,告诉他/她们想听的那种信息,而不是事实的真相	1	2	3	4	5
p3aa. 领会那些隐藏在本酒店员工行为背后的真实意图或动机	1	2	3	4	5
p3ab. 在本酒店把一件事情搞定,即把具体的某件事办成	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A4   Role Negotiation Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ4. The following is about your workplace *role negotiation/communication experienced <u>in this organization</u>.* Please indicate *the level of difficulty* you have experienced since you entered this organization. Note that **"***having difficulty***"** here also means *feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed, or uneasy.*[54]

1=No difficulty 2=Slight difficulty 3=Moderate difficulty *4=Great difficulty 5=Extreme difficulty*					
Since I came to this organization, I have (1,2,3,4, or 5)					
p4a. Reaching mutual agreement with others (including my supervisor and/or co-workers) on my desirable work assignments (e.g., workload, job demand) ** [55] †	1	2	3	4	5
p4b. Reaching mutual agreement with others (including my supervisor and/or co-workers) on my desired job changes (e.g., job rotations, shift changes) **	1	2	3	4	5
p4c. Managing other people's expectations of me in this organization # [56]	1	2	3	4	5
p4d. Expressing my disagreement effectively with others in this organization †	1	2	3	4	5
p4e. Effectively communicating with others (including my supervisor and/or co-workers) in order to be fairly treated in this organization	1	2	3	4	5
p4f. Making good use of resources (e.g. facilities, interpersonal relationships) around here to improve my job performance †	1	2	3	4	5
p4g. Successfully securing career enhancement opportunities such as training at this workplace	1	2	3	4	5
p4h. Making myself well understood to people in this organization* [57]	1	2	3	4	5

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[54] Furnham and Bochner (1982).
[55] Item p4a and p4b were taken from Ashforth & Black's (1996) work.
[56] Shell (2006).
[57] Ward and Kennedy (1999).

附录 A4: 角色磋商"皮试"测量表 (中文版)

PQ4: 以下小题目是关于您在工作上**与别人沟通/磋商**方面所感受到的<u>困难</u>程度。这里,困难的意思也是感到担心、不舒服、害怕、尴尬、和/或焦躁不安等。

自从进入本酒店以来,我在.....方面所感受到的困难程度为......。					
1=没有困难 2=稍微有点困难 3=有点困难 4=困难较大 5=非常困难					
p4a. 就我想要得到的工作任务与别人沟通, 达成大家一致赞同的意见(工作任务包含工作量和工作要求等;别人包括我的上司和/或同事)	1	2	3	4	5
p4b. 就我想要的工作变化与别人沟通, 达成大家一致赞同的意见(工作变化包括轮岗和倒班等)	1	2	3	4	5
p4c. 调整本酒店的人们对我抱有的那些期望	1	2	3	4	5
p4d. 当我不同意本酒店其他人的意见时, 能以恰当的方式说"不"	1	2	3	4	5
p4e. 与本酒店的人进行有效交流和沟通, 以便自己能够得到公平的待遇	1	2	3	4	5
p4f. 充分利用这里的资源(如设备设施、人际关系等)来提高自己的工作绩效	1	2	3	4	5
p4g. 在本酒店成功地争取到有利于职业发展的好机会(如参加培训等)	1	2	3	4	5
p4h. 自己能够得到本酒店其他人的理解	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A5　Organizational Identification and Job Involvement Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ5.　　The following is about the relationship between you and your present organization.　To what extent do you agree/disagree with the following?

1=strongly disagree　　2= disagree　　3=neutral　　4=agree　　5=strongly agree					
p5a. I am proud of my present organization. #	1	2	3	4	5
p5b. I value being a member of this organization. # [58]	1	2	3	4	5
p5c. This hotel's success is my success * [59]	1	2	3	4	5
p5d. When someone criticizes my present hotel, I feel like a personal insult. **	1	2	3	4	5
p5e. I consider myself as being a member of this organization. #	1	2	3	4	5
p5f. Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of them. ** [60] †	1	2	3	4	5
p5g. I have been involved in representing the organization in external (social and business) activities, such as conferences, seminars, forum, and competitions. # [61] †	1	2	3	4	5
p5h. I have volunteered for some duties that benefit this hotel. ** [62] †	1	2	3	4	5
p5i. My present organization means a lot more to me than just money. * [63] †	1	2	3	4	5
p5j. I often think about my present work even after office hours. †	1	2	3	4	5
p5k. Overall, I am very much involved in my present job/organization. ** †	1	2	3	4	5

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[58] Items p5b and p5e were adapted from Zea et al.'s (2003) work.
[59] Items p5c and p5d were adopted from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) work.
[60] Taormina (2004).
[61] Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006).
[62] Items p5k and p5h were taken from Myers and Oetzel's (2003) work.
[63] Kanungo (1982).

附录 A5: 组织认同与工作卷入感"皮试"测量表（中文版）

PQ5： 以下题目描述的是**您和目前工作的这家酒店之间的关系**。请根据您的<u>真实感受</u>，从每题后的 1、2、3、4、5 当中，选<u>一个</u>答案。

1=很反对　2=反对　3=既不反对也不同意　　4=同意　　5=很同意					
p5a. 我感到骄傲，因为我是本酒店的一名员工。	1	2	3	4	5
p5b. 我是本酒店的一员，对此我很珍惜和看重。	1	2	3	4	5
p5c. 本酒店的成功就是我个人的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
p5d. 每当听到有人批评本酒店时，我感到就像是在辱骂我个人一样。	1	2	3	4	5
p5e. 我把自己看作是本酒店的一名员工。	1	2	3	4	5
p5f. 本酒店大多数工作同事已经接纳我为他们当中的一员。	1	2	3	4	5
p5g. 我已经代表本酒店，参与了对外交流的社交或商务活动（如会议、研讨会、论坛和技术比武大赛等）。	1	2	3	4	5
p5h. 我已经自愿履行了一些义务，那些义务对本酒店有好处。	1	2	3	4	5
p5i. 我在本酒店的工作不单是为了挣钱，还能有助于我实现更多的人生目标。	1	2	3	4	5
p5j. 即使在下班时间，我也经常思考本酒店工作上的事情。	1	2	3	4	5
p5k. 总之，我很卷入（或投入）本酒店的工作事务。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A6 Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS) Scale in the Pilot Study

(English Version)

PQ6. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your *overall job satisfaction*? Each statement should be circled with ***only one*** answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree *4=neither agree nor disagree* *5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree*							
p6a. Most days I am enthusiastic about my present work.* [64]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6b. I find real enjoyment in my present work.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6c. In general, I like working in this hotel. * [65]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6d. Overall, I am satisfied with my present job in this hotel. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6e. I am satisfied with my current job for the time being.*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6f. I am often bored with my present job. *(R) †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6g. I like my job than the average worker does. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6h. In general, I do not like my present job in this organization(R). * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[64] Five items (i.e., p6a, p6b, p6e, p6f, and p6g) were adopted from Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) work.

[65] Three items (i.e., p6c, p6d, and p6h) were adopted from Cammann et al.'s (1983) work.

附录 A6：总体工作满意感"皮试"测量表（中文版）

PQ6：以下 **p6a-p6h** 小题是关于您在工作满意感方面的具体感受, 请结合自己的实际情况, 在每题的七个（1、2、3、4、5、6、7）备选答案中, 圈选最接近您真实感受的那<u>一个答案</u>。

1=完全反对 2=大部分反对 3=有点反对 4=既不反对也不同意 5=有点同意 6=大部分同意 7=完全同意							
p6a. 在大多数的日子里, 我对目前这个工作充满了热情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6b. 我从现在这份工作中找到了真正的乐趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6c. 总之, 我喜爱在本酒店工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6d. 总之, 我对本酒店目前这份工作感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6e. 我对本酒店目前这个工作感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6f. 我通常对现在这个工作感到厌烦。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6g. 与一般的职工相比, 我更喜爱自己的这份工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p6h. 总的来讲, 我不喜欢本酒店目前的这份工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix A7   Overall Job Performance (OJP) Scale in the Pilot Study

(English Version)

PQ7: To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your *overall job performance*? Each statement should be circled with ***only one*** answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree 4=neither agree nor disagree 5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree							
p7a. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, the quantity of my job assignments I accomplished is the most. ** [66]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7b. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, the quality of my job assignments I accomplished is the best. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7c. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, my work performance level is the highest. ** [67]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7d. I contribute more to the effectiveness of my work unit as compared to most people in the same work unit. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7e. I feel that I often fail to meet this organization's job performance standard (R). ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[66] Two items (i.e., p7a and p7b) were adapted from Chen and Klimoski's (2003) work.

[67] Three items (i.e., p7c, p7d, and p7e) were adapted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) work.

附录 A7：个人总体工作绩效自我评估"皮试"量表（中文版）

八、 以下**p7a-p7e**小题是关于您个人总体工作绩效方面的自我评估, 请结合自己的实际情况, 在每题的七个（1、2、3、4、5、6、7）备选答案中, 圈选最接近您真实感受的那一个答案。

1=完全反对　　　2=大部分反对　　　3=有点反对　　　4=既不反对也不同意 　　　　　　　5=有点同意　　6=大部分同意　　　　　　7=完全同意							
p7a. 与本酒店同级别的其他员工相比, 我所完成的工作任务数量最多。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7b. 与本酒店的同级别的其他员工相比, 我所完成的工作任务质量最好。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7c. 与本酒店的同级别的其他员工相比, 我认为自己的工作绩效是最好的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7d. 与我目前工作小组的其他同事相比, 我做出的贡献更大。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p7e. 我感到自己经常达不到本酒店的工作绩效考核标准。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix A8 Turnover Intention (TI) Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ8. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your *overall job satisfaction, job performance, and turnover intentions*?   Each statement should be circled with *<u>only one</u>* answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,7).

1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree *4=neither agree nor disagree* *5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree*							
p8a. I am actively seeking an alternative job. ** [68]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8b. I am constantly searching for a better job. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8c. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in other places next year. ** [69]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8d. I often think of quitting my current organization. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[68] Two items (i.e., p8a and p8b) were made by Schnake et al. (2007).
[69] Two items (i.e., p8c and p8d) were made by Colarelli (1984).

附录 A8： 离职倾向"皮试"测量表（中文版）

PQ8： 以下 **p8a-p8d** 小题是关于您在工作满意感、工作绩效和离职倾向方面的具体感受, 请结合自己的实际情况, 在每题的七个（1、2、3、4、5、6、7）备选答案中, 圈选最接近您真实感受的那<u>一个答案</u>。

1=完全反对　2=大部分反对　　3=有点反对　4=既不反对也不同意　　　　　　　　5=有点同意　　6=大部分同意　7=完全同意							
p8a. 我正在主动寻求别的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8b. 我经常寻找更好的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8c. 明年我有可能到别处去找一个新的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
p8d. 我经常想到辞去本酒店的这份工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix A9 Demographic Variables Used in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ9.1: How long have you been in this present job position?
_____ years, _____ months in total.

PQ9.2: How long have you worked in the **present hotel?**
_____ years, _____ months in total.

PQ9.3: If your hotel is a chain organization, how long have you worked for the chain in total (including the present hotel)? Please state the time period or tick "Not Applicable" as the case may be.
☐ Yes, _____ years, _____ months in total. ☐ No, Not applicable

PQ9.4: How many total hotel related positions/jobs (including internships) have you held thus far, including this current job**?**
    ☐ This is my first hotel-related job/position
    ☐ 2-3 jobs/positions   ☐ 4-5 jobs/positions
    ☐ 6-7 jobs/positions   ☐ 8-9 jobs/positions
    ☐ more than 9 jobs/positions

PQ9.5: What is your **gender**?
    ☐ male   ☐ female

PQ9.6: Your **age** is:
    ☐ below 20   ☐ 21-25   ☐ 26-30
    ☐ 31- 35   ☐ 36-40   ☐ 41-45
    ☐ 46 and above

PQ9.7: Your highest **educational level** is:
    ☐ junior middle school or below   ☐ senior middle school
    ☐ college diploma (3-year)   ☐ bachelor degree (4-year)
    ☐ master's degree or above

PQ9.8: What is your present **job position?**
    ☐ regular staff   ☐ head waiter
    ☐ supervisor or equivalent   ☐ Others:_____(please specify)

PQ9.9: Your **monthly salary** is approximately**:**
    ☐ ¥ 630 and below (**RMB**)   ☐ ¥631-1000
    ☐ ¥1001- 2000   ☐ ¥2001-3000
    ☐ ¥3001 or above
PQ9.10: Which category does your present work belong to?
    ☐ front office or housekeeping
    ☐ food & beverage or recreation
    ☐ support department (e.g., finance, security, maintenance, and so on)
    ☐ others, please specify:_____.

附录 A9: 员工个人基本情况皮试调查表（中文版）

PQ9.1：请问您在**本酒店目前这个工作岗位上的时间已经**有多长？
已经有_____ 年 _____月。

PQ9.2：请问您在**这家酒店工作的时间**有多长？
总共有_____ 年 _____月。

PQ9.3：如果您目前工作的这家酒店属于**连锁品牌**酒店下的一家分店, 那么请问到现在为止, 您已经为**这个连锁品牌**的酒店（包括您目前工作的这家酒店）**工作了多长时间**？
☐ 是的, 工作时间加起来共有 _____ 年_____月。
☐ 不是, 这种情况不适合我。

PQ9.4：把您**经历过**的**所有酒店的工作岗位/职位**加起来, 请问**一共**有多少个？这些职位包括您曾经实习过的酒店工作岗位和您目前所从事的这个工作职位。这是......
☐我在酒店工作的第 1 个职位   ☐ 第 2-3 个酒店工作职位
☐ 第 3-4 个酒店工作职位   ☐ 第 5-6 酒店工作职位
☐ 第 7-8 个酒店工作职位   ☐ 第 9 个以上酒店工作职位

PQ9.5:请问您的**性别**?
☐ 男   ☐ 女

PQ9.6：请问您的**年龄**是:
☐ 20 岁以下   ☐ 21-25 岁
☐ 26-30 岁   ☐ 31-35 岁
☐ 36-40 岁   ☐ 41-45 岁
☐ 46 及以上

PQ9.7：您的**最高学历**是：
☐ 初中及以下   ☐ 高中或中专
☐ 大学专科（3 年制） ☐ 大学本科（4 年制）
☐ 硕士研究生及以上

PQ9.8：您目前的工作职位属于以下的**哪一个类别** ？
☐ 一般员工   ☐ 领班
☐ 主管   ☐ 其他（请注明）：_____

PQ9.9： 请问您的**月收入**大概是:
☐ ￥630 人民币及以下   ☐ ￥631-1000 人民币
☐ ￥1001-2000 人民币   ☐ ￥2001-3000 人民币
☐ ￥3001 人民币及以上

PQ9.10：您目前的**工作部门**属于以下哪一个？
☐ 前厅或客房部
☐ 餐饮或娱乐部
☐ 酒店的保障部门（如行政、财务、安全、维修等）
☐ 其他部门（请注明）：_____

Appendix A10   Subjective Tenures in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ10. In this section, you are presented with two *opposing statements*. For example, if such a question is asked: How do you communicate with others in the present organization? If you feel you, typically, talk on the phone and never communicate by e-mail, you might want to circle number "2", as indicated in the following example:

I mostly communicate *by email*	-2	-1	0	1	②	I mostly communicate *by phone*
-2=strongly agree with the left hand-side statement -1=agree with the left hand-side statement 0=partly agree with both the two statements 1=agree with the right hand-side statement 2=strongly agree with the right hand side statement						

Please circle <u>*only one*</u> number from 5 choices (-2, -1, 0, +1 or +2) that appear in between *each paired items* which most closely reflects your present perceptions.

10a1.I mostly *ask* questions about the organization.* [70]	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10a2. I mostly *answer* questions about the organization.*
10b1.I mostly *get* help from others in this organization	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10b2.I mostly *give* help to others in this organization.
10c1.I spend most of my time *learning* about the organization.*	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10c2. I spend most of my time *teaching* others about the organization.*
10d1. I *feel like* a newcomer to this organization. *	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10d2. I *feel like a "veteran"* in this organization. *
10e1. Most people in this organization treat me like a *newcomer*.	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10e2. Most people in this organization treat me like an *"old-timer"*.

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[70] Items10a, 10c, and 10d were developed by Rollag (2000).

附录 A10: 员工个人主观店龄皮试调查表（中文版）

PQ10. 回答本提问时, 您将面临<u>左右两个完全相反的情形</u>。假如,

在大多数情况下,我用电子邮件和别人交流	-2	-1	0	+1	+②	在大多数情况下,我打电话和别人交流
-2=很同意左边的情形　-1=同意左边的情形　0=左右两种情形各占一半 +1=同意右边的情形　　　+2=很同意右边的情形						

该实例中圈选的是+②, 表示您很同意右边的那句话。

请在以下每一对不同的两个情形之间所给出的五个备选答案(-2、-1、 0、 +1 或 +2)中, 只选<u>一个</u>最适合您实际情况的答案, 多选无效。

-2=很同意左边的情形　-1=同意左边的情形　0=左右两种情形各占一半 +1=同意右边的情形　　　+2=很同意右边的情形					
10a1. 在多数情况下, 我向其他人请教有关本酒店的各种问题。	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10a2. 在多数情况下,我给其他人解答有关本酒店的各种问题。
10b1. 在多数情况下, 本酒店的人帮助我。	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10b2. 在多数情况下,我帮助本酒店的人。
10c1. 我大部分时间花费在从别人那里了解和学习本酒店的实际情况。	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10c2. 我大部分时间花费在给别人讲解本酒店的实际情况。
10d1. 在本酒店我感到自己是一名新员工。	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10d2. 在本酒店我感到自己是一名老员工。
10e1. 本酒店的多数人把我看作是一名新员工。	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	10e2. 本酒店的多数人把我看作是一名老员工。

Appendix A11 Interpersonal Relationships in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ11. The following statements are about the *relationships between you and other people* (e.g., coworkers and/or customers)*.* To what extent do you disagree or agree with each of the following statements?

	1=strongly disagree	*2= disagree*	*3=neutral*	*4=agree*	*5=strongly agree*
p11a. I am familiar with most others (e.g., coworkers and/or important customers) in this organization. ** [71] †	1	2	3	4	5
p11b. I am pretty popular in this organization. * [72]†	1	2	3	4	5
p11c. I do not feel that anyone I work with here is a true friend. (R) # [73] †	1	2	3	4	5
p11d. I feel no one in this organization really cares much about what happens to me. (R) * [74] †	1	2	3	4	5
p11e. I am usually excluded by influential others (e.g., in informal networks or gatherings) within this organization. ** (R) [75]†	1	2	3	4	5
p11f. I get on well with others in this organization. # [76]†	1	2	3	4	5
p11g. Most people in my organization respect me. †	1	2	3	4	5
p11h. Overall, I have established a good "guanxi" (interpersonal relationship) with most other people in this organization. †	1	2	3	4	5

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[71] Myers and Oetzel (2003)
[72] Chao et al. (1994).
[73] Nielsen et al. (2000).
[74] Zahra (1989).
[75] Chao et al. (1994).
[76] Black and Stephens (1989).

附录 A11: 人际关系"皮试"调查表（中文版）

PQ11. 以下P11a-P11h描述的是您和本酒店其他人（例如工作同事和/或客户）之间的**人际关系**。请结合您当前的实际情况，在每题后的 1、2、3、4、或 5 当中,选择<u>一个</u>最适合您的答案。

1=很反对 2=反对 3=既不反对也不同意 4=同意 5=很同意					
p11a. 我熟悉本酒店的大多数人(如工作同事和/或重要客户)。	1	2	3	4	5
p11b. 我在本酒店很出名。	1	2	3	4	5
p11c. 我感到本酒店的同事,没有一个是我的真心朋友。	1	2	3	4	5
p11d. 我感到本酒店没有一个人,真正关心那些发生在我身上的事情。	1	2	3	4	5
p11e. 在许多场合(如非正式的聚会或人际关系网中),本酒店那些有影响力的人经常排挤我。	1	2	3	4	5
p11f. 我与本酒店的人们相处得很好。	1	2	3	4	5
p11g. 本酒店大多数人都尊敬我。	1	2	3	4	5
p11h. 总而言之,我与本酒店大多数人已经建立了良好的人际关系。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A12 Role Innovation Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ12. The following statements are about your effort to ***change the role or job in order to achieve a fit between you and the job.*** Please indicate your level of agreement by circling ***only one*** of the five choices (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) to the right of ***each item*** that most closely reflects your experiences in these areas.

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neutral 4=agree 5=strongly agree					
Compared to what I have been told/trained in this organization, or compared to other co-workers who do the same job as that of mine, …					
p12a. I have tried some improved ways to do my present job. ** [77] †	1	2	3	4	5
p12b. I have attempted to redefine my roles and change what I am required to do. * [78] †	1	2	3	4	5
p12c. I have created better processes or routines for the present job. ** †	1	2	3	4	5
p12d. I have influenced a change in the criteria used to evaluate my job performance. †	1	2	3	4	5
p12e. I have expanded the autonomy I have at work in my present job/organization. ** [79] †	1	2	3	4	5
p12f. I have provided many innovative ideas / suggestions to my present job/organization. †	1	2	3	4	5
p12g. In terms of doing the present job, I am described by others as being creative innovative, and novel. †	1	2	3	4	5

[77] Items p12a and p12c were developed by Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez (1998).
[78] Jones (1986).
[79] Ashforth and Saks (1996).

附录 A12: 角色创新"皮试"调查表（中文版）

PQ12：为使工作适合人，人会变更一些做事的方式方法。 以下 12a-12g七个小题目描绘的是您在这方面所做出的努力。请选出最适合您真实情况的答案，每小题只选一个答案。

1=很反对 2=反对 3=既不反对也不同意 4=同意 5=很同意					
如果把我在目前工作中所采用的方式和方法做以下两个比较：一是把它们与酒店培训师教给我的那套完成工作任务的方式和方法做个纵向的比较；二是与其他干着相同工作的同事所采用的方式和方法做个横向比较。那么，我发现……					
p12a. 我已经尝试采用了一些改良的方式和方法,完成自己的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
p12b. 我已经尝试过重新界定自己在这份工作中应该充当的角色,并且变更这份工作对我提出的要求。	1	2	3	4	5
p12c. 我已经为我目前这份工作创造出了更好的工作流程或常规。	1	2	3	4	5
p12d. 受我的影响,考核我工作绩效的标准已经发生了相应的改变。	1	2	3	4	5
p12e. 我在目前的这份工作/这家酒店里,已经扩大了在工作上的自主权。	1	2	3	4	5
p12f. 我给本酒店提出了许多创新的点子或建议。	1	2	3	4	5
p12g. 就在这份工作中的做事风格而言,别人对我的评价是新奇的、有创意和有创造性。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix A13 Personal Change Scale in the Pilot Study (English Version)

PQ13. Do you think that adjusting to your present organization has changed you in any way? For example, in terms of what you eat everyday, suppose there have been *a little change before and after* your entry into this organization, then you might want to circle "2" (a little change) as follows:

Since I came to this organization, I have experienced ... in what I eat everyday.	1	②	3	4	5

Please indicate the level of change by circling <u>only one</u> number from five choices (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) to the right of *each item* that most closely reflects your perception.

1=no change 2= a little change 3=moderate change *4=quite a lot change 5=a great deal change*					
Since I came to this organization, I have experienced… (1,2,3,4,or 5) in terms of my…					
13a. my *personal values* (i.e., what is important to me in life). *[80] †	1	2	3	4	5
13b. my *attitudes* (i.e., the things I like and dislike). * †	1	2	3	4	5
13c. my *subjective norms* (i.e., what I should do and what I should not do). †	1	2	3	4	5
13d. my *career goals* (i.e., my plans about my future). * †	1	2	3	4	5
13e. my *personality* (i.e., what sort of person I am). * †	1	2	3	4	5
13f. my *physical and psychological* health status. †	1	2	3	4	5

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[80] Items p13a, p13b, p13d, and p13e were developed by Nicholson and West (1988).

附录 A13: 角色创新"皮试"调查表（中文版）

PQ13： 当一个员工在适应工作, 融入所在酒店时, 也在某种程度上改变着他/她自己。这就是所谓的个人变化。就拿您每天吃的东西来说, 您进入本酒店<u>后</u>与进入<u>前</u>相比, 假如<u>只有一点点差别和变化</u>。那么, 在下面例句中的五个（1、2、3、4、或 5）备选答案中, 答案 2（一点点变化）最适合您。回答该问题的具体做法如下：

自从进入本酒店以来，我在饮食方面所经历的变化为......。	1	②	3	4	5

请结合您在以下个人变化方面的实际感受, 回答以下六小题中的问题，每小题只能选择<u>一个</u>答案。

自从进入本酒店以来，就拿......来说， 我所经历的个人变化是......（1、2、3、4、或 5）。					
1=没有变化 2=一点点变化 3=有些变化 4=变化较大 5=变化很大					
p13a. 我的个人价值观（即对我来说, 人生中哪些东西重要或者不重要）	1	2	3	4	5
p13b. 我个人的态度（即我喜欢什么, 不喜欢什么）	1	2	3	4	5
p13c. 我抱有的主观规范（即我应该做什么, 不应该做什么）	1	2	3	4	5
p13d. 我个人的职业目标（即对自己未来的计划）	1	2	3	4	5
p13e. 我的个性（即我是哪一种类型的人）	1	2	3	4	5
p13f. 我个人的身心健康状况	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B Questionnaire of the Main Study

Questionnaire on Employees' Organizational Assimilation

Dear Associate,

This survey is conducted by a faculty member of the *Tourism School of Hainan University,* who is currently pursuing his PhD degree in the *School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University*. I would like to hereby invite you to spare me about 30 minutes to fill out this questionnaire, which is about hotel employees' adaptation to work environment. There is ***no right or wrong*** response. Therefore, your answers to each of the questions presented herein should be ***reflective of your real perception.*** Please be assured that the information collected through this survey will **be *kept confidential*** and will be used for my dissertation only. In response to your gesture to participate in this survey, a small ***gift*** is enclosed in the envelope.

Yours sincerely, Zibin SONG (email: zibin.song@   )

Before responding to this questionnaire, please check whether or not you meet the following three preconditions: (a) You are ***a regular employee*** in a certain department of ***this hotel or hotel group*** and (b) you are currently ***not in a managerial position,*** i.e., you are a non-managerial staff such as a front of the house or back of the house staff member, headwaiter, or supervisor,

If you fail to meet any of the above-stated two preconditions, please do not proceed and return this questionnaire to the co-worker who handed out this questionnaire. Otherwise, please go ahead and fill out this questionnaire.

附录 B: 用于正式调研的调查问卷

员工适应酒店工作和环境氛围的问卷调查

尊敬的酒店员工:

　　您好! 我是海南大学旅游学院的老师, 正在香港理工大学酒店与旅游业管理学院攻读博士学位。在此, 恳请您百忙中抽空(约 30 分钟)填写这份员工适应酒店工作及其环境氛围的问卷。您回答的问题**不存在对与错**的差别, 但应该是您的**真实感受**。任何**虚假或不认真**填写的数据**不但没有帮助**, **反而有害**。请放心, 您提供的信息, 我们将**严守秘密,** 并且**仅用于博士论文的研究**。为此, 请您答卷时根据以下每题的具体要求, 或**圈选/勾选**答案, 或**填写**具体的**数字**。为答谢您的合作, 信封内专门为您准备了 1 份**小礼物**, 请取出并留用。

　　此致
敬礼!

<div align="center">宋子斌 (zibin.song@　　　　　)</div>

　　在正式填写问卷之前, 请核实一下您是否符合以下**两个先决条件**:

第一、您是**这家酒店或连锁酒店集团**某一具体部门的**专职员工**。

第二、您目前工作职位**不高于主管级(含)**, 即您属于一般员工、领班或主管当中的任何一个类别。

　　如果您不符合以上两个条件中的任何一个, 请不要填写, 并且将此问卷退回原处。**如果您符合以上条件, 请继续填写。**

Appendix B1 CSE Scale Adapted in the Main Study

MQ1. <u>Core Self-evaluation.</u> [81] The following statements are about your personality. Please think about yourself and indicate your level of agreement by circling or ticking ***only one*** of the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) to the right of each item that most closely reflects your experiences in these areas. Please note that *1=definitely disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=mildly disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=mildly agree, 6=moderately agree, and 7=definitely agree.*

m1a. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. * † [82]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1b. I feel that I am a person of worth, on an equal basis with others. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1c. What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1d. What happens to me is of my own doing. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1e. I feel hopeful about the future. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1f. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1g. I often feel that there is nothing that I can do well. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1h. I've been depressed. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1i. I often feel lonely. (R)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1j. My feelings are easily hurt. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1k. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1l. I often feel helpless in dealing with problems in life (R) **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1m. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1n. I have little control over the things that happen to me. (R) * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1o. There is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1p. I wish I could have more respect for myself. (R) * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1q. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (R) *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[81] Of the 17items, twelve items were adopted from the CSE scale proposed by Judge and Hurst (2007). These 12 items are 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d, 1e, 1f, 1h, 1k, 1n, 1o, 1p, and 1q; two items (1l and 1m) were adopted from Judge et al.'s (2009) CSE scale; one item (i.e., 1g) was developed by Judge et al.(1998); and two items (i.e., 1i and 1j) were developed by Eysenck and Eysenck (1968).
[82]Again, items with "†" indicate that they were excluded in the overall measurement and structural models developed using the data collected in this study.

附录 B1: 用于正式调研的核心自我评价量表（中文版）

MQ1:核心自我评价。 以下题目是有关您个性的描述。请结合自己的实际情况, 在每题的七个（1、2、3、4、5、6、7）备选答案中, **圈选或勾选**其中的<u>一个</u>最接近您真实感受的答案。多选或漏选则视为无效。请留意 *1=完全反对，2=大部分反对，3=有点反对， 4=既不反对也不同意，5=有点同意，6=大部分同意，7=完全同意。*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1a. 我感到自己有很多优点。[83]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1b. 在同等条件下与别人相比，我感到自己是一个有价值的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1c. 在多数情况下, 我的未来由我自己做主。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1d. 发生在我身上的事情是因为我自己的所做所为, 与运气无关。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1e. 我对未来充满了希望。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1f. 我几乎可以确信自己所做出的计划, 都是行之有效或切实可行的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1g. 我经常感到自己一事无成,什么事情都做不好。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1h. 我经常心情不好,情绪低落。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1i. 我经常感到孤独和寂寞。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1j. 我的感情容易受到伤害。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1k. 我觉得自己拥有的那些可值得骄傲的东西不多。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1l. 在处理生活中的难题时,我常感得不到帮助。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1m. 在许多方面我对自己的人生成就感到失望。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1n. 我几乎无法掌控自己的命运。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1o. 我感到自己几乎无能为力，去改变自己生活中许多重要事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1p. 我希望我对自己的尊重更多一些。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m1q. 总之，我倾向于认为自己是失败的人。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[83] 本附录 B 中各中文量表每个具体项目的来源等详情，请参见其对应的英文项目的标注。

Appendix B2 Task Mastery Scale in the Main Study (English Version)

MQ2: <u>Adjustment to the Job Tasks.</u> Following your entry into this organization, to what extent have you adjusted to the present job itself? Please indicate your level of agreement by circling ***only one*** of the five choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) to the right of each item (**m2a-m2g**) that most closely reflects your experiences in these areas. Please note that *1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree*.

m2a. I have developed adequate knowledge required in my present job. **	1	2	3	4	5
m2b. I have developed adequate skills and abilities to perform my present job within this organization. ** [84]	1	2	3	4	5
m2c. I complete most of my present work assignments without assistance.* [85]	1	2	3	4	5
m2d. I rarely make mistakes when conducting my job assignments. * [86]	1	2	3	4	5
m2e. I can do other co-workers' job, if it is required of me. * [87] †	1	2	3	4	5
m2f. In my present job, I find it very hard to prevent work accidents. (R) †	1	2	3	4	5
m2g. It seems to take me longer time than planned to complete my job assignments. * (R) [88] †	1	2	3	4	5

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[84] Chao et al.(1994); Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003).
[85] Reio and Sutton (2006); Morrison (1993a).
[86] Morrison (1993a); Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003).
[87] Myers and Oetzel (2003).
[88] Morrison (1993a).

附录 B2: 工作胜任感测量表 （中文版）

MQ2:工作胜任感。 自从进入本酒店以来，您在何种程度上已感到胜任现在所从事工作本身？在以下 m2a-m2g 题目中，每题都有五个备选答案。请从 1、2、3、4、5 当中只选出其中最适合您实际情况的一个答案。请留意 *1=很反对，2=反对，3=既不反对也不同意，4=同意,5=很同意.*

m2a. 我已经学到了足够的知识，能够满足本酒店对我的工作要求。	1	2	3	4	5
m2b. 我已经拥有了足够的工作技能和能力，能够胜任本酒店当前这个工作职位。	1	2	3	4	5
m2c. 在没有别人帮助的情况下，我能独立完成绝大多数布置给我个人的工作任务。	1	2	3	4	5
m2d. 就完成目前各项工作任务而言，我很少出差错。	1	2	3	4	5
m2e. 如有需求的话，我能够做其他同事所从事的工作。	1	2	3	4	5
m2f. 在这个岗位上，我发现很难阻止工作事故的发生。	1	2	3	4	5
m2g. 我完成工作任务所用的时间，好像总比计划的要长一些。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B3 Scale of Fitting In, Standing Out, and Impersonal & Difficult Situations in the Main Study

MQ3: Please indicate *the level of difficulty* you have had since you entered this hotel in the following areas. Note that *"having difficulty"* here means *feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed, and/or uneasy.* [89]

1=No difficulty 2=Slight difficulty 3=Moderate difficulty 4=Great difficulty 5=Extreme difficulty					
Since I came to this organization, I have experienced...(1,2,3,4, or 5) difficulty in each of ...(4a to 4n)					
m3a. Accepting the behaviors exhibited by most others in this hotel ** [90] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3b. Accepting the pivotal values (e.g., what is important and what is not) of most others in this hotel ** †	1	2	3	4	5
m3c. Accepting the common attitudes (toward work) of most others in this hotel **	1	2	3	4	5
m3d. Accepting the main ideas of most others in this hotel ** [91]	1	2	3	4	5
m3e. Accepting the pivotal organizational norms (e.g., what one should and should not do in this organizational context) followed by most others here	1	2	3	4	5
m3f. Accepting practices and customs commonly found in this hotel **	1	2	3	4	5
m3g. Avoid saying or doing something wrong in this hotel ** [92] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3h. Getting used to the pace of work life in this hotel # [93] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3i. Seeing things from the standpoint of most others in this hotel ** [94] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3j. Receiving recognition from others for my contributions to this hotel †	1	2	3	4	5
m3k. "Standing out from the crowd" in this hotel in a proper way # [95] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3l. Doing the job better than others in this organization #	1	2	3	4	5
m3m. Acting more professionally than other co-workers here #	1	2	3	4	5
m3n. Gaining my personal competitive advantage over other co-workers in this hotel	1	2	3	4	5

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[89] Furnham and Bochner (1982).
[90] Items of m3a, m3b, and m3c were adapted from Bojanic and Xu's (2006) work.
[91] Two items (i.e., m3d and m3f) were developed by Cuellar et al. (1995).
[92] Rollag (2000).
[93] "#" indicates that item is developed for the study based on existing works in the literature.
[94] Five items (i.e., m3h , m3i, m3o, m3q, m3r) were adapted from Ward and Kennedy's (1999) work;
[95] The conceptual underpinnings related to items of m3k, m3l, and m3m were initially proposed by Barge and Schlueter's (2004).

m3o. Dealing with difficult people in this hotel # †	1	2	3	4	5
m3p. Coping with job role conflict (e.g., different job requirements from different people for the same task) †	1	2	3	4	5
m3q. Dealing with complaints in this hotel †	1	2	3	4	5
m3r. Dealing with disputes / conflicts in this hotel †	1	2	3	4	5
m3s. Getting things done effectively in this hotel [96] †	1	2	3	4	5
m3t. Communicating with others by using the commonly used language in this hotel # [97] †	1	2	3	4	5

[96] Taormina (2004).
[97] Chao et al (1994)

附录 B3："融入"、"突出"和应对艰难尴尬情形的正式 量表（中文版）

MQ3：请分别在在以下几个方面表明您感受到得"困难"程度。请留意这里"困难"的意思是感到担心、不舒服、害怕、尴尬、和/或焦躁不安。请在以下**m3a-m3n**每小题的五个备选答案中，选择<u>一个</u>最合适您实际感受的的答案。

自从进入本酒店以来, 我在以下(4a-4t)......方面感受到的困难程度是......(1、2、3、4、或 5)。 1=没有困难　2=稍微有点困难　3=有点困难　　4=困难较大　　5=非常困难					
m3a.　接受本酒店绝大多数人表现出的那种言谈举止	1	2	3	4	5
m3b.　接受本酒店绝大多数人持有的核心价值观（即什么东西重要或不重要）	1	2	3	4	5
m3c.　接受本酒店大多数人所抱有的那种工作态度	1	2	3	4	5
m3d.　接受本酒店大多数人所持有的那些主要观点	1	2	3	4	5
m3e.　接受本酒店大多数人所遵循的那些主观规范（即应该或不应该做什么）	1	2	3	4	5
m3f.　接受本酒店那些常见的习惯和惯例	1	2	3	4	5
m3g.　在本酒店避免说错话或做错事	1	2	3	4	5
m3h.　适应本酒店的工作节奏（即做事情的快慢程度）	1	2	3	4	5
m3i.　站在本酒店大多数人的视角, 看待周围事物	1	2	3	4	5
m3j.　让其他人认可我对本酒店所做出的贡献	1	2	3	4	5
m3k.　以恰当的方式在本酒店出人头地（即与众不同）	1	2	3	4	5
m3l.　在工作上比本酒店其他员工做得更好	1	2	3	4	5
m3m.　做到比其他同事更精通自己的专业	1	2	3	4	5
m3n.　获取超越本酒店其他同事的竞争优势	1	2	3	4	5
m3o.　与本酒店**难以相处的人打交道**	1	2	3	4	5
m3p.　**应对**工作中遇到的**<u>角色冲突</u>**（例如, 不同的人对同一个工作任务的不同要求）	1	2	3	4	5
m3q.　处理本酒店内出现的**投诉**	1	2	3	4	5
m3r.　处理本酒店内出现的**争端或冲突**	1	2	3	4	5
m3s.　在本酒店**把一件事情搞定**（即把某件事办成）	1	2	3	4	5
m3t.　采用本酒店**常用的语言**与其他人进行**交流**	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B4 Role Negotiation Scale in the Main Study (English Version)

MQ4: <u>Adjustment to Job Roles.</u> The following is about your workplace role negotiation/communication experienced in this organization. Please indicate *the level of difficulty* you have experienced since you entered this organization.

1=No difficulty 2=Slight difficulty 3=Moderate difficulty *4=Great difficulty 5=Extreme difficulty*					
Since I came to this organization, I have experienced...(1,2,3,4, or 5) difficulty in each of ...(m4a to m4j)					
m4a. Negotiating with supervisors/coworkers about my desirable job assignment	1	2	3	4	5
m4b. Negotiating with my supervisors/coworkers about my desirable job changes (e.g., job rotations, shift changes, and the likes) ** [98] †	1	2	3	4	5
m4c. Reaching mutual agreement with my supervisors/coworkers on the job demand (e.g., requirements in a job description) placed on me **	1	2	3	4	5
m4d. Adjusting my work role to best suit my talents and needs ** [99]	1	2	3	4	5
m4e. Being allowed by supervisors/coworkers to use my own way to achieve higher job performances	1	2	3	4	5
m4f. Providing many innovative ideas / suggestions to my present job/organization †	1	2	3	4	5
m4g. Implementing these new ideas/suggestions in this organization ** [100] †	1	2	3	4	5
m4h. Altering others expectations of me in doing this job # [101] †	1	2	3	4	5
m4i. Influencing a change in the improper criteria used to evaluate my job performance †	1	2	3	4	5
m4j. Expanding the autonomy I have at work in my present job ** [102] †	1	2	3	4	5

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[98] Two items (m4b and m4c) were adapted from Ashforth and Black's (1996) work.
[99] Miller et al. (1999).
[100] Welbourne et al. (1998).
[101] Shell (2006).
[102] Ashforth and Saks (1996).

附录 B4: 角色磋商量表（中文版）

MQ4： <u>**工作上的磋商与沟通**</u>。以下**m4a-m4j**小题目是关于您在工作上**与别人沟通/磋商/商量**方面所感受到的<u>困难</u>程度。请在每小题五个备选答案中，选择<u>一个</u>最合适的答案。

自从进入本酒店以来,我在......方面所感受到的困难程度为......。 1=没有困难　2=稍微有点困难　3=有点困难　4=困难较大　5=非常困难					
m4a. 与领导/同事进行沟通和磋商,得到我想要的工作任务	1	2	3	4	5
m4b. 与领导/同事进行沟通和磋商,得到我想要的工作变化（如轮岗和倒班等）	1	2	3	4	5
m4c. 与领导和同事沟通,彼此达成对我工作要求的一致性意见	1	2	3	4	5
m4d. 调整我的工作<u>角色</u>(即职责之类的),从而满足我个人需求和充分发挥我个人才能	1	2	3	4	5
m4e. 争取得到领导/同事的许可,同意我采用自己独特的方式去获取更好的工作成效	1	2	3	4	5
m4f. 给本酒店提出许多创新的点子或建议	1	2	3	4	5
m4g. 在本酒店实现那些创新的点子和建议	1	2	3	4	5
m4h. 改变别人对我从事这项工作抱有的期望	1	2	3	4	5
m4i. 改变那些考核我的并且是不合理的工作绩效标准	1	2	3	4	5
m4j. 在目前这份工作上,扩大我的自主权(如自己有权限处理工作中遇到的问题)	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B5 Adjustment to Other People and the Employment Organization in the Main Study (English Version)

MQ5: The following statements are about the relationships between you and other people (e.g., coworkers and/or customers) as well as your present employment organization. To what extent do you disagree or agree with each of the following statements?   Please note that *1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4=agree, and 5=strongly agree*.

m5a. I am proud to be an employee of this hotel. ** [103]	1	2	3	4	5
m5b. I value being a member of this organization. # [104]	1	2	3	4	5
m5c. This hotel's success is my success. * [105] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5d. When someone criticizes my present hotel, I take it as a personal insult. ** †	1	2	3	4	5
m5e. I have a warm feeling towards this hotel as a workplace. **	1	2	3	4	5
m5f. I have a lot in common with other employees in this hotel. ** †	1	2	3	4	5
m5g. I feel comfortable around my co-workers. * [106] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5h. Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of the hotel. ** [107] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5i. I get on well with others in this hotel. # [108] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5j. I feel people in this organization really care about me. ** [109] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5k. Most people in my hotel respect me. †	1	2	3	4	5
m5l. I have a lot of good friends in this hotel. ** [110] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5m. Overall, I have established a good "guanxi"(interpersonal relationship) with most other people in this hotel. †	1	2	3	4	5
m5n. I have volunteered for some duties that benefit this hotel. ** [111] †	1	2	3	4	5
m5o. I often think about my present work even after office hours. †	1	2	3	4	5
m5p. I will regret if I stop working for this hotel. †	1	2	3	4	5
m5q. Overall, I am very much involved in my present job/organization. ** †	1	2	3	4	5

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[103] Three items (i.e., m5a, m5e and m5f) were adapted from Miller et al.'s (2000) work.
[104] Zea et al. (2003).
[105] Two items (i.e., m5c and m5d) were adapted from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) work.
[106] Morrison (1993a).
[107] Taormina (2004).
[108] Black and Stephens (1989).
[109] Zahra (1989).
[110] Chao et al. (1994).
[111] Items m5n and m5q were developed by Myers and Oetzel (2003).

附录 B5： 与他/她人和与酒店的关系测量表 （中文版）

MQ5：以下描述的是您和目前这家酒店之间的关系。请结合您当前的实际情况，在每题后的 1、2、3、4、或 5 当中,选择<u>一个</u>最适合您的答案。请留意 *1=很反对，　2=反对，3=既不反对也不同意，4=同意，5=很同意。*

m5a. 我感到自豪的是自己是本酒店的一名员工。	1	2	3	4	5
m5b. 我珍惜自己是本酒店的一员。	1	2	3	4	5
m5c. 本酒店的成功就是我个人的成功。	1	2	3	4	5
m5d. 每当听到有人批评本酒店时,我认为那是在说我个人的坏话。	1	2	3	4	5
m5e. 我对本酒店有一种亲切和温暖的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5
m5f. 我和本酒店其他员工有许多相同之处。	1	2	3	4	5
m5g. 当与工作同事在一起的时候我感到很舒服。	1	2	3	4	5
m5h. 大多数酒店工作同事已经接纳了我,把我当成他/她们当中的一员。	1	2	3	4	5
m5i. 我与本酒店的人们相处得很好。	1	2	3	4	5
m5j. 我感到本酒店的人真的很关心我。	1	2	3	4	5
m5k. 本酒店大多数人都尊敬我。	1	2	3	4	5
m5l. 我在这家酒店有许多好朋友。	1	2	3	4	5
m5m. 总之,我在本酒店已经建立了良好的人际关系。	1	2	3	4	5
m5n. 我已经自愿履行过那些对本酒店有好处的义务。	1	2	3	4	5
m5o. 即使在下班时间我也常思考本酒店工作上的事。	1	2	3	4	5
m5p. 如果不在这家酒店工作,我会后悔和遗憾的。	1	2	3	4	5
m5q. 总之,我很卷入/投入本酒店的工作事务。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B6 Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS) Scale in the Main Study

(English Version)

MQ6: <u>Overall Job Satisfaction.</u> To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your *overall job satisfaction?* Each statement should be circled with ***<u>only one</u>*** answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

	1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree *4=neither agree nor disagree* *5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree*						
m6a. Most days I am enthusiastic about my present work. * [112]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6b. I find real enjoyment in my present work. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6c. In general, I like working in this hotel. * [113]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6d. Overall, I am satisfied with my present job in this hotel. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6e. I am satisfied with my current job for the time being. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6f. I am often bored with my present job. * (R) †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6g. Most of the time, I have to force myself to go to work. (R) * [114] †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[112] Four items (i.e., m6a, m6b, m6e, and m6f) were adopted from Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) measure.
[113] Two items (i.e., m6c and m6d) were adopted from Cammann et al.'s (1983) measure.
[114] Babin and Boles (1998).

附录 B6： 工作总体满意感（OJS）测量表（中文版）

MQ6：总体工作满意感。 请在以下每题(m6a-m6g)的七个备选答案(1、2、3、4、5、6、7)中，选出最接近您真实感受的那一个答案。

1=完全反对　2=大部分反对　　3=有点反对　4=既不反对也不同意 5=有点同意　　6=大部分同意　　7=完全同意							
m6a. 在大多数的日子里，我对自己目前的工作充满了热情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6b. 从这份工作中我找到了真正的乐趣。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6c. 总的来讲，我喜欢在本酒店工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6d. 总之，我对本酒店这份工作感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6e. 我对本酒店现在这个工作感到满意。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6f. 我通常对现在这个工作感到厌烦。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m6g. 大多数时间我不得不强迫自己去上班。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B7 Overall Job Performance (OJP) Scale in the Main Study

(English Version)

MQ7: **Overall Job Performance.** To what extent do you agree with the following statements (**m7a to m7g**) regarding your *overall job performance*? Each statement should be circled with *only one* answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree *4=neither agree nor disagree* *5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree*							
m7a. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, the quantity of my job accomplishments is the most. ** [115]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7b. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, the quality of my job accomplishments is the best. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7c. In comparison to other employees of the same rank, my work performance level is the highest. ** [116]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7d. I contribute more to the effectiveness of my work unit as compared to most people in the same work unit. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7e. It's very hard for me to meet this organization's job performance standard (R). ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7f. It's very hard for me to satisfy customers (either hotel guests or coworkers for whom I serve). (R) †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7g. It's very hard for me to finish job assignments before the deadline. **(R) [117] †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[115] Two items (i.e., m7a and m7b) were adapted from Chen and Klimoski's (2003) work.
[116] Three items (i.e., m7c, m7d and m7e) were adapted from Van Scotter and Motowidlo's (1996) work;
[117] Wallace and Chen (2006).

附录 B7:工作总体绩效自我评估量表（中文版）

七、工作总体绩效自我评估。 请在以下每题(m7a-m7g)的七个备选答案(1、2、3、4、5、6、7)中,选出最接近您真实感受的那一个答案。

1=完全反对　2=大部分反对　3=有点反对　4=既不反对也不同意 5=有点同意　　6=大部分同意　　7=完全同意							
m7a. 与本酒店同级别的其他员工相比,我所完成的工作任务数量最多。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7b. 与本酒店同级别的其他员工相比，我所完成的工作任务质量最好。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7c. 与本酒店同级别的其他员工相比,我认为自己的工作绩效是最好的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7d. 与我目前工作小组的其他同事相比,我做出的贡献更大。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7e. 我感到自己很难达到这家酒店的工作绩效考核标准。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7f. 对我来说，使客户（包括我服务的酒店客人或同事）感到满意非常困难。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m7g. 对我来讲，要在规定的最后期限前完成工作任务非常困难。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B8 Turnover Intention Scale in the Main Study (English Version)

MQ8: <u>Turnover Intention.</u> To what extent do you agree with the following statements (**m8a-m8f**) regarding your *turnover intention*? Each statement should be circled with <u>***only one***</u> answer from the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7).

1=definitely disagree 2=moderately disagree 3=mildly disagree *4=neither agree nor disagree* *5=mildly agree 6=moderately agree 7=definitely agree*							
m8a. I am actively seeking an alternative job. ** [118]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8b. I am constantly searching for a better job. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8c. It is likely that I will actively look for a new job in other places next year. ** [119]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8d. I often think of quitting my current organization. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8e. If other employers offer me a job position, I would gladly accept it. * [120]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8f. I would be very unhappy for me to spend the rest of my career in this organization. ** [121] †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[118] Two items (i.e., m8a and m8b) were adopted from Schnake et al.'s (2007) work.
[119] Two items (i.e., m8c and m8d) were developed by Colarelli (1984).
[120] Song and Chathoth (2008).
[121] Allen and Meyer (1990).

附录 B8: 离职意向测量表（中文版）

MQ8：**离职倾向**。 请在以下每题(m8a-m8f)的七个备选答案(1、2、3、4、5、6、7)中，选出最接近您在离职倾向方面的真实感受。每题只选一个答案。

1=完全反对　2=大部分反对　　3=有点反对　　4=既不反对也不同意 　　　　　　　5=有点同意　　　　6=大部分同意　　　7=完全同意							
m8a. 我正在主动寻求别的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8b. 我经常寻找更好的工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8c. 明年我有可能到别处去找一个新工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8d. 我经常想到辞去本酒店的这份工作。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8e. 如果其他企业/老板主动给我一个工作职位，我会乐意接受的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
m8f. 如果我后半辈子的职业生涯全部在本酒店/酒店集团度过的话，我会很不开心的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B9 Demographic and Control Variables in the Main Study

MQ9.1: How long have you worked in the **present hotel?**
　　　　　_____ years, _____months in total.

MQ9.2: If your hotel is a chain organization, how long have you worked for the chain in total (including the present hotel)? Please state the time period or tick "Not Applicable" as the case may be.

　☐ Yes, _____ years, _____months in total. ☐ No, Not applicable

MQ9.3: How many total hotel related positions/jobs (including internships) have you held thus far, including this current job**?**

　　　　　☐ This is my first hotel-related job/position

　　　　　☐ 2-3 jobs/positions　　　☐ 4-5 jobs/positions

　　　　　☐ 6-7 jobs/positions　　　☐8 and more jobs/positions

MQ9.4: What is your **gender**?

　　　　　☐male　　　☐ female

MQ9.5: Your **age** is:

　　　　　☐ below 20　　　☐ 21-25　　　☐ 26-30

　　　　　☐ 31- 35　　　☐36-40　　　☐41-45

　　　　　☐46 and above

MQ9.6: Your highest **educational level** is:

　　　　　☐ junior middle school or below　　　☐senior middle school

　　　☐college diploma (3-year)　　　☐bachelor degree (4-year)

　　　☐master's degree or above

MQ9.7: What is your present **job position?**

　　　☐ regular staff　　　☐head waiter

　　　☐ supervisor or equivalent　　　☐ Others:_____(please specify)

MQ9.8: Your **monthly salary** is approximately**:**

　　　☐￥ 630 and below (**RMB**)　　☐ ￥631-1000

　　　☐￥1001- 2000　　　☐￥2001-3000

　　　☐￥3001 or above

MQ9.9: Which category does your present work belong to?

　　　☐front office or housekeeping

　　　☐food & beverage or recreation

　　　☐ support department (e.g., finance, security, maintenance, and so on)

　　　☐others, please specify:_____.

附录 B9：用于正式调研的员工个人基本情况及控制变量 （中文版）

MQ9.1：请问您在**这家酒店工作的时间**有多长？
　　　　总共有＿＿＿＿ 年 ＿＿＿＿＿＿月。

MQ9.2：如果您目前工作的这家酒店属于**连锁品牌**酒店下的一家分店，那么请问到现在为止，您已经为**这个连锁品牌**的酒店（包括您目前工作的这家酒店）**工作了多长时间**？
□ 是的，工作时间加起来共有 ＿＿＿＿＿＿ 年＿＿＿＿＿月。
□ 不是，这种情况不适合我。

MQ9.3：把您**经历过**的**所有酒店的工作岗位/职位**加起来，请问一共有多少个？这些职位包括您曾经实习过的酒店工作岗位和您目前所从事的这个工作职位。这是......
□我在酒店工作的第 1 个职位　　　　□ 第 2-3 个酒店工作职位
□ 第 4-5 个酒店工作职位　　　　　　□ 第 6-7 酒店工作职位
□ 第 8 个酒店工作职位及以上

MQ9.4：请问您的**性别**?　　　　□ 男　　　　□ 女

MQ9.5：请问您的**年龄**是：
□ 20 岁以下　□ 21-25 岁　□ 26-30 岁　□ 31-35 岁
□ 36-40 岁　□ 41-45 岁　□ 46 及以上

MQ9.6：您的**最高学历**是：
□ 初中及以下　□ 高中或中专　□ 大学专科（3 年制）
□ 大学本科（4 年制）　　□ 硕士研究生及以上

MQ9.7：您目前的工作职位属于以下的**哪一个类别** ？
□ 一般员工　　　　　　□ 领班
□ 主管　　　　　　　　□ 其他（请注明）：＿＿＿＿＿

MQ9.8：请问您的**月收入**大概是：
□ ￥630 元及以下　□ ￥631-1000 元　□ ￥1001-2000 元
□ ￥2001-3000 元　　□ ￥3001 元及以上

MQ9.9：您目前的**工作部门**属于以下哪一个？
□ 前厅或客房部　　　　□ 餐饮或娱乐部
□ 酒店的保障部门（如行政、财务、安全、维修等）
□ 其他部门（请注明）：＿＿＿＿＿＿

Appendix B10 Organizational Socialization Tactics (OST) Scale in the Main Study (English Version)

MQ10: <u>Organizational Socialization Tactics</u> [122]. Currently, you might think that you are a newcomer or an old-timer. Regardless, please look back to the time (e.g., around the first six month, longer, or even shorter period following your organizational entry into this hotel or hotel group) when you were still a newcomer. During that time, this organization has, more or less, done something—such as orientation and on the job training—for you in order to get you socialized. Please recall what you experienced and indicate your level of agreement by circling *__only one__* of the seven choices (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) to the right of each statement (**10a1 to 10f5**) that most closely reflects your experiences of being socialized by this hotel. Note that *1=definitely disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=mildly disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5=mildly agree, 6=moderately agree, and 7=definitely agree.*

10A. Collective versus individual

10a1. Around the first six months, longer, or even shorter period following my entry into this hotel, I was extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job related training activities. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a2. Most of my training was carried out separately from other newcomers. (R) ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a3. This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a4. Other newcomers have helped me to understand my job requirements. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a5. There is a sense of "being in the same boat" among newcomers in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10B. Formal versus informal

10b1. I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b2. During my training for this job, I was separated from regular organizational members. ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b3. I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b4. Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis.(R) * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b5. I have been very aware that I am seen as "learning the ropes" in this organization. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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[122] The 30-itemed OST scale is from Jones' (1986) work;

10C. Investiture versus divestiture

10c1. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c2. Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c3. My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c4. I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. (R) ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c5. I feel that experienced organizational members have kept me at a distance until I conform to their expectations. (R) ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10D. Serial versus disjunctive

10d1. Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d2. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization by observing my senior colleagues. **	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d3. I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. (R) * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d4. I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization. (R) ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d5. I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. (R) ** †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B10 Organizational Socialization Tactics (OST) Scale (English Version Cont'd)

10E. Sequential versus random							
10e1. There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e2. Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceeding stages of the process. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e3. The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e4. This organization puts newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experience. * *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e5. The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this organization. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2F. Fixed versus variable							
10f1. I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experience. * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f2. I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f3. The way in which my progress through this organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been communicated to me. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f4. I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercises in this organization. (R) * †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f5. Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, through the grapevine rather than through regular organizational channels. (R)* †	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

附录 B10：组织融入员工的策略（OST）测量表（中文版）

MQ10：酒店融入员工的策略。无论您现在是新员工，还是老员工，都请您回想一下**当初您作为一名新员工**进入本酒店后的一段时间(如入职后的六个月、更短或更长时间)，本酒店曾为您做过什么？例如，为使您尽快**融入**工作和环境，酒店曾经或多或少对您进行过**入职培训和上岗引导**等等。在此，请**回想一下**您在**本酒店的那段经历**。然后，根据您的真实感受，在每题的七个备选答案(即 1、2、3、4、5、6、7)中,选出其中最合适的**一个**答案。 请留意：*1=完全反对，2=大部分反对，3=有点反对，4=既不反对也不同意，5=有点同意，6=大部分同意，7=完全同意。*

10A. 集体与个别式的融入策略							
10a1. 在我进入本酒店最初(例如六个月，更长或更短)的一段时间,酒店把我和其他新员工集中在一起广泛进行了工作培训。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a2. 对我的培训大多数都是与其他新员工分开进行的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a3. 本酒店采用一套相同的办法,让所有的新员工经历相同的学习过程。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a4. 其他新员工曾经帮助过我,使我懂得新工作对我的要求是什么。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10a5. 新员工们彼此都有 "在同一条船上"(即处境相同)的感觉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10B. 正式与不正式的融入策略							
10b1. 本酒店已经对我进行了一整套的培训,其目的是为了让一名新员工全面和透彻地了解那些与工作有关的技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b2. 在参加本酒店封闭式的入职培训期间,我没有机会接触到那些已正式上岗的员工。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b3. 等到我完全熟悉工作部门的流程和方法后,酒店才让我上岗履行工作职责。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b4. 我的工作业务知识,大部分都是通过不正式的反复试验或汲取经验教训而获得的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10b5. 我曾经很清楚地觉察到:其他同事把我看作是来酒店学习新东西的"菜鸟"(即新手或新员工)。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

附录 B10：组织融入员工的策略（OST）测量表（中文续版）

10C. 给予与剥夺式的融入策略							
10c1. 本酒店让我感到自己拥有的知识和技能对酒店来说非常重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c2. 几乎这里所有的工作同事都曾经支持过我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c3. 工作同事们曾想方设法让我适应/融入本酒店。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c4. 为了使本酒店接纳我, 我不得不改变自己的<u>态度</u>(即喜欢或不喜欢什么)和<u>价值观</u>(即认为什么重要或不重要)。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10c5. 我感到这里有经验的员工要求我顺从他/她们对我的期望, 否则, 他/她们与我保持距离。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10D. 帮扶与孤立式的融入策略							
10d1. 这里有经验的工作人员关心和帮助新员工, 并且把这些事情看做是他/她们的主要工作职责之一。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d2. 通过观察那些有经验的工作同事, 我搞清楚了自己在这家酒店应该充当的角色(即需要履行什么样的工作职责)。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d3. 就我应当如何履行自己的工作职责而言, 这里有经验的工作同事很少指导我。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d4. 我很少或没有机会见到那些从事过与我现在职位相同的人员。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10d5. 我基本上被丢在了一边, 只好独自去探索和发现自己在本酒店应该<u>充当</u>的角色(即需履行的那些工作职责)。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

附录 B10：组织融入员工的策略（OST）测量表（中文续版）

10E. 依次与随机的融入策略							
10e1. 本酒店各个工作角色之间和各项任务之间的连接与过度方式，都很明确和清楚。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e2. 每个阶段的培训都是承前启后的，即一个阶段的培训内容和方式等都是在前一个阶段培训所学基础上的延伸和扩展。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e3. 在工作角色之间以及职责之间的连接和转换方面，本酒店有明确的套路和做法，便于积累和跟踪员工的工作经验。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e4. 本酒店采用一连串有顺序的培训措施，方便新员工在这里的学习经历。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10e5. 关于员工的<u>职业发展"阶梯"</u>(即职业发展计划)，本酒店有清楚的规定和说明。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10F. 固定与变化式的融入策略							
10f1. 通过观察其他同事的工作经历，我可预见自己在本酒店未来的职业发展道路将会是怎样的。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f2. 有关参加本酒店各个阶段培训所需的时间问题，我了解得很清楚。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f3. 通过酒店的告知，我知道了自己在本酒店的发展道路将遵循一套固定的规矩和日程安排。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f4. 我几乎不知道自己在本酒店何时有可能得到新的工作任务或训练任务。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10f5. 本酒店那些将要发生的并且与我有关的消息，大多数都是通过非正式，而不是正式的渠道传给我的。†	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix B11 Subjective Newness to the Organization （English Version）

MQ11. Newcomers vs. Old-timer. From a subjective point of view and regardless of your actual tenure in this hotel or hotel group, do you think you are a newcomer or an old-timer for the time being? Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement on each of the following statements.

1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither disagree nor agree *4=agree 5=strongly agree*					
11a. I *feel like* **a newcomer** to this organization. * [123]	1	2	3	4	5
11b. Most people in this organization treat me like an *"old-timer"*. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
11c.I mostly *ask* questions about the organization.* [124]	1	2	3	4	5
11d. I mostly *answer* questions about the organization.* (R)	1	2	3	4	5

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[123] Rollag (2000).

[124] Items 11 a, 11c, and 11d were developed by Rollag (2000).

附录 B11：主观新旧员工测量表（中文版）

MQ11、<u>新员工与老员工</u>。如果不考虑您在这家酒店/酒店集团的实际工作年限的话，在主观上您认为自己是新员工还是老员工？请在以下每小题中，选择最适合您亲身感受的<u>一个</u>答案。

1=很反对 2=反对 3=既不反对也不同意 4=同意 5=很同意					
11a. 在本酒店(集团)我感到自己是一名新员工。	1	2	3	4	5
11b. 本酒店(集团)的大多数人把我看做是老员工。	1	2	3	4	5
11c. 多数情况下, 我从本酒店(集团)其他人那里询问/打听本酒店的各种情况。	1	2	3	4	5
11d. 多数情况下, 我给其他人解答有关本酒店(集团)的各种问题。	1	2	3	4	5

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