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Three Essays on Organizational Socialization from Dissimilar Employee's Perspective

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THREE ESSAYS ON ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION FROM DISSIMILAR EMPLOYEE'S PERSPECTIVE

by

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ABSTRACT

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by

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The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, 2020

Under the Supervision of Professor Romila Singh and Professor Hong Ren

This dissertation consists of 3 essays all of which seek to examine the socialization experiences of newcomers who perceive themselves to be dissimilar from their work colleagues before, during, and after they start their jobs. I define the perceived dissimilarity as the degree to which individuals perceived themselves to be different from most others in the organization. The first essay provides a comprehensive review of the theoretical and empirical literature on organizational socialization, identifies four dominant theoretical perspectives and their gaps, and sets the stage for the research model developed for this dissertation. At the end of the first essay, the integrative model of organizational socialization is introduced, which incorporates important elements of the four influential research perspectives to examine the socialization processes and outcomes of newcomers who perceive themselves to be dissimilar to their work colleagues during the anticipatory stage (pre-organizational entry), accommodation stage (immediately following organizational entry), and role management stages (six months after starting new work role). The second essay focuses on understanding the anticipatory (pre-organizational entry) stage of dissimilar newcomers' socialization experiences. Specifically, it examines the interaction between individual and contextual factors on proactive socialization behaviors of newcomers' who perceive themselves to be dissimilar from their work colleagues. The third essay

focuses on understanding the socialization experiences of newcomers' who perceive themselves to be dissimilar from their work colleagues during the last two stages of the organizational socialization process (accommodation and role management stage). Specifically, it examines the interaction between individual and contextual factors on newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors and adjustment and attitudinal outcomes one month and six months after starting their new work role. Data is collected at 4 times (pre-entry, 2 weeks after entry, 3 months after entry, 6 months after entry) by collaborating with Qualtrics data collection team. The final sample size consists of 80 people who had an offer but had not started working at time 1. The theoretical and practical implications of my research are discussed at the end of the essays.

To

My mom in heaven,

my dad and sister,

and all my friends supporting me all along

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Organizational Socialization: A Review and Future Research Agenda

Lu Yu

Introduction

According to the data obtained from 2005 (Rollag, Parise, et al. 2005), about 25 percent of employees experienced career transition every year. Among them, about 500,000 managers take on new roles each year in the Fortune 500 companies, and managers generally switch to new jobs every two to four years (Bauer 2010). However, half of the senior outside hired fail within 18 months of transition (Smart 2005), and half of the hourly workers leave the jobs within the first 120 days (Krauss and Organizational Psychology 2010). Organizational socialization plays an essential part in retaining the newly hired employees and partly determines an organization's survival. While organizations train and orient newcomer employees to facilitate their adjustment, individual employees also expend time and energy to transition into their new roles successfully. At the organizational level, employers assist and facilitate newcomer employees' socialization process to maintain the status quo; at the individual level, new hires socialize with coworkers and supervisors to transit smoothly between roles and better adjust into the jobs and new work environment. The successful transition and adjustment would, in turn, contribute to higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance levels, and career effectiveness, as well as lowered stress and turnover rate in the long run (Fisher 1985, Ashford and Black 1996, Bauer and Green 1998, Bauer, Morrison, et al. 1998, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007). At the organizational level, effectively integrating new hires into the organization would help build a more productive and engaged workforce.

Though the socialization studies have set foot in occupational socialization in the 1950s (Samuel 1957), the organizational socialization topic was not officially studied as an independent topic until the 1960s. As organizational socialization gains more attention from organizational scholars, perspectives of study transformed from discrete to integrate. To be specific, the early organizational socialization literature mainly focused on the process perspective (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Louis, Posner, et al. 1983), in which the organizational socialization process was often divided into anticipatory, accommodation, and role management stages (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). The anticipatory stage depicts newcomer employees' expectations before they enter the organization; the accommodation stage provides newcomers with the environment in which learning, sensemaking, and adjustment occur; and the role management stage describes the results of learning from the accommodation stage. As an increasing number of organizational socialization literature recognizing the crucial status of the accommodation stage, scholars shift their interests into how newcomers acquire information and adjust their behaviors after organizational entry. Hence, more and more empirical research on organizational socialization started to center on the six sets of socialization tactics being used by organizations to help newcomers gain information and adjust their behaviors at the early socialization stage (Van Maanen and Schein 1979): formal (*vs.* informal), collective (*vs.* individual); sequential (*vs.* random), fixed (*vs.* variable), serial (*vs.* disjunctive), investiture (*vs.* divestiture). Namely, formal (*vs.* informal) and collective (*vs.* individual) tactics are context tactics that describe whether newcomers are separated from others and provided with common learning experiences during the training, orientation, or onboarding process. Sequential (*vs.* random) and fixed (*vs.* variable) tactics are content tactics that outlines whether newcomers are socialized by going through a "lock-step series of adjustment experience" and moved from one task to another following a set timetable

(Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Serial (*vs.* disjunctive) and investiture (*vs.* divestiture) tactics are social tactics that delineate whether the information is acquired from a role model and whether newcomers get to reserve their identities before entering the organization. However, the socialization tactic perspective only provides us with the knowledge of how do newcomers socialize. We still know little about what did they learn during the socialization process. Hence, the content perspective focusing on what is learned during the socialization process started to emerge (Schein 1971, Feldman 1976, Feldman 1981, Fisher 1986, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994). Six diensions of socialization content has been identified: history, language, organizational goals/values, people, performance, proficiency, and politics (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994). By the end of the 1980s, researchers started to integrate the two perspectives and introduced the interactionist perspective of organizational socialization (Jones 1983, Reichers 1987, Griffin, Colella, Goparaju 2000). This perspective emphasizes the interactions between organizational insiders and the newcomers: the organizations train and orient newcomers, and the newcomers proactively adapt to the new organizations at the same time. Since then, various organizational socialization scholars have examined the interactionist perspective from the perspectives of newcomer expectations, newcomer fit, newcomer individual differences, and proactive behaviors (Allen, Eby, et al. 2017). The interactionist perspective not only depicted the interreacting nature of the organizational socialization process but specified that employees within organizations play proactive roles when socializing with others. Hence, starting from the 2000s, individual differences and newcomer proactivity became mainstream socialization research. Researchers tested various contextual and individual antecedents of newcomer proactivity, as well as the indicator of or the adjustment outcomes per se.

Although there have been some review articles trying to consolidate the four major research perspectives of organizational literature (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Fang, Duffy, et al. 2011, Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, et al. 2015), none of them have focused on particular groups of newcomers and their perceived dissimlarity in the organizations. In this essay, I review the organizational socialization studies that have been established till now and aim to provide an integrative model that aggregate the main research perspectives and tap into the unsolved issues. I will start with a review of the definition and theoretical foundations for organizational socialization, followed by a summary of the three major research perspectives: process, content, and interactionist perspective. The integrated model would be presented after reviewing and analyzing the theoretical models in previous review articles. Finally, this essay would also include directions for future research.

Literature Review

This section identifies the theoretical foundation and research perspectives of organizational socialization in chronicle order. To inform our review, searches of the keywords "organizational socialization" were conducted using the Google Scholar search engine. I paid particular attention to articles that displayed interests in consolidating the existing organizational socialization research perspectives.

Definition and Theoretical Foundation

The construct of socialization was first formally defined by Schein (1968). In his study, organizational socialization was defined as 'the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group which

he/she is entering.' This definition implied that socialization is a process of learning that individuals experience as their careers unfold over the job and organizational changes. As organizational socialization studies started to gain scholarly attention, a more accurate definition that narrows the construct was needed. One later refinement of the definition aimed to distinguish socialization and individualization. Namely, socialization reflects organizations' attempts to change employees to be more compatible with the new work environment, while individualization depicts employees' attempts to actively change the organizations to meet their needs and expectations (Kramer and Miller 1999). More recently, the definition of organizational socialization has focused on newcomer employees. For example, Bauer and Erdogan (2010) defined organizational socialization as "a process through which new employees move from being organizational outsiders to becoming organizational insiders." However, Chao (2012) stated that the theoretical roots of organizational socialization emphasize "the efforts at work adjustment on the part of the organizational and individual", hence further refined the definition as "a learning and adjustment process that enables individuals to assume an organizational role that fits both organizational and individual needs". Since the organizational socialization process starts before organizational entry and is likely to continue even after newcomers being accepted as one of the organizational insiders, I further extend the previous definition and theorize organizaional socialization as the dynamic learning and adjustment process through which newcomers assume the role that meets the need of both organization and themselves.

Although the latest research started to examine organizational socialization from innovative theoretical perspectives (e.g., socialization resources theory (Saks and Gruman 2017); social capital theory (Fang, Duffy et al. 2011); human capital theory and human resources architecture theory (Benzinger 2016), etc.), four theories are most used in organizational

socialization research so far: uncertainty reduction theory and the need to belong describe the reasons why newcomer employees need to adapt themselves to the new organizational roles; social exchange theory and social identity theory identify how do employees make sense of and fit into their new roles (Chao 2012).

Uncertainty Reduction Theory

The main idea of uncertainty reduction theory (URT) is that individuals need to take actions to reduce anxiety triggered by the uncertainty in the environment (Berger and Calabrese 1974). The actions being taken can be proactive to anticipate what the opponents would do or appreciate and behave accordingly. On the other side, the actions can also be reactive, so that individuals learn from others' reactions through sensemaking and continuously adapting their behaviors. Being able to accurately interpret what kind of behavior is expected and appropriate for a certain situation would contribute to more effective interaction and lead to better adjustment. In the organizational socialization context, uncertainty is especially salient to newcomer employees. The new environment comes with new policies, new organizational structure, new networks, new resources, etc. Meanwhile, new organizational roles are accompanied by new job requirements and new expectations. To reduce the uncertainty and the resulting anxiety, newcomer employees would be triggered to take actions, either proactively or reactively. For instance, sensemaking is a common reaction when individuals experience ambiguity and uncertainty, as it generates plausible retrospective meanings of situations based on the environmental cues (Weick 1995, Thiry 2001, Ancona 2005, Hoogstra 2008, Maitlis and Sonenshein 2010, Maitlis and Christianson 2014). For example, Maitlis and Sonenshein (2010) and Maitlis and Christianson (2014) proposed that sensemaking is especially common during organizational change, learning, creativity, and

innovation due to the unforeseen nature of the environmental jolts, organizational crises, and threats to identity. Also, Louis (1980) proposed that when newcomers experience contrast and surprise of the change in their roles, they tend to engage in sensemaking based on others' interpretation, local interpretation schemes, their past experiences, and predispositions and purposes. In turn, this would influence their behavioral response to the situation and alter the expectation and view of settings. The positive relationship between sensemaking and newcomers' desire for control and a series of proximal adjustment outcomes (e.g., job performance, job satisfaction, domain knowledge) received empirical support from Ashford and Black (1996) as well. On the other hand, Ashforth and Fugate (2001) found that newcomers tend to actively seek social validation and support from their supervisors and coworkers to reduce the uncertainty about their competence and acceptance (Felson 1992). On the other side, the unavailability of social agencies and uncertainty would reduce newcomers' likelihood of proactively socializing with organizational insiders, and eventually negatively influence their adjustment outcomes (Walsh, Ashford, et al. 1985). Mignerey, Rubin, et al. (1995) also tested the uncertainty model or organizational assimilation and found that newcomers' information- and feedback-seeking behaviors will result in higher attributional confidence and lower role ambiguity. In other words, individuals can either adjust their behaviors by making sense of the surroundings or proactively establish relationships with coworkers or supervisors and gain information from them. As the information and feedback about the new organization accumulate, uncertainty and the accompanying anxiety would be reduced. Uncertainty reduction theory has been used profoundly in organizational socialization literature and are found to be related to a series of proximal and distal adjustment outcomes (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Ashforth and Saks 1996, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Allen 2006, Bauer, Bodner et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev

et al. 2007, Chao 2012). For example, Mignerey, Rubin, et al. (1995) tested an uncertainty model organizational assimilation, which including both employees' attempt to adapt their behaviors to meet the organization's requirements and their endeavor in shaping the environment to meet their needs. In their study, uncertainty reduction was the primary driver for newcomers to actively seek information and feedback from organizational insiders, and eventually contributed to higher attributional confidence and lower role ambiguity. Likewise, Gruman, Saks et al. (2006), Mignerey, Rubin et al. (1995), and Teboul (1995) found that newcomers found institutional socialization tactics are less problematic in assisting them to search for situational consistency in an uncertain environment, hence are negatively related to role conflict, role ambiguity, and turnover intention, but positively related to newcomers' job satisfaction and commitment. Similar findings have been also made by Louis (1980) and Wanous (1980). Moreover, uncertainty reduction is considered as one of the main triggers for newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors (Dawis and Lofquist 1978, Nicholson 1984, Miller and Jablin 1991, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993, Ashford and Black 1996, Griffin, Colella et al. 2000).

Need to Belong

The theory of the need to belong originates from Maslow's need hierarchy (Maslow 1943), in which the need for belongingness is described as the need to maintain the membership in social groups and interpersonal relationships to share resources and knowledge. Not only could this membership provide priority and support for individuals, but it also protects them from the inferiority of other groups. The need to belong is objectified on newcomer employees' socialization process in two ways. First, with the vital need to gain more information and get familiar with the new work environment, newcomers are driven to have frequent interactions with specific individuals or groups, the acceptance of the groups would facilitate the interaction, and

the perceptions of social acceptance would motivate newcomers to be more proactive in reaching out to targets (Chao 2012). Second, most times, newcomers, after switching to new work environments, need to establish new social networks for the sake of information seeking and knowledge sharing. The more ties they build within the new organization, the higher their organizational commitment (Feeley, Moon, et al. 2010). Besides, individuals' intense need to belong to an organization would promote their identification with the organizations, resulting in their frequency and quality of social exchange(Chao 2012). Hence, agreeing with Chao (2012), the need to belong is a theoretical foundation for social exchange theory and social identity theory. The organizational socialization literature generally uses newcomers' need to belong to predict the formation of organizational identity (Pratt 1998), proactive socialization behaviors (Baumeister and Leary 1995, Moreland and Levine 2001, Chang, Chang, et al. 2009, Wanberg 2012, Pike 2014, Nifadkar and Bauer 2016), job satisfaction (Riordan and Griffeth 1995), task-related outcomes (Taormina and Law 2000, Nifadkar and Bauer 2016), organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen 1991, Riordan and Griffeth 1995, Zangaro 2001, Wanberg 2012), perception of person-organization fit (Pike 2014), and turnover intention (Riordan and Griffeth 1995).

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange can occur between individuals or organizations, with the individual being identified by an actual person or by structural positions, and the goods being traded can be material or non-material. The exchange process rules range from formal negotiations to the informal reciprocity rules (Maslow 1943). The social exchange process is dynamic: the past exchange experience could influence the quality of the current and future exchange experience. If the past exchange experience were negative, then the current social exchange would unlikely to be positive;

and the current experience would impact the future social exchange in the same way (Homans 1958). Does the social exchange experience influence the related exchanges not only vertically but also horizontally. In other words, the exchange experience relating to the actors in the focal exchange could be affected by the focal exchange experience. Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Emerson 1976) has shed light on the organizational socialization study. First of all, the reciprocity rules explain how rewarding social exchange is established between employee and supervisor or between employees and organizations. By meeting employees' expectations and providing organizational or supervisor support, organizations could expect to see a higher level of job performance and organizational engagement from employees. Furthermore, other than the direct social exchanges in which valued goods are traded between the two actors, Molm (2001) also suggested that more than two actors can be involved within the indirect social exchanges, and the valued resources could be traded among the multiple actors. Applied to organizational socialization studies, newcomers could either formally negotiate or informally exchange the information or valuable resources with organizations and other employees. The exchange process could involve multiple actors within a team, which would, in turn, contribute to the performance of the team. As I stated earlier, being driven by the need to belong and the urge to reduce the uncertainty in the environment, newcomers would engage in more social exchanges. As the information obtained from the exchange process grows, the newcomers' level of uncertainty decreases, and the sense of belonging becomes more potent than before. Their level of job performance and affective commitment are expected to be higher than before as a result. Existing organizational socialization theory used social exchange theory to examine the roles that relationship building and social support play in newcomers' learning of job-related tasks and social norms of the organization (Morrison 1996, Taormina 1997, Korte 2009, Korte 2010), the

relationship between social exchanges and newcomer performance, organizational commitment and turnover, proactive socialization behaviors, role clarity and the establishment of trust relationships (Chen and Klimoski 2003, Bauer, Erdogan, et al. 2006, Cousins, Handfield et al. 2006, Jokisaari and Nurmi 2009, Kramer and Kramer 2010, Chaudhuri and Ghosh 2012, Allen and Shanock 2013, Lapointe, Vandenberghe, et al. 2014), the effectiveness of various types of support on newcomers' satisfaction with organizational insiders, jobs, and perceived career success (Ensher, Thomas, et al. 2001, Toh and DeNisi 2007, Thomas and Lankau 2009, Baranik, Roling, et al. 2010).

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory (SIT)(Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979) builds on the idea that individuals categorize themselves into different groups based on a series of characteristics and generate social identities based on the shared similarities with other group members. The in-group members are considered different from the out-group members, and they enjoy the priority in terms of social support and knowledge sharing within the group. The SIT assumes that individuals are motivated to establish a positive self-image to enhance self-esteem (Hogg and Terry 2001). When the social groups are considered disadvantaged, individuals will switch to more advantageous groups to boost their self-image by identifying with the more favorable group (Tajfel 1981). In addition to the self-image motive, uncertainty reduction serves as another strong motivation for self-categorization (Hogg and Terry 2000). Individuals seek membership in particular social groups to have frequent interaction with in-group members and get easier access to information and knowledge than out-group members (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979). This mechanism is especially relatable to newcomers' socialization: when newcomers enter the new organization, other than the

organizational identities assigned to them, they tend to establish social identities for self-enhancing and uncertainty reduction purposes (Hogg and Terry 2001). The positive self-images resembling the organization's image would help them to obtain acceptance by the new group. In contrast, the increased opportunities of interaction with other group members and easy access to the information would help them learn the norms and knowledge in a more efficient way, therefore better adjusting to the new job and the new work environment (Hogg and Terry 2001). Moreover, individuals who strongly identify with the organization could have higher levels of organizational commitment, resulting in better absorption of the organizational culture and values. The knowledge about organizational culture and values would, in turn, benefit the effectiveness of socialization (Hogg and Terry 2001). The organizational socialization literature used SIT to compare the effect of different levels of institutionalized socialization tactics on newcomers' adjustment (Levine and Moreland 1999, Hogg and Terry 2001), the differences between organizational socialization and workgroup socialization (Gregory 1983, Rentsch 1990, Fulk 1993, Hogg and Terry 2001), examined how identifying with the organization images affect newcomers' patterns of social interaction and role expectation (Dutton, Dukerich et al. 1994, Brickson 2007, Chao 2007, Verbos, Gerard et al. 2007, Ashforth, Harrison et al. 2008, Perry and Vandenabeele 2008, Scott and Myers 2010, Hogg and Terry 2014), the promoting effect of institutionalized socialization tactics on organizational identification (Rafaeli and Pratt 1993, Pratt 1998, Turner et al. 1994(Chao 2007, Korte 2009)), and the effect on newcomers adjustment and commitment (Hogg, Terry, et al. 1995, Ashforth and Saks 1996).

All in all, the four theories discussed above are interconnected in the theoretical roots but serve different purposes in rationalizing the organizational socialization process. Namely, uncertainty reduction theory identifies newcomers' need to reduce uncertainty within the new

organization. In order to do so, they seek memberships in social groups so that they obtain support and a sense of belonging (need to belong), and advanced access to information and knowledge (social identity theory). Social exchange theory explains how relationships are established from a series of social exchanges and depicts that the socialization process is expedited during the proactive social exchange, and newcomer employees would gain more opportunities to access the information and feedback from others and make sense of the new organizational role.

Perspectives of Research

In the following section, I identify four major themes that characterize the work in the area of organizational socialization: the stage model, the organizational socialization tactics, socialization content, and the interactionist perspective (Allen, Eby, et al. 2017).

The Stage Model

Most studies that adopted the stage model followed Feldman's (1976) study and divided the socialization process into three stages: (a) the anticipatory stage, (b) the accommodation stage, and (c) the role management stage. As individuals start a new job in a new department or organization, they are expected to go through the three main stages consecutively. To start with, the anticipatory stage describes the process in which individuals develop expectations about the new jobs/ organizations before they enter the new job, organization, or work environment. The expectation could be shaped by formal training such as stimulation or informal guidance from mentors, family, and friends who have experience with the job/organization, or colleagues who could act as the interface between the newcomers and the organization. During the anticipatory stage, not only do individuals prepare themselves for particular positions but actively look for an

organizational position that matches their expectations. Based on the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider 1987), individuals are attracted to people and organizations with similar values. Hence, when individuals perceive the similarity between themselves and their future employers and colleagues, they would be more willing to select the organization. However, the inadequate or inaccurate information gained before entering the job could lead to discongruity between the expectation and reality. To fix this problem, besides organizations providing realistic job previews during the selection process, individuals need to make sense of the new role during the accommodation stage. Due to the lack of information, newcomers' socialization behaviors during the anticipatory stage tend to relate to information seeking, such as job search, asking questions about the organization from explicit sources, reading the organizations' media accounts and organizational self-portrayals, etc. (Zheng, Wu et al. 2016).

The accommodation stage encompasses the learning and sensemaking, as well as the major adjustments that occurred after newcomers just entered the organization. The expectations that newcomers formed during the anticipatory stage are often vague and distant from the reality in the new work environment. Hence the major part of learning and sensemaking would take place during this stage. The goal of learning includes mastering the new work tasks, getting familiar with the social norms (so it can be used to contextualize potentially ambiguous information), and adapting to the new roles. The learning process can be affected by previous work experiences so that newcomers with more diverse training and work experiences tend to be more flexible when adjusting to their new roles (Brett 1984). In other words, the more unique the current work role is, the higher the learning demands are placed on newcomers (Louis 1980). However, Ashforth and Fugate (2001) found that only when the previous experiences are significantly different from the current work environment, newcomers are stimulated to learn the most. When the previous

experience is similar to the current work environment, past learning would be readily available to the current situation. Whereas when the previous experiences are moderately similar to the current work environment, the newcomers are likely to misapply the past experiences. When the accommodating stage experiences deviate significantly from newcomers' expectations, newcomers are likely to experience low job satisfaction and ultimately turnover.

On the contrary, met expectations could lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and are more likely to stay (Premack and Wanous 1985, Wanous 1992, Major, Kozlowski, et al. 1995). The goal of the sensemaking process is to understand if newcomers fit with the organizations at this point, and whether they could fit with the organizations in the future. Since the selection and socialization are the two major approaches that organizations use to shape newcomers' behaviors and help them to fit with the organizational value, it is expected that a good person-organization fit would lead to positive results for newcomers such as job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (Kristof-Brown and Guay 2011). The organizational socialization during the accommodation stage is always associated with newcomer's proximal outcomes such as role clarity, person-organization fit, identification, etc., which serve the purpose of reducing the level of uncertainty and improving the sense of belonging (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Chao 2012).

As the last stage in the stage model of socialization, the role management stage depicts the "fine-tuning" needed and the added responsibilities expected by the incumbent employees. A deeper level of learning and social integration occurs in this stage, as the full-fledged organizational members stop treating individuals as newcomers. Individuals' perceptions about the organization might change, and interpersonal and task conflict start to appear. Though the transition to the full-fledged organization members may take a long time after entry, individuals

may start to build psychological contact with the organization during the role management stage and signify their commitment to the organization and willingness to stay. The role management stage, as the last stage in the organizational socialization process, often predicts distal outcomes of an individual such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, role orientation, and performance, etc., which describe the attitudes and behaviors after individuals stabilized in the organization (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Chao 2012, Chakrabarti and Banerjee 2014).

The stage model has been largely treated as a contextual factor in which different socialization behaviors and tactics are adopted, and adjustment outcomes such as newcomer proactivity, job satisfaction, stress, job performance, commitment, and turnover intentions are tested (Buchanan 1974, Feldman 1976, Gould and Hawkins 1978, Katz 1978, Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Louis 1980, Bennett 1984, Wanous, Reichers, et al. 1984, Jones 1986, Nelson 1987, Reichers 1987, Blau 1988, Kelley, Skinner, et al. 1992, Allen 2006). For example, Allen (2006) examined the effect of different socialization tactics on adjustment outcomes such as embeddedness and turnover in different socialization stages; Louis (1980), although with a strong emphasis on the accommodation stage, described the sensemaking cycle in general socialization stages; and Wanous, Reichers et al. (1984) compared the stage model with group development and offered directions for future research in both areas. However, most organizational socialization studies are conducted within specific stages, rather than incorporating all three stages as a whole. Among these studies, with few exceptions (Brief, Van Sell et al. 1979, Holton III and Russell 1997, Carr, Pearson, et al. 2006, Hurtado, Newman, et al. 2010, Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, et al. 2015, Zheng, Wu et al. 2016, van der Werff and Buckley 2017), most of the organizational socialization

literature focused on the accommodation and role management stage, while anticipatory stage received little attention.

The stage model has implied that organization socialization should be viewed as a process in which newcomers go through the anticipatory, accommodation, and role management stage in succession. However, the stage model was criticized for solely 'focusing on the sequence of what occurs during socialization, yet paid relatively little attention on how those changes occur' (Bauer, Morrison, et al. 1998). Hence, though the stage model could provide some theoretical rationale for the causal relationship between socialization behaviors and outcomes, and methodological rationale for the data collection periods, it should not be considered a real "process" model (Bauer, Morrison, et al. 1998, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Therefore, socialization researchers changed their direction to studying how learning experiences in the early socialization stage influence the learning in later ones, leading to the development of studies about socialization tactics and newcomer proactivity.

Organizational Socialization Tactics

The most widely used taxonomy of organizational socialization tactics classifies the set of tactics that organizations might use when socializing newcomer employees into six categories (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). Each of the six tactics is depicted on a continuum, including the context tactics such as (a) formal (vs. informal), and (b) collective (vs. individual); content tactics such as (c) sequential (vs. random), and (d) fixed (vs. variable); as well as social tactics such as (e) serial (vs. disjunctive), and (f) investiture (vs. divestiture). To start with, the context tactics describe how organizations provide information to newcomers. To be specific, the formal (vs. informal) socialization tactics delineate whether newcomer employees are separated by providing

formal training and orientation activities; with formal tactics segregate newcomers from full-fledged employees, while informal tactics make little separation. The collective (vs. individual) tactics outline whether newcomers are socialized by grouping them together and offering them common learning experiences. The collective tactics process individuals in a group, while individual tactics provide more customized learning experiences. Next, the content tactics are regarding the content of information that newcomers learned during socialization (Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). Namely, sequential (vs. random) tactics portrays whether newcomers are socialized by having newcomers go through a specific order of assignments or positions so that they would have a 'lock-step series of adjustment experiences' (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Sequential tactics emphasize the necessity of going through each task following a particular sequence before newcomers are accepted as members, while random tactics do not value the sequence as much. The fixed (vs. variable) tactics characterizes whether newcomers are moved from one assignment to another following a set timetable. Fixed tactics specify the distinct timetable, while variable tactics use a somewhat ambiguous timetable. In this sense, fixed tactics could also hint at the maximum time for newcomers to be accepted by the organization as members. On the contrary, since the variable tactics do not set deadlines for each task, I could not reckon the time frame for newcomers' acceptance. Lastly, the social tactics could is considered the most critical predictor of adjustment since 'they provide the social cues and facilitation necessary during learning processes' (Jones 1986, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). Specifically, the serial (vs. disjunctive) tactic describes whether the information is learned from a role model such as a mentor, a supervisor, or an experienced coworker. Serial tactics provide role models, while disjunctive tactics require newcomers to learn independently, most likely due to the lack of available exemplars for the role. Finally, the investiture (vs. divestiture) tactics specify whether the newcomers' incoming identities,

capabilities, and attributes are affirmed. Investiture tactics embrace diversity, while divestiture tactics seek to disconfirm the preexisting personal identity and make the newcomers conform with the existing organizational identity.

Jones (1986) further divided the six set of organizational social tactics into two categories: the collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics are classified into the institutionalized tactics category, and the individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics are classified into the individualized tactics category. The institutionalized tactics socialize newcomers through a more structured and formalized process. They are most likely associated with the content, innovative role innovation, in which changes or improvements are attempted on the basis of existing knowledge, and newcomers are likely to comply with the existing organizational image without challenging the current status quo. In contrast, the individualized tactics reflect a lack of the systematical structure. They are associated with a role innovation orientation, in which newcomers are encouraged to initiate more radical changes on the given roles and would disrupt the present state of affairs (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Ashforth, Saks et al. 1997, Griffin, Colella, et al. 2000, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007, Chao 2012). Due to the nature of advocating the passive reception of the systematical, readily available information, institutionalized tactics are expected to reduce the uncertainty inherent in early work experiences. Contrarily, individualized socialization tactics may increase the uncertainty and the resulting anxiety due to the absence of structure in the early learning process (Jones 1986, Ashforth, Saks, et al. 1997). In line with this logic, the existing literature that examined the relationship between socialization tactics and individual outcomers have found that institutionalized tactics are positively related to job satisfaction, task mastery, organizational commitment and person-organization fit, social integration, job embeddedness, organizational-based self-esteem (Anakwe

and Greenhaus 1999, Cable and Parsons 2001, Riordan, Weatherly et al. 2001, Cooper-Thomas, Van Vianen et al. 2004, Kim, Cable et al. 2005, Allen 2006, Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev et al. 2007), and negatively related to role ambiguity, role conflict, psychological contract violation and turnover (intention) (Robinson and Wolfe Morrison 2000, Allen 2006, Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev et al. 2007). It is worth noting that in Riordan, Weatherly et al.'s (2001) study, collective/institutionalized tactics were found to have a backlash effect on newcomer turnover—possibly because of the insufficient group training about the necessary skills and abilities for specific positions or the social influence of the high turnover rate of some particular type of positions. On the other hand, individualized tactics were found to have opposite effects on the above outcomes and positively associated with role innovation (Jones 1986, Allen and Meyer 1990, Mignerey, Rubin, et al. 1995, Ashford and Black 1996).

However, as Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) stated, socialization tactics only reflect a process, not particular contents—how people learn would not necessarily directly influence what they learn (Chao 2012). Responding to the call of Bauer, Morrison, et al. (1998) and Saks and Ashforth (1997), organizational socialization scholars turned their research direction to the investigation into the link between socialization tactics and learning and started to measure socialization content directly.

Socialization Content

One critical task for newcomers during the socialization process is learning. The content of learning could range from the organizations' norms and values to the tasks and the associating roles for individuals. Making sense of what newcomers learned during the socialization process

would influence several proximal outcomes such as role clarity, person-organizational fit, identification, and distal outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance (Saks and Ashforth 1997). As Ashforth claimed, the content of learning is not less important than the process.

Among all the measurement of socialization content, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly et al.'s (1994) scale has been the most widely used one (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner et al. 2007, Klein and Heuser 2008, Chao 2012). It identified six socialization dimensions: history (with the emphasis on the organization's traditions and customs as well as the background of a workgroup), language (the professional terminology and the organization-specific acronyms – the jargon), organizational goals/values (the principals and the goals that guide the organization), people (how to build satisfying work relationships with people the newcomers work with), performance proficiency (expectations and requirements for successfully performing the current job), and politics (both formal and informal work relationships and the power structures within the organization), and all of them are associated with socialization outcomes. For example, (certain domains of) socialization contents have been associated with distal outcomes such as higher job satisfaction (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Taormina 1994, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2002, Haueter, Macan et al. 2003, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2005, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), organizational commitment (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Taormina 1994, Klein and Weaver 2000, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2002, Haueter, Macan, et al. 2003, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), social integration (Chan and Schmitt 2000, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003), performance proficiency (Chan and Schmitt 2000, Reio Jr and Wiswell 2000, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003), career success (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994), adaptability (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994), and lower

turnover intention (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2002, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2005). Also, the socialization contents could predict proximal outcomes such as reduced role clarity (Chan and Schmitt 2000, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), role ambiguity (Hart and Miller 2005), work withdrawal (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003) and stress (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992). As the 'heart of any organizational socialization model' (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson 2005, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007), learning of socialization content was also found to mediate the relationships between early socialization experiences (and individual differences) and later outcomes. For instance, learning (if not all domains) was found to mediate the relationship between organizational and individual socialization tactics and outcomes such as the cohesion and trust within the workgroup (Atzori, Lombardi, et al. 2008), role ambiguity (Hart and Miller 2005, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), role affective organizational commitment (Klein and Weaver 2000, Wesson and Gogus 2005, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), job satisfaction (Wesson and Gogus 2005, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), stress (McManus & Russell 1999) and work withdrawal (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003).

The content of learning can be classified into three directions according to Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007): the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities to learn how to perform a job successfully (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993, Taormina 1994, Thomas and Anderson 1998, Haueter, Macan, et al. 2003, Myers and Oetzel 2003, Chao 2012); the general adjustment, so that newcomers would understand how to work in a particular group (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Taormina 1994, Taormina 1997, Myers and Oetzel 2003); and the organization, including organizational structure, the culture and value, and the practical support from various sources during the socialization processes, etc. (Taormina 1994, Taormina 1997, Myers and Oetzel 2003).

Allen, Eby, et al. (2017) later added the learning of themselves as newcomers progress in career as another direction of socialization content, which is likely to occur in the later stages of socialization (Taormina 1994). Fisher (1986) and Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) suggested conceptualizing the socialization content as newcomer learning, which is the first domain listed above, regarding 'what is actually learned during socialization' (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994) since the other domains overlap with the inputs to newcomer learning (e.g., the supervisor, coworker and organizational support, political skills, and socialization tactics) and the outcome of learning (e.g., general adjustment and self-awareness). In the effort of developing an integrated model that encompasses and consolidates all the major historical perspectives of socialization research, I agree with their suggestion of equaling socialization content to newcomer learning—the technical information, performance expectations, boundaries and responsibilities of the role, etc.—aka the information that is 'actually learned during socialization'.

In addition to narrowing the definition of socialization content, other scholars (Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Klein and Heuser 2008, Chao 2012) also suggested that the effect of different antecedents should be reflected on the job, group, and organizational levels of newcomer learning. For example, the effect of serial socialization tactics (e.g., role model and mentorship) was found reflected on all three levels of learning (Haueter, Macan, et al. 2003), and the information obtained from the mentor could also be generalized to the learning about the organization (Sluss & Ashforth 2005). Hence, it was suggested that to measure the socialization content at different levels within the organization and at different times during the socialization process, so we could have a thorough understanding of not only what is learned, but also where and when the learning occurred (Klein and Heuser 2008).

The Interactionist Perspective

Even though newcomers are provided with guidance and support from the organization, they would still be surprised and shock upon organizational entry (Louis 1980). Throughout the sensemaking process in which newcomers come to understand the organizational realities and establish situational identities, especially when organizations are using the individualized socialization tactics, newcomers tend to believe that they receive less information from the socialization agents than they actually need and feel the need for additional information and resources that are not provided by the organization (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). To explore situations like this, researchers introduced the interactionist perspective of organizational socialization (Reichers 1987). The primary idea of the interactionist perspective describes the symbolic verbal and social interactions between newcomers and organizational insiders during the socialization process. It emphasizes the shared understanding of the two parties, rather than solely concentrating on what the organizations provide to newcomers or newcomers' experiences. Building on the interactionist perspective, socialization studies turned its focus into newcomers' proactive information-seeking behaviors. For example, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) studied how information could be obtained initiatively and how this impacts their knowledge acquisition. Also, Miller and Jablin (1991) called attention to newcomer information behavior by analyzing several of its influencing factors and proposing a series of tactics to use during the proactive socialization process.

Similarly, Morrison (1993) examined the effects of information seeking on newcomer socialization and found that proactive information-seeking behavior could facilitate the socialization process and positively affect several vital indicators of adjustments. This information-seeking behavior literature suggests that in addition to passively receiving what the

organizations have to offer, the newcomers could seek different types of information from different sources proactively. The organizational insiders play a crucial role in their socialization process. Based on these findings, Ashford and Black (1996) further extended the works by including more proactive newcomer socialization behaviors into their taxonomy. These additional proactive behaviors are feedback-seeking behavior that could inform newcomers how others view them in the organization. Relationship building, general socializing, and networking behaviors help newcomers to build friendship networks and obtain social support with coworkers, supervisors, and interdepartmental colleagues, so that they could acquire appropriate skills and role behaviors and have a sense of the organizational policies and procedures (Reichers 1987, Morrison 1993). Job-change negotiating attempts to alternate the environment or the roles to create a sense of behavioral control. Positive framing behaviors provide newcomers with a sense of self-control or self-management and boost their self-confidence and self-efficacy during organizational entry. It is clear that in addition to the widely-accepted uncertainty reduction perspective, Ashford and Black (1996) also introduced the desire for control as a new driver for newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors. Also, being aligned with the interactionist perspective, these proactive socialization behaviors could either change the environment and the newcomers' roles so they would better fit the individuals, or change newcomer themselves to adapt to the new environment, or could result in the mutual development of both parties (Cooper-Thomas and Burke 2012).

With the growing interest in exploring topics regarding newcomer proactive behaviors, many socialization researchers turned their focus to the antecedents and consequences of newcomer proactivity. The antecedents of newcomer proactivity can be divided into two major categories: the individual antecedents emphasize the individual differences that can predict the different level of newcomer proactivity, including proactive personality, desire for control,

extraversion, openness to experience, and self-efficacy (Teboul 1995, Ashford and Black 1996, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, Finkelstein, Kulas, et al. 2003, De Vos, Buyens, et al. 2005, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007); while in the contextual antecedents of proactivity category, it has been found that institutionalized socialization tactics, task interdependence, and supervisor and coworker support are positively related to various proactive activities, especially information and feedback-seeking (Feij, Whitely, et al. 1995, Mignerey, Rubin, et al. 1995, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Zheng, Wu et al. 2016). Though it has not been empirically tested, the organizational culture was proposed to be a potential contextual antecedent that would influence the intensity and type of proactive behaviors in several qualitative studies (Myers 2005, Scott and Myers 2005, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007).

Also, two typologies of outcomes are identified as the consequences of newcomer proactivity. The proximal outcomes are the consequences that can be directly influenced by the proactive behaviors, including increased task mastery (Morrison 1993), role clarity (Jones 1986, Morrison 1993, Holder 1996), internal motivation (Ashforth and Saks 1996), as well as decreased stress (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992) and task-specific anxiety (Saks and Ashforth 1996), etc. In comparison, the distal outcomes are the outcomes that sometimes can be influenced by factors other than newcomer proactivity and can sometimes be predicted by the proximal outcomes, such as acculturation (Morrison 1993), social integration (Morrison 1993), job satisfaction (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993, Ashford and Black 1996), organizational commitment (Jones 1986, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992), job performance (Jones 1986, Morrison 1993, Ashford and Black 1996), adjustment (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992), intention to quit (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993) and a custodial role orientation (Allen and Meyer 1990, Black 1992, Ashford and Black 1996, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2006). In addition to adapting oneself to adjust to

the new environment and meet the role expectations, newcomers could also actively mold their jobs and roles to fit themselves and their jobs and organizations better. Hence, as a result of a series of proactive behaviors, role innovation could be expected when newcomers are confronted with the increasing needs for flexibility and empowerment. Role innovation can occur through autonomously altering the way that certain tasks are performed, or through negotiating the potential changes in roles or jobs with coworkers and supervisors. Previous research (Nicholson 1984, Staw and Boettger 1990, Ashforth and Fugate 2001, Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007) that examined role innovation and newcomers suggest that: a) role innovation, as an adjustment strategy by which newcomers can proactively change the role requirements so it will better matches their own needs, abilities, and identities, is different from personal development, in which individuals change their values and identity-related attributes to meet the role expectations. Also, work adjustment is only weakly related to role innovation—the adjustment may reflect little, or both, or different degrees of personal and role development; b) although role innovation is proactive by nature, it may emerge unintentionally. The more individualized the organizational socialization tactics are, the more flexibility and empowerment are left for newcomers' roles, and the more likely that role innovation will emerge; c) role innovation may not always benefit the organization--even though newcomers aim to develop their roles out of the organization's benefits. They may not have adequate, accurate information, resources, or ability to reconstruct the requirements for the new role.

The interactionist perspective of socialization research, with a heavy emphasis on newcomer proactivity, is primarily focused on the accommodation and socialization stages of the socialization. However, little attention has been paid to the anticipatory stage of organizational socialization. Also, as the interactionist perspective values not only what newcomers could do to

meet organizations' needs but also how could organizations meet the needs of newcomers, numerous studies tested the effect of contextual factors such as coworker and supervisor support, organizational socialization tactics, and HR practices on newcomers' adjust outcomes such as job satisfaction, role clarity, role conflict, role orientation, job performance, embeddedness, and turnover intention, and so forth (Madzar 1995, Vancouver and Morrison 1995, Williams, Miller, et al. 1999, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Levy, Cober, et al. 2002, Ashford, Blatt, et al. 2003, De Stobbeleir, Ashford, et al. 2011, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). However, few articles included the role that diversity climate and individual characteristics such as cultural intelligence (CQ) in domestic socialization research (Johnston and Packer 1987, Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992).

The Integrative Model

This section proposes an integrative model that incorporates all four research perspectives of organizational socialization, emphasizing the US's diverse workforce. The contemporary organizational socialization studies regarding the diverse workforce in the US are mostly concerning the general socialization which includes, but not exclusively focuses on newcomers' socialization processes within the organization (except Buono and Kamm 1983, Johnston, Stone, et al. 1992, Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992, Allen 1996, Malik, Cooper-Thomas, et al. 2014). With the North American workforce becoming inevitably more diverse, I believe it is crucial to involve newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and the diverse organizational climate into socialization models.

To start with, it has received empirical support that during the anticipatory stage, newcomers' individual differences would predict their information-seeking behaviors (Teboul 1995, Ashford and Black 1996, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, Finkelstein, Kulas, et al. 2003, De Vos, Buyens, et al. 2005, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). With the focus on dissimilar

newcomers, I propose that newcomers' perceived dissimilarity status and cultural intelligence (CQ) would be two critical individual characteristics that predict the engagement of their information-seeking behaviors during the anticipatory stage. Newcomers who perceive to be dissimilar from the majority in the organization face greater uncertainty about their roles and future work environment, especially when access to information is limited. Higher cultural intelligence would enable them to learn more about the different cultures and make appropriate interpretations and reactions about the verbal and nonverbal cues in the environment (Earley and Ang 2003, Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007, Ang and Van Dyne 2008, Van Dyne, Ang, et al. 2009). Higher CQ is not only a desired personal characteristic that could promote dissimilar newcomers' information-seeking behavior during the anticipatory socialization stage but an essential attribute to the newcomers who do not perceive to be dissimilar from others. The norms and expectations in the new environment are like a new culture for all newcomers. Acknowledging the organization's normative standards and policies and being willing to embrace and take actions to assimilate into the new culture will help everyone adjust. Also, since the organizational socialization process is on an on-going basis—individuals need to continually adapt their behavior or make changes in the settings, significantly or slightly, to meet the needs of organizations and make the work settings meet their needs. Hence, I propose that the effect of CQ would last throughout the entire socialization process.

Besides the individual difference, I propose that diversity, as an underreached contextual factor in organizational socialization literature, would play a role in all three socialization stages. For newcomers who perceive to be dissimilar, the degree of inclusiveness could be one great concern when developing expectations about the organization and inferring the possible person-organizational fit. Even though they might not have opportunities to get adequate information

about the diversity climate in the organization, the first impression could be based on whether they see other dissimilar employees present (McKay, Avery, et al. 2007, McKay, Avery, et al. 2008, Pugh, Dietz, et al. 2008). Since the anticipatory socialization stage occurs before the official organizational entry, I propose that newcomers' perceptions of diverse organizational climate could be reflected on the corporate representatives that keep in touch with them—the interviewers and managers' background, inclusiveness, and professionalism could be interpreted as a signal of the organization's diversity climate and therefore influence newcomers' expectations about the organization. During the accommodation stage, newcomers enter the organization and start to interact with the organizational insiders. They might experience reality shock due to the discrepancy between their expectations and the organization's real situation (Louis 1980). Their perception of the diverse organizational climate would change as they gain more information than the anticipatory stage. In addition, I suggest that the perceived diversity climate also plays an active role in the accommodation stage. Since the diversity climate represents how inclusive the organization is, how fair dissimilar employees would be treated comparing with others, how well does the organization do in acknowledging and incorporating different views, and whether the work environment is safe and comfortable enough for frequent communication and social exchanges to occur between all social groups (Mor-Barak and Cherin 1998, Ernst Kossek, Markel, et al. 2003, McKay, Avery, et al. 2007, Pugh, Dietz, et al. 2008), this kind of supportive and safe environment would reduce newcomers' concerns about their image, effort, and inference costs and encourage their engagement in proactive socialization behaviors (Ashford 1986, Morrison and Vancouver 2000, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Park, Schmidt, et al. 2007, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015).

Following the same logic, the support that newcomers receive from coworkers, supervisors, and organizations should also neutralize their cost concerns and promote their proactivity. The positive effect of support on newcomer proactivity received empirical from a variety of previous studies. For instance, Eisenberger, Huntington et al. (1986), Eisenberger, Fasolo et al. (1990), Ashford, Blatt et al. (2003), De Stobbeleir, Ashford et al. (2011), and Anseel, Beatty et al. (2015) all found that perceived organizational support (POS) have neutralizing effect on newcomers' cost concerns. Also, Madzar (1995), Vancouver and Morrison (1995), Miller and Levy (1997), Williams, Miller et al. (1999), VandeWalle, Ganesan et al. (2000), Levy, Cober et al. (2002), Ashford, Blatt et al. (2003), and Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) found that a supportive context, consists of supportive source, positive peer relations, as well as supervisor's considerate leadership styles, would reduce the perceived costs of proactivity and lead to an increased frequency and intensity of proactive socialization behavior.

Besides the diversity climate and support, I suggest that institutionalized socialization tactics would also influence dissimilar newcomers' socialization. The existing socialization literature has mixed findings of the relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and newcomer proactivity. To be specific, Mignerey, Rubin et al. (1995), Gruman, Saks et al. (2006), and Teboul (1995) found that organizations' adoption of institutionalized tactics is positively related to newcomer proactivity since institutionalized tactics provide newcomers with ready opportunities to learn and reach out to organizational insiders and the structured learning environment makes learning more intense, meanwhile reduce the perceived costs associated with proactive socialization. However, Griffin, Colella et al. (2000) found the relationship negative since newcomers would spend more time interacting with other newcomers within the institutionalized settings, especially when collective tactics are used. In addition, Gruman, Saks et

al. (2006), Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) and Kim, Cable et al. (2005) found that institutionalized tactics are most strongly related to newcomer's adjustment when their proactivity is low, since they might take the former as an easy alternative to proactive socialization. However, Harris, Simons et al. (2004), Myers (2005), and Scott and Myers (2005) suggest that although institutional tactics provide newcomers with systematic training about theoretical knowledge, the knowledge being acquired during training have to be transferred into practical operations in some cases, hence which would require newcomers to actively seek feedback and adjust their behaviors accordingly and establish connections with their experienced coworkers and mentors.

Despite the controversial findings of the relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and newcomer proactivity, I suggest that for dissimilar newcomers, adopting institutionalized tactics would encourage their proactive socialization behaviors. The uncertainties faced by minorities are beyond competencies and acceptance and include the uncertainty about the differences between their and organizational insiders' backgrounds. Due to these background dissimilarities and uncertainties, dissimilar newcomers are forced to proactively socialize with others due to instrumental needs sometimes (Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006). In this case, the institutionalized tactics cannot be used as an alternative to proactive socialization, and information could not be obtained from other newcomers. Therefore, the institutionalized socialization tactics could only provide dissimilar newcomers with a structured learning environment and readily available opportunities to reach out to others, further reducing their concerns about the costs associated with proactive socialization behaviors and boosting their proactivity.

One critical outcome of newcomer proactivity is the amount and content they learned during the accommodation socialization process (Miller and Jablin 1991, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Newcomers are naturally inclined to believe that the content

they learn from the formalized organizational training programs is not adequate to meet their role expectations, hence they would ferret information from organizational insiders through proactive socialization behaviors (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Chao 2012). As newcomers establish friendship networks and gain information and feedback about jobs and behaviors, they tend to acquire more useful knowledge about tasks, workgroups, and organizations (Comer 1991, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Teboul 1995, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003). The antecedent and consequence of newcomer learning are not necessarily located at the same level—socialization activities at the organization or team level could result in learning about people. Interpersonal socialization (e.g., relationship building, mentoring) could also contribute to the overall understanding of the organization (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly et al. 1994, Klein and Weaver 2000, Haueter, Macan, et al. 2003, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007).

After newcomers get settled in the organization, they step into the role management socialization stage. Previous studies have examined a variety of adjustment outcomes at this stage, including job performance, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and role orientation (Bauer, Morrison, et al. 1998, Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). As a relatively newer adjustment construct, job embeddedness is less studied (except Allen 2006, Hom, Tsui, et al. 2009, Allen and Shanock 2013, and Ren, Shaffer et al. 2014). Embeddedness consists of three domains that reflect individuals' '(a) links to other people, teams, and groups; (b) perceptions of their fit with job, organization, and community; and (c) what they say they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs' (Mitchell, Holtom, et al. 2001). I suggest that embeddedness is especially appropriate to reflect the adjustment outcomes of newcomers' socialization process. As newcomers go through the socialization process, they face less uncertainty within the organization

and more restraint when quitting due to their efforts during the transition process (Allen 2006). The friendship network they have built forms as their links to people, the adaptation efforts they made to promote the mutual fit between them and the organization, the established networks, the easy-for-achievement work environment, and adjusted behaviors constitute the sacrifice they need to make when leaving the organization. Hence, during the role management socialization stage, embeddedness reflects the degree of adjustment of newcomers. Also, as the previous embeddedness literature found that with greater the number of links that connect employees with other individuals and activities, the better fit between them and the organizations, and greater the sacrifices associated with quitting, individuals would be more attached to the organization and less likely to leave. (Mitchell, Holtom, et al. 2001, Lee, Mitchell, et al. 2004, Allen 2006, Crossley, Bennett, et al. 2007, Ren, Shaffer, et al. 2014). Hence, it is logical to consider newcomers' turnover intention as the final outcome in the role management stage.

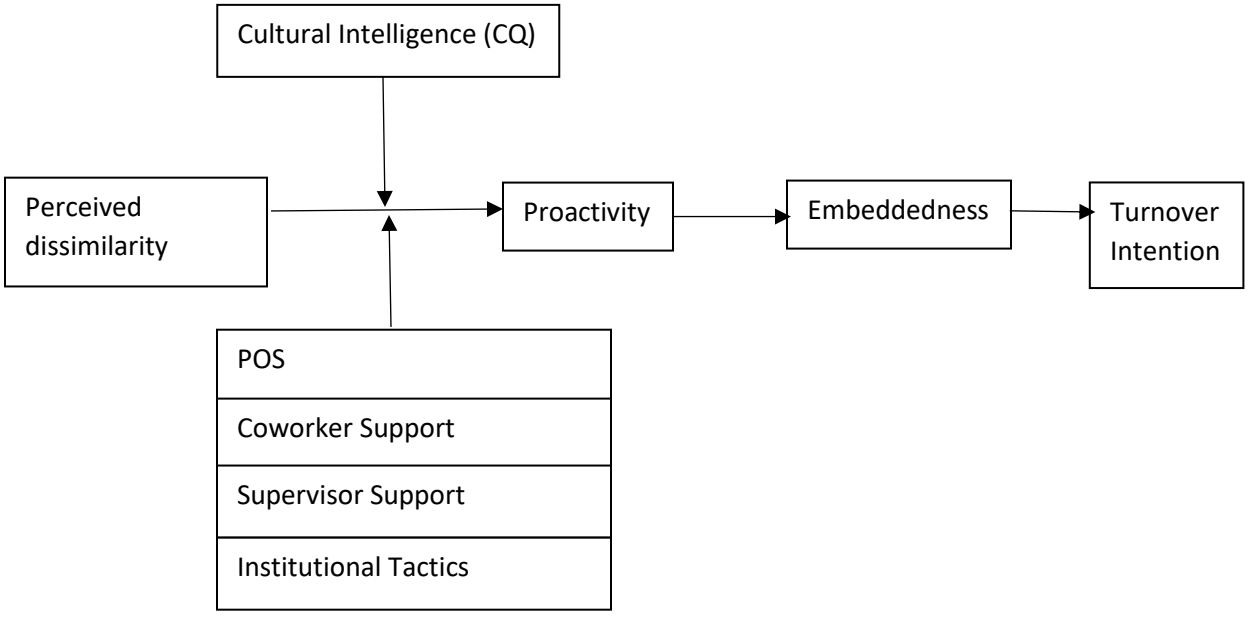

Figure 1.1

Conclusion

This article integrates the four research perspectives of the organizational socialization process and proposes a new theoretical model targeting newcomers who perceive dissimilar from most employees in the organizations. It encompasses all three stages of organizational socialization and depicts a series of individual and contextual factors that particularly pertain to the dissimilar newcomers. For instance, employees with high CQ would have a higher awareness of and motivation to learn about another culture. When newcomers perceive to be dissimilar, their high CQ may guide them to seek information and support from existing employees actively. When the environment is supportive, newcomers would have fewer concerns about the potential costs associated with proactive socialization. This mechanism is especially true for newcomers perceiving dissimilar since they generally have more concerns than others. The supportive organizational climate could mitigate their concerns and encourage proactive socialization behaviors. During the anticipatory stage, newcomers could generate expectations about the organization based on the information they collect prior to the entry. Signals such as public image, corporate representatives, interviewers, and managers could play vital roles in establishing the expectation. In order to gain a more accurate picture of the organization, newcomers would engage in proactive socialization behaviors to seek information. Since the anticipatory stage occurs prior to organizational entry, newcomers make decisions about proactive socialization with the current organizations depending on their knowledge about and willingness to learn about another organizational culture and their first impression about the organization's diversity climate. During the accommodation stage, newcomers start to adjust to the new organization through various socialization behaviors. Their proactivity during socialization is primarily influenced by the individual and contextual factors such as their CQ level and perceived diversity climate, support,

and organizational socialization tactics. Since they would have actual experience in the organization at this stage, contextual factors play a more crucial role in influencing their proactive socialization behaviors than the anticipatory stage. Lastly, during the role management stage, newcomers are most likely adjusted to the organization and would be considered as an organizational insider to a large extent. It would be a good time to capture adjustment outcomes such as their job embeddedness and turnover intention.

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Essay 2: Socialization in the modern age: how do dissimilar newcomer employees socialize prior to the entry of diverse organizations

Lu Yu

This paper is the second essay of the three dissertation essays. In the first essay, I reviewed the organizational socialization literature, summarized the theory background, and listed the four research perspectives of organizational socialization in chronicle order. At the end of the first essay, I provided a brief introduction about the integrative model, which consolidates the four research perspectives and targets the newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from the majority in diversity organizational climate. This paper will focus on the anticipatory stage of dissimilar newcomers' organizational socialization process and individual and contextual antecedents of dissimilar newcomers' proactive socialization behavior prior to the organizational entry. Essay 3 will concentrate on the accommodation and role management stage of dissimilar newcomers' socialization process and test the individual and contextual attributes' predicting effect on their proactive socialization behaviors, as well as the resulting adjustment outcomes.

Introduction

The research regarding newcomer employees' socialization has been evolving since the 1950s, and the research perspectives have become more integrative than ever (Fisher 1986, Bauer, Morrison, et al. 1998, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, et al. 2015). The target groups being studied range from new graduates who just started working full time in the organization to the organizational insiders who had experience with the same organizations before switching to the different departments. Besides, the boundary of newcomer socialization study is not restricted within the domestic labor market—the expatriates management scholars also see those international assignees as newcomers to the international offices to which they are assigned and developed a series of expatriates socialization research (Lee and Larwood 1983, Black 1992, Katz and Seifer 1996, Feldman and Bolino 1999, Toh and DeNisi 2007).

Being aware of the increasing academic interest in the organizational socialization topic, I am surprised to see the lack of research on newcomers' perceived dissimilarity. Most research on dissimilar newcomer employees' socialization concentrates on their general socialization process that includes, but not exclusively emphasizing on the socialization activities within the organization (with the exception of Buono and Kamm 1983, Allen 1996, Malik, Cooper-Thomas, et al. 2014, Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). Similarly, I find that socialization studies seldom focus on the diversity climate within the organization, even though the North American workforce is becoming inevitably more diverse in a variety of ways (Johnston and Packer 1987, Morrison and Von Glinow 1990, Offermann and Gowing 1990, Friedman and DiTomaso 1996, Mannix and Neale 2005). Therefore, my attention is drawn to the newcomers perceiving dissimilar in diverse organizational climates: how do they socialize themselves in the new organization and integrate

into the new environment? What kind of socialization experiences differentiate them from others? To be more specific, do any of these differences occur during the anticipatory stage of socialization?

To answer these questions, in this essay, I propose to examine the interacting effects of perceived diversity climate and the perceived dissimilarity on newcomers' proactive socialization behavior in the anticipatory stage of socialization. I suggest focusing on newcomers' perceived dissimilarity due to the dynamic changes in the North American workforce's composition. The growing diversity in the contemporary workforce leads to greater diversity within organizations, making high perceived dissimilarity an increasingly obtrusive phenomenon. The divergent workforce composition also leads to greater diversity in organizations, urging employers to acknowledge and encourage the differences among employees, establishing a diverse and inclusive organizational climate. The diverse organizational climate should not "just be there", however. The most effective diversity and inclusive policies should be not only available to employees, but practical. Hence, measuring diversity climate from the subjective perspective would be more appropriate for the current theoretical model. I define the perceived dissimilarity as the degree to which individuals perceive themselves to be different from the most others in the organization. I also follow the suggestion of Gelfand, Nishii, et al. (2005) and define the perceived diversity climate as "employees' shared perceptions of the policies, practices, and procedures that implicitly and explicitly communicate the extent to which fostering and maintaining diversity and eliminating discrimination is a priority in the organization" (Gelfand, Nishii, et al. 2005). The two factors are included in this study as the individual and contextual factors that may affect newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors in the anticipatory socialization stage. To be specific, I expect to see newcomers perceiving dissimilar in the organization engage in more proactive socialization behavior before their official organizational entry to reduce their uncertainties and

develop a more accurate expectation about the organization when they detect clues signaling the diverse organizational climate. The diverse organizational climate would provide them with a sense of support and neutralize their concerns about the image, effort, and inference costs associated with the proactive socialization with dissimilar others (Ashford 1986, Morrison and Vancouver 2000, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Park, Schmidt, et al. 2007, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). I also suggest that cultural intelligence (CQ) of newcomer employees would play a critical role in the anticipatory stage of socialization. As the workforce becomes increasingly diverse, high levels of CQ should be required for newcomer employees in both domestic and international settings. CQ is defined as 'the capacity to function effectively in intercultural context' (Earley and Ang 2003, Ang and Van Dyne 2008). I extend this definition and suggest that CQ should be not only about national cultures, but also organizational cultures. Not only are individuals with high CQ interested in learning about other national cultures, they should also be aware of and are motivated to learn about the new organizational culture. Therefore, employees with high levels of CQ would be more aware of the disance between school and workplace cultures and be more willing to embrace and assimilate themselves into the new culture, promoting proactive socialization behavior prior to the entry of the organization.

Conceptual Model [insert figure 1 near here]

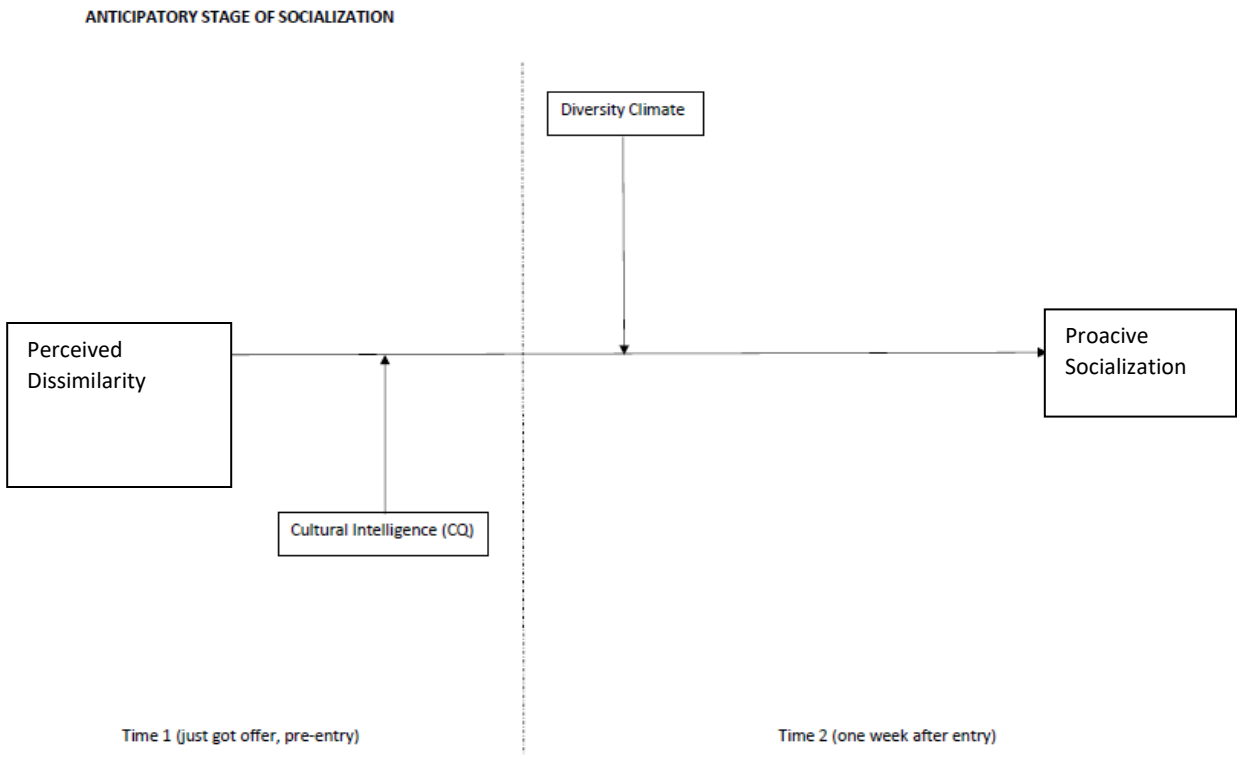


Figure 2.1

This article contributes to the organizational socialization literature in five ways. First of all, I examine the socialization process from the perspectives of newcomers perceiving dissimilar. Different from the previous literature, I specifically focused on the socialization activities that occurred within the organization. Second, I suggest that the perceived diversity climate in organizations does not only serve as the general context in which organizational socialization activities occur, but play a critical role in encouraging proactive socialization behaviors during the anticipatory stage of socialization. In other words, I involve the perceived diversity climate in the theoretical model as a moderating variable that interacts with the individual's perceived dissimilarity and examines its influence on newcomers' proactive socialization behavior. Third, I focus on the anticipatory stage of socialization, which occurs prior to the organizational entry. The

stage model of socialization specified three stages of the socialization process, with anticipatory being the first in chronicle order. The expectation about the organization being developed during this stage would predict a series of socialization behaviors and outcomes in the later stages (Brief, Van Sell et al. 1979, Holton III and Russell 1997, Allen 2006, Carr, Pearson, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Hurtado, Newman, et al. 2010, Zheng, Wu et al. 2016, van der Werff and Buckley 2017). However, socialization scholars generally paid much more attention to the two stages after organizational entry, while the anticipatory stage received little empirical attention (with a few exceptions such as Carr, Pearson et al. 2006, Hurtado, Newman, et al. 2010, Zheng, Wu et al. 2016, van der Werff and Buckley 2017). Finally, I am the first to introduce CQ into domestic organizational socialization studies. CQ is an essential attribute for the newcomers perceiving dissimilarities to adapt to the organization and an equally important characteristic for other newcomers to recognize and adjust to the increasingly diversified organizational climate. I propose that newcomer employees with higher levels of CQ would be more likely to engage in proactive socialization behaviors in the anticipatory stage of socialization.

I start from a literature review about the stage model of socialization, then process to the theoretical background for this article, introducing the main theories being used, the key constructs and hypotheses. I then discuss the findings in the following sections. Theoretical and practical implications are presented at the end.

Theoretical Background

The stage model of socialization

This essay focuses on dissimilar newcomers' socialization activities that occurred prior to their organizational entry. In other words, I am particularly interested in the dissimilar newcomers'

behaviors during the anticipatory stage of socialization. Following Feldman's (1976) taxonomy, newcomers would go through three main socialization stages sequentially: (a) the anticipatory stage, during which individuals accumulate information about the organization and develop expectations based on the information they acquire before the organizational entry; (b) the accommodation stage, in which newcomers go through a series of sensemaking and learning process upon entry, in order to master new tasks, adapt to the new roles and adjust to the new environment; and (c) the role management stage that encompasses all the "fine-tuning" needed after newcomers get stabilized in the organization. Since this study would focus primarily on the anticipatory stage of socialization, I would spend more time introducing the first stage of the organizational socialization process. Namely, individuals seek information about their future employers from different sources during the anticipatory stage and develop expectations about their new roles and organizations based on the information they acquire. The information could be acquired directly through reading the organization's media accounts and the organizational self-portrayals, and inquiring people who had experiences or some knowledge about the organization (Zheng, Wu et al. 2016), or obtained indirectly through observing the "hint" left by the corporate representatives. For example, individuals could learn about the organizations' values and infer their normative standards based on their interaction with the organization's current employees. The image of the contact person from the organization represents the corporate image. Therefore the contact person plays a crucial role in newcomers' socialization process, especially when accurate information about the new organization is inadequate or unavailable. The accuracy of information gathered by individuals during the anticipatory socialization stage is conceptualized as realism, according to Feldman (1976). The expectations developed based on inaccurate or incomplete information are likely to deviate from the real situation. The unexpected organization reality can

hardly meet newcomers' expectations, causing shock and uncertainty once they start working. The other process variable that gauges the anticipatory stage is congruence, which addresses the fit between organizations' resources and individuals' needs. It provides newcomers with a sense of potential fit with future employers. Newcomers' expectationss would also be unmet if the fit being envisioned were found nonexistent upon entry. The unmet expectations of newcomers were found to predict a series of behavior and attitude outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and increased levels of turnover intention and actual turnover (Wanous 1992, Allen, Eby, et al. 2017). The inconsistency between pre-entry expectations and organizational reality is not unavoidable, however. Providing realistic job previews (RJP) during the selection process and orientation programs with a general expectation lowering procedure (ELP) upon entry are found helpful in managing newcomer expectations and reducing the resulting turnover (Wanous 1992, Buckley, Fedor, et al. 1998). I propose that in order to avoid the misalignment between expectation and reality, employers and newcomers could also share more practical and accurate information about the organization. On the newcomers' side, they could manage to obtain valuable information by proactively socializing with the organization's existing employees and corporate representatives.

Social Identity Theory

I believe that social identity theory (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981) would be especially appropriate in explaining newcomers' proactive socialization during the anticipatory stage of socialization, especially when there is not enough accurate information available. To be specific, social identity theory states that individuals categorize themselves and people with whom they interact into several social groups based on a series of stimuli. The similarities that individuals share with the in-group members define their social identities. Memberships of specific social

groups come with numerous privileges, including information and knowledge sharing, accesses to specific resources, in-group social support, and so forth (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981). The self-identification practices are motivated by the need for uncertainty reduction and the boost of self-esteem. The in-group interaction and prioritized transmission of information and knowledge would answer the questions that individuals have about the social group and ease the anxiety raised by uncertainty (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981). The support being received from in-group members can also improve one's self-esteem (Hogg and Terry 2001). Further, social identity theory posits that individuals are intrinsically motivated to establish connections with favorable groups. By aligning their social identity with the organization's identity (in this case, the identity of the favorable group), they could develop positive self-images and eventually contribute to higher levels of self-esteem. Au contraire, if the social group is negatively evaluated, individuals would seek to change their membership statuses to avoid impairing their self-images (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981, Peteraf and Shanley 1997).

For dissimilar newcomers, not only do they need to obtain acceptance from the full-fledged employees in the organization as newcomers, but also integrate into the new work environment as a dissimilar other—an outsider of the main newcomer group. Their uncertainty encompasses the expectations both from the organizational insiders and other newcomers who are dissimilar from them. What is appropriate for them within their own social groups may not be ideal when working with others, and the normative standards for organizational insiders could be even more confusing for the dissimilar rookies. Also, since individuals are naturally inclined to categorize themselves into favorable social groups, being recognized by and gaining acceptance from the "powerful group" (in this case, the organizational insiders) is even more critical for dissimilar newcomers, compared with other newcomers.

As the most organizational socialization activities occur within the workgroup—the immediate environment where newcomers are evaluated in, committed to, and transitioned into accepted members (Moreland, Levine, et al. 2001, Chao 2012), obtaining the in-group memberships would significantly influence their socialization outcomes. For instance, forming the social identities consistent with the organizational identity could provoke increased organizational commitment, cooperation, and internalization of organizational values and group norms (Tajfel 1981). The resulting higher level of self-esteem is also related to newcomers' high expectations about the future organizations and roles (Chen and Klimoski 2003), proactive socialization activities (Ashford and Black 1996, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, De Vos, Buyens, et al. 2005, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007) and adjustment outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, and turnover (Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007).

Uncertainty Reduction Theory

The uncertainty reduction assumes that uncertainty would lead to anxiety and therefore cause a series of adverse behavioral and attitude outcomes on individuals (Berger and Calabrese 1974). Naturally, individuals would attempt to reduce anxiety by reducing the uncertainty or improving the outcome's predictability during the initial interaction with others (Berger 1979, Berger and Bradac 1982). The uncertainty reduction procedure could be either proactive or reactive. Individuals could anticipate particular actions' potential outcomes and shape their behaviors during the interaction accordingly. Alternatively, they could make sense of and learn from the other actors' behaviors during the interaction. The precise interpretation of the appropriateness of behaviors could, in turn, guide the proactive uncertainty reduction process. As individuals have a more precise understanding of the normative standards within a particular context, their reactions to and anticipations about the other actors' behaviors would be modified

as well. If the anticipated outcome is considered valuable by the individual, they would be more aware of their behaviors during the interaction to maximize the likelihood of achieving the outcome (Berger 1986). For instance, if one were expecting promotion or rewards as a result of the interaction, he/ she would be especially attentive about the relationship building with supervisors and react timely and appropriately to the feedback about their behaviors during the interactions, so that he/ she would have higher chances of obtaining the desired outcomes (Chao 2012).

It has been reiterated that newcomer employees' uncertainty is especially salient throughout their organizational entry process (Lester 1987, Miller and Jablin 1991, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Ashford and Black 1996, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Chao 2012). However, few socialization studies examined the need for uncertainty reduction of newcomers perceiving dissimilar. In addition to the uncertainties that are experienced by all newcomer employees such as how to perform tasks successfully, the primary values of the organization, and the normative standards within the workgroups, newcomers perceiving dissimilar might also face the uncertainties associated with the cultural and behavioral differences between them and others, the degree of inclusivity of the organization and the workgroups, and how to be accepted as one of "them". Hence, in contrast to others, the newcomer employees perceiving dissimilar encounter more substantial uncertainty during their socialization process. In order to reduce the uncertainty, they could adopt the proactive and reactive methods of uncertainty reduction to interpret the social norms and expectations about their behaviors through social interactions and then adjust their behaviors to achieve the predicted outcomes. However, for newcomers perceiving dissimilar, interpreting the appropriate behaviors for other groups may be more challenging than learning the social norms and work styles from groups with the same

background. Also, the desirable outcomes expected by newcomers perceiving dissimilar are not limited to rewards and promotions—it would also include being accepted, recognized, and trusted by the other organizational insiders. Thus, in addition to building benign relationships with their supervisors and coworkers with the same background, newcomers perceiving dissimilar also need to establish trusting liaisons with other employees. Overall, the uncertainty reduction processes are expected to be more difficult for newcomers perceiving dissimilar than others.

Individuals could facilitate the uncertainty reduction process by acquiring information about tasks, workgroups, and organizations. This process could also be promoted by organizations (Miller and Jablin, 1991; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Chao, 2012). For example, organizations could help newcomers reduce uncertainties by identifying desirable behaviors to avoid inaccurate interpretations of appropriate behaviors. It would also be helpful for organizations to provide newcomers with a clear description of the performance appraisal criteria, accompanied by timely and detailed feedback, so that newcomers could have direct guidelines for performing tasks successfully. Further, training about an inclusive organizational value and the resources available would be especially beneficial in reducing uncertainties for newcomers perceiving dissimilar.

Hypotheses Development

Perceived Dissimilarity

Due to the rocketing speed of globalization and the increased demand for cooperation among individuals with diverse backgrounds, a significant portion of the contemporary workforce might feel the difference between them and others in the organization. These differences are no longer solely about their demographic attributes but could be regarding cognitive, affective, and

behavioral expressions inherent in the social interactions. The formerly considered appropriate behaviors may appear inappropriate when most group members identify with other social groups and behave accordingly, making newcomers feel dissimilar from the rest of the organization. For example, Pugh, Dietz, et al. (2008) suggested that the organizational diversity climate emerges from a sense-making process, strongly influenced by the organization's demographic composition. Building on this finding, I suggest that newcomers' sense of dissimilarity also emerges from a similar sense-making process and is influenced by the differences in demographic attributes, intrapersonal mediating processes, interpersonal manifestations, and more profound level characteristics among employees. For instance, newcomers may find themselves dissimilar from others in the organization due to demographic and personal attributes such as gender, age, and ethnicity, and behavioral styles, the intrapersonal mediating processes including self-concept, affective responses, and social cognition, as well as the interpersonal manifestations such as communications and roles (Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). In addition to the surface differences such as the demographic and personal attributes, individuals also differ in deeper level characteristics. For example, individuals may view themselves differently based on how others' see them, have different kinds of affective (rather than cognitive) responses (e.g., attraction, anxiety, or frustration) to certain national, ethnic, and religious groups, and conduct direct and indirect information exchange following specific manners. These deeper level differences are not readily observable for newcomers before they enter the organization but could be interpreted by newcomers via observing the interviewers or managers or interacting with them during the anticipatory socialization stage. Interviewers and corporate representatives may reveal hints about organizations' core values during the recruitment process through details that could reflect their work styles, attitudes toward certain social groups, comments about the organizations' work

climates, etc. The person who interacted with newcomers would be considered the company's representative, and newcomers tend to generalize their impression about this person to their future employers (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). For the dissimilar newcomers who have yet to enter the organization, the presence of other employees with a similar background is a "direct and unambiguous diversity cue" that signals the diversity and inclusive climate of the organization (McKAY and Avery 2006). In other words, newcomers tend to depict organizations' image based on the "clues" they obtained during the interaction with the corporate representative, estimate how dissimilar they are to the other coworkers, or how likely they will fit in the future working environment. The more different newcomers consider themselves from their coworkers, the more likely they are to be categorized in the unfavorable social groups—as the outsiders of the favorable social groups. Therefore, they have less access to the information and resources in the dominating groups. Thus, newcomers who perceive dissimilar from others in the organization are more easily influenced by the uncertainties resulting from inadequate information about the work styles, the lack of opportunities to learn the custom and ritual, and the ambiguity about value and norms of the organization.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Cultural intelligence (CQ) is defined as 'the capacity to function effectively in intercultural contexts' (Earley and Ang 2003, Ang and Van Dyne 2008). The most widely recognized conceptualization about CQ claimed that the CQ, like intelligence, consists of four loci, including metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ (Sternberg 1986, Earley and Ang 2003). Among the four dimensions, metacognition, cognition, and motivation describe the mental capabilities to function effectively in intercultural contexts, while the behavioral

dimension depicts the overt actions that individuals take to perform well in the intercultural contexts. Although qualitatively different from each other, the four dimensions of CQ aggregate together to form the overall CQ (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007). To be specific, metacognitive CQ is the higher-order cognition process, during which individuals question the cultural assumptions, make sense of and learn from the unexpected cultural encounters during social interaction, and adjust their behaviors accordingly. People with higher levels of metacognitive CQ go beyond acknowledging the cultural differences to recognize the necessity of embracing the cultural difference and developing a comprehensive understanding of when and how they should behave in a culturally appropriate manner (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007). Comparing to the metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ focuses on more concrete knowledge of the intercultural context. Namely, the cognitive CQ depicts individuals' understanding of the norms, practice, and customs in different cultures, the knowledge ranges from economic to legislation, from social systems to religious beliefs. It provides individuals with the necessary knowledge structure to perform effectively in a multi-cultural context. As the third component of the mental capacities, Motivational CQ portrays the mental capability to direct the energy toward learning about the environment and roles and persist in the learning process. Two vital elements of tasks that drive the motivation of learning and persisting are the expectation of success and the value of success (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007). Hence, individuals with higher levels of motivational CQ tend to be more intrinsically interested in learning to function successfully in the multicultural context and are more confident about their cross-cultural effectiveness (Deci and Ryan 1985, Bandura 2002, Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007). Contrary to the other three traits, the behavioral CQ concentrates on individuals' actual behaviors and their capabilities to exhibit verbal and nonverbal actions such as words, tone, gestures, and facial expressions (Gudykunst, Ting-Toomey, et al. 1988). People with higher levels of behavioral

CQ tend to be more flexible when interpreting and to react to the cues in the intercultural context. For example, they have a broader range of behaviors to choose from when expressing themselves, and adopting the appropriate actions also serves the impression management purpose. According to the theory of self-presentation (Goffman 1978), establishing a positive, culturally appropriate self-image will gain more positive views from the audiences, which would help individuals better adjust to the new environment (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007).

I contend that the overall CQ is not only a critical characteristic for an individual in a multicultural context; it also plays a role in newcomers' socialization in domestic organizations. To be specific, the metacognitive CQ provides newcomers with the ability to monitor the situation to know when and how to display the appropriate verbal and nonverbal actions during the social interaction with full-fledged employees. For newcomer employees with high metacognitive CQ levels, they tend to go beyond merely acknowledging the dissimilarity between different social groups to embrace the differences and to adapt their cultural judgments cognitively. The cognitive CQ, on the other hand, describes the actual mastery of knowledge structure such as organizational norms, work styles, organizational values and structures, and so forth. The knowledge mentioned above is the information that newcomer employees need during the organizational socialization process to be more familiar with the work environment and roles, and eventually be accepted as one of the organizational insiders. Both cognitive and metacognitive CQ are essential during the newcomers' socialization process, but they are especially critical for the newcomers perceiving dissimilarity. Unlike others, most dissimilar newcomers are not as familiar with the other social groups' conventions and norms and therefore face more uncertainties. Obtaining more information about how the others function in the organization would help dissimilar newcomers reduce the

uncertainty during the organizational socialization process and eventually get accepted as one of the main groups.

Similarly, the motivational CQ portrays the intrinsic interest and the expectation of succeeding in the intercultural setting. Newcomers' socialization processes are driven by the desire to be accepted as one of the organizational insiders and the need to reduce the uncertainties about the roles and new environments. It is especially true for the newcomers who perceive more dissimilarity with the organizational insiders than others, and they tend to see more barriers during the social integration process. As a result, they are more motivated to boost their self-image by assimilating and categorizing themselves as members of the favorable groups, aka the organizational insiders. The privileges that come with the membership of the powerful social group would provide them with more access to information about the organization's norms, conventions, and work styles, reducing their uncertainties during the organizational socialization process. The behavioral CQ describes the ability to flex the verbal and nonverbal behaviors properly to create positive self-images in the multicultural context. Newcomers, especially newcomers perceiving dissimilar, could benefit from high behavioral CQ levels and gain affirmative feedback from organizational insiders. For instance, having a flexible range of alternatives to select from when reacting to uncertain verbal and nonverbal cues would make individuals appear less offensive (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007) in unfamiliar organizational settings. Also, since dissimilar newcomers perceive more dissimilarity between themselves and other employees, they would face more uncertainties during the organizational socialization process. Having the flexibility in exhibiting the verbal and nonverbal actions in the uncertain environment would help reduce stereotypical thoughts from others, promote their self-images, and eventually gain positive views and acceptance from the organizational insiders (Goffman 1978).

From what I discussed above, I could conclude that newcomers with higher levels of CQ should be more sensitive about the organizational cultural distance, desiring to be accepted by the organizational insiders and reducing the uncertainties during the socialization process. Also, CQ's effect should be especially significant on newcomers perceiving dissimilar compared to others, since they see more barriers of being accepted as organizational insiders and perceive more uncertainties during the socialization process. To be considered as organizational insiders, dissimilar newcomers need to obtain as much information about the organizations and the workgroups as possible. For example, dissimilar newcomers with higher metacognitive and cognitive CQ are not only more capable of acknowledging the dissimilarities between them and other main social groups but are willing to incorporate the differences. They would like to learn to make appropriate interpretations under uncertain circumstances by gaining more information about the different groups. Likewise, if the dissimilar newcomers have higher levels of behavioral CQ, they would need more information to develop a larger pool of alternatives to select the appropriate reaction to different verbal and nonverbal cues when interacting with most others. Lastly, when dissimilar newcomers have higher levels of motivational CQ, their value and expectation for succeeding in the position would be translated into their evaluations of the inclusiveness of the new environment and the potential fit with the organization. Hence, they would be intrinsically motivated to acquire information about the organization to facilitate social integration and uncertainty reduction (Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007). To sum up, I expect to see dissimilar newcomers with higher levels of overall CQ to engage in more proactive socialization behaviors during the anticipatory stage to develop more accurate expectations about future employers, be better prepared to assimilate into the corporate insider groups, and eventually reduce the uncertainties during the actual entry.

Hypothesis 1: At the anticipatory stage, cultural Intelligence (CQ) would interact with newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that perceived dissimilarity is positively related to newcomer's proactive socialization behavior when CQ is high, but negatively related to the proactive socialization behavior when CQ is low.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Diversity Organizational Climate

One of the key criteria for newcomers' assessment about the potential fit with the organizations is its inclusiveness, in other words, how friendly or supportive is the organization toward their newcomers, especially those who perceive to be dissimilar from others in the organization, and how would this diversity climate evolve as they grow into full-fledged employees. Compared with most others in the organization, dissimilar newcomers would face more uncertainty during the organizational socialization process. Not only do they have limited knowledge about the organizational insiders in terms of their social norms, customs, and work styles, but they differ in demographic and personal attributes, intrapersonal mediating processes, and interpersonal manifestations (Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). Indeed, newcomers dissimilar from other employees are found to encounter more difficulties during the socialization process (Fairhurst and Snavely 1983). The difficulty is not limited to certain particular ethnic groups but is for newcomers who enter a homogeneous social group with people having dissimilar backgrounds to the newcomers (Oberg 1960, Jones 1991, Jackson, Stone et al. 1992, Adler and Gundersen 2007). For this reason, newcomers perceiving dissimilar are in more need of information about other organizational insider groups and are expected to put more effort into the proactive socialization process. However, it is not always the case in reality—newcomers perceiving dissimilar may not engage in as much proactive socialization behavior as needed due to their concerns about the potential costs associated with it. To be specific, the cost-value

framework (Ashford 1986, Morrison and Vancouver 2000, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Park, Schmidt, et al. 2007, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015) assumes that employees would make conscious evaluations about the costs and benefits that are associated with the proactive socialization behaviors and decide the degree of proactivity based on their assessment. The benefits for proactive socialization behavior might include but are not limited to uncertainty reduction, more accurate expectation about the organization, increased potential of person-organizational fit, and eventually better organizational acceptance. The potential costs of proactive socialization behavior, on the other hand, can be categorized into three dimensions: the image costs, the effort costs, and the inference costs (Ashford and Cummings 1983). Namely, image costs describe the situation in which newcomers are concerned about the possibility of appearing insecure or incompetent, or the potential of annoying the sources of information if they inquire information directly from the target (Morrison 1993). In the case of newcomers perceiving dissimilar, they could be particularly vulnerable to the stereotypical thoughts of main groups due to the latter part's lack of knowledge about them, and are also be especially sensitive to the negative views about themselves because of the stereotypical threats (Steele and Aronson 1995, Roberson, Deitch, et al. 2003). Hence, newcomers perceiving dissimilar, compared with others, would be especially vigilant about the potential costs of revealing deficiencies in their interpersonal and technical skills and the subsequent outcome of undermining their public images. Secondly, the effort costs portray the level of physical effort required to get the attention of and acquire information from the target and the cognitive and attentional effort needed to monitor the information. When the sources of information are not always available, or no one could provide adequate information needed, the psychical effort costs associated with the proactive socialization behavior are perceived high. When the situation is ambiguous, or targets are hard to track down,

newcomers also need to pay more cognitive and attentional effort to recognize and observe the information. I suggest that the effort costs could be stronger for the employees perceiving dissimilar during the proactive socialization process, possibly due to the other organizational insiders' unfamiliarity about them and the resulting lack of interaction between the two social groups, leading to increased uncertainty throughout the social exchange. If more proactive socialization has occurred, organizational insiders would perceive more similarity with the newcomers, and therefore might find it less ambiguous during communication and admit newcomers into their social groups easier (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981). Hence, in order to get the information needed for the expectation development purposes, dissimilar newcomers need to devote more physical, cognitive, and attentional effort than others in the pre-entry socialization process. Lacking the investment of efforts would hinder newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors. The third typology of costs is inference costs. It delineates the costs of inferring the meaning underlies the information being obtained during the proactive socialization process. Namely, newcomers face a trade-off between the accuracy of the information they get and the risks and efforts associated with the information inquiry. If they chose to avoid the risk and effort costs of being proactive by adopting a monitoring strategy during the socialization process, aka, simply interpreting the message they observed without confirming, the information's accuracy would be discounted. What is worse, the newcomers might make subsequent decisions or adapt their behaviors based on the defective interpretation and reach outcomes that are opposite from their role expectations. This problem is especially severe for newcomers who differ from other employees in various ways. Since the two social groups share little similarity in surface-level, very likely also deep-level characteristics (Harrison, Price, et al. 1998, Harrison, Price, et al. 2002), it would be hard for dissimilar newcomers to make accurate interpretations about other

organizational insiders without frequent and direct interactions between the two groups (Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). This is particularly true when the background differences generate an instrumental need for information from the insiders (Gupta, Govindarajan, et al. 1999). Further, if newcomers' behavior and cognitive outcomes are distorted because of the inaccurate interpretation, they would be more liable to the negative stereotypical views and endure more image costs. The direct inquiry of information is not completely risk-free, however—the decision of whether to release the substantive information is made solely by the sources. If the organizational insiders try to attract the dissimilar newcomers with diverse and inclusive organizational images or signify organizational images that conform with their assumptions about newcomers' expectations, they would portray the organization in a desirable, whereas less accurate way. As a result, newcomers perceiving dissimilar, even if sought information about the organization directly and proactively, are still at risk of being dazzled by the inaccurate messages and developing false expectations about the organizations. Hence, newcomers would weigh the costs and benefits discreetly before engaging in proactive socialization behaviors. If the perceived image, effort, and inference costs overweigh the perceived benefits (e.g., uncertainty reduction, increased potential person-organizational fit, greater chances of organizational acceptance), then they are more likely to engage in a higher degree of proactive socialization behavior, vice versa. Since newcomers perceiving dissimilar would perceive more costs than others, there would be higher chances for them to perceive more costs than benefits when making the cost-value assessment and conduct less proactive socialization behaviors.

Never the less, it is not always the case that dissimilar newcomers would engage in less proactive socialization behaviors than other newcomers. Previous studies have examined the neutralizing effect of perceived organizational support on newcomers' image concerns

(Eisenberger, Huntington, et al. 1986, Eisenberger, Fasolo, et al. 1990, Ashford, Blatt, et al. 2003, De Stobbeleir, Ashford, et al. 2011, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). Also, a supportive context encompassing the supportive source and positive peer relations, as well as supervisor's considerate leadership styles would reduce the perceived costs of proactive socialization behavior and lead to an increased frequency and intensity of proactive socialization (Madzar 1995, Vancouver and Morrison 1995, Miller and Levy 1997, Williams, Miller, et al. 1999, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Levy, Cober, et al. 2002, Ashford, Blatt, et al. 2003). The findings mentioned above indicate that a supportive work environment could alleviate the image concerns about newcomers and facilitate their proactive socialization behavior. I build on these findings and propose that the perceived diversity climate could offset newcomers' concerns about image, effort, and inference costs, therefore boosting their willingness to socialize proactively. To be specific, the evaluation of perceived diversity climate depends on employees' feelings about how inclusive the organization is, how fair employees would be treated comparing with others, how well does the organization do in acknowledging and incorporating different views, and whether the work environment is safe and comfortable enough for frequent communication and social exchanges to occur between all social groups (Mor-Barak and Cherin 1998, Ernst Kossek, Markel, et al. 2003, McKay, Avery, et al. 2007, Pugh, Dietz, et al. 2008). Among these critical features of the perceived diversity climate, the reinforcement of organizational inclusion and acknowledgment and incorporation of distinct opinions are most relevant to reducing image concerns. All employees are encouraged to voice themselves, and their ideas are ready to be heard and accepted in this kind of climate. Inquiring information regarding unfamiliar social norms, tasks, customs, and background differences would be applauded rather than judged. This would be especially important for newcomers perceiving dissimilarity since they tend to face more uncertainty than

others during the socialization process. Not only are they concerned about the image costs, but also the stereotype threats due to the background differences. Similarly, the fair treatment and comfortable social context alleviate the concerns for effort and inference costs. The fair and open environment for communication provides employees with more access to the information they require without additional physical, cognitive, and attentional costs to locate, recognize, and inspect the information. The excessive information exchange would eliminate the erroneous conjectures. Since newcomers perceiving dissimilar are likely to see more barriers than others when inquiring information from organizational insiders, they are susceptible to higher levels of effort and inference concerns, especially prior to the organizational entry. Hence, the diversity climate would have a more substantial buffering effect when they engage in proactive socialization behaviors. Therefore, I expect to see the perceived diversity climate neutralizing the dissimilar newcomers' image, effort, and inference concerns during their socialization process and lead to greater engagement in proactive socialization behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived Diversity Climate would interact with newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that the perceived dissimilarity of newcomers is positively related to their proactive socialization behavior when diversity climate is high, but negatively related to the proactive socialization behavior when diversity climate is low.

Methods

Data Collection

Since this study focuses on the anticipatory socialization stage, in which newcomers are willing to join the organization but have not officially entered yet, I recruit college students who

got job offers and intend to accept them but have not officially started working for their future employers yet. Specifically, I cooperate with student admission offices, career service offices, the center/office of international education of one Midwest American University and send out emails with links of surveys to their graduating students. All students need to satisfy all of the four screening criteria to be recruited: a) having at least one job offer in hand; b) intend to accept the offer; c) graduating after this semester; d) have not officially started working for their future employers yet. After answering yes to all the four questions at the beginning of the survey, they will be led to the main part of the survey.

The data is collected at three times. Since I want to examine dissimilar newcomers' socialization experiences during the anticipatory stage, I collect the first wave of data before respondents enter the organization. The data being measured at time 1 including newcomer's perceived dissimilarity and CQ level. Considering the sources of information would be most available within the organization, and perceptions of the organizations' diversity climates would be more accurate when respondents are physically in the organization, I collect the second wave of data two weeks after respondents enter into organizations. Namely, the data being collected at time 2 is the newcomer's perception of the diverse organizational culture. Though theoretically speaking, the anticipatory stage occurs entirely before the organizational entry, the level of uncertainty and perceptions of diversity climate should not change significantly within the first two weeks of organizational entry. Finally, in order to ensure the causal relationship between the interaction of perceived dissimilarity and perceived diversity climate, I collect the data for proactive socialization behavior three months after respondents' entry into organizations.

Measurement

Perceived Dissimilarity ($\alpha = .88$, $\mu = 2.52$, SE = 1.02)

I adopt Zellmer-Bruhn, Maloney, et al.'s (2008) scale of perceived similarity to measure the countereffect of this construct. The scale consists of an eight 7-point Likert scale, with three items asking about perceived social category similarities and five items asking about perceived work style similarities. Each item follows a seven-point response format, with 1 indicates strongly disagree, while 7 indicates strongly agree. Sample items for perceived social category and work style similarity including "members of my team are from the same country" and "members of my team have similar communication styles."

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) ($\alpha = .93$, $\mu = 5.81$, SE = 0.80)

I adopt the most widely used Ang, Van Dyne et al.'s (2007) measurement for CQ in our study. The scale operationalized the four dimensions of CQ, with four 7-point Likert-scale items measuring the metacognitive CQ, six items measuring cognitive CQ, five items measuring motivational CQ, and five items measuring behavioral CQ. Each item asks participants to select the response that best describes their capabilities, with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Sample items for the four dimensions including "I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds"; "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures"; "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures"; "I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it".

Perceived Diversity Climate ($\alpha = .76$, $\mu = 4.60$, SE = 0.51)

I adopt Pugh, Dietz, et al.'s (2008) scale of perceived diversity climate for our study. Combining the three influential studies and developed their own measurements for the perceived climate of diversity (Mor-Barak and Cherin 1998, Ernst Kossek, Markel, et al. 2003, McKay, Avery, et al. 2007), Pugh, Dietz et al. (2008) selected four items that (a) conform with the construct definition and (b) similar to other measurements and developed the shortened version of perceived diversity climate measurement. The resulting four items are measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale, with 1= strongly agree and 5 = strongly disagree. One sample item for this measurement is, "Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce."

Proactive Socialization Behavior ($\alpha = .94$, $\mu = 3.92$, SE = 0.78)

I adopt Ashford and Black's (1996) measurement of proactive socialization behavior. Twenty-four items are included to operationalize the seven factors, with each item measured by a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (to no extent) to 5 (to a great extent). Sample items are, "To what extent have you… sought feedback on your performance after assignments? (feedback-seeking)", "…Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about desirable job changes? (job-change negotiation)" "…Tried to see your situation as an opportunity rather than a threat? (positive framing)" "…Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)? (general socialization)" "…Tried to spend as much time as you could with your boss? (relationship-building)" "…Started conversations with people from different segments of the company? (networking)" "…Tried to learn the (official) organizational structure? (information-seeking)"

Control Variables

I control whether the respondents have interned in the organization for which they will work after graduation, and how long did that internship last. Previous studies have examined the differences in socialization processes among newcomers who have zero experience with the organization, newcomers who used to work in other departments of the organization, as well as organizational insiders who have not changed their jobs (Chao 2012); as well as between newcomer who transit to the organization from school and newcomers who transit from another organization (Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). However, none of them took internship experience into consideration. I believe for college students, the internship would be the only chance for them to gather information about the organizations they want to work in after graduation. Although the job requirements and contents of internship are generally different from the real work experience, internship experience could provide student newcomers with a more comprehensive understanding of the organization and, therefore, help them develop a more realistic expectation during the anticipatory socialization stage. I also control the availability of pre-hire materials, which may influence newcomers' perception of the organization and proactive socialization intention.

Analysis

I conduct a priori power analysis using G*Power 3.1.9.2 prior to the data collection. For the current model, I perform F tests (ANOVA test with fixed effects, special, main effects, and interactions). With the large effect size and numerator df of 3, the expected sample size is 74. I first screen out the respondents who did not answer yes to all four screening questions and those who did not complete the questions concerning perceived dissimilarity, cultural intelligence, diversity climate, and proactive socialization behaviors, resulting in 754 respondents at time 1.

The number of respondents was reduced to 217 in time 2. After matching up with the data collected from time 3, we eventually got 112 valid responses. Among the 112 respondents, 19 have interned in the organization prior to the official organizational entry, with an average of 7.5 weeks in length. Also, about 92 respondents have received pre-hire materials, and 80 respondents have received more than one offer. The average start-up salary for the respondents' positions ranges from 40,001 to 50,000 annually. The average size of organizations in which respondents work is 150-200 employees, with an average of 11-15 members in their teams.

In order to avoid common method bias and improve construct validity of the scales, I follow Podsakoff (2003) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al.'s (2012) suggestion to measure the individual and outcome variables at different times (time 1, time 2, and time 3), and eliminate the common scale properties (i.e., scale type, number of scale points, anchor labels, polarity). Also, there are slight risks for social desirability when respondents answer questions about cultural intelligence. In order to avoid that, I adopt Ang, Van Dyne, et al.'s (2007) scale, in which it reminds respondents to select the answer that best describes them as they really are. In order to examine the construct validity of the measurements, I conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) before the data analysis following Campbell and Fiske's (1959) criteria(Bagozzi, Yi et al. 1991, Bagozzi 1993). After comparison, we adopt the 6-factor model of proactive socialization (feedback-seeking, job-change negotiation, positive framing, general socialization, relationship building and networking, information-seeking) (CMIN/DF = 1.792, TLI = 0.761, DFI = 0.811, RMSEA = .01, AIC = 598.591), the 4 - factor model of CQ (metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, cognitive CQ, behavioral CQ) (CMIN/DF = 2.2, TLI = 0.774, CFI = 0.805, RMSEA = 0.123, AIC = 492.407) and the 2-factor model of perceived dissimilarity (work dissimilarity and categorical dissimilarity) (CMIN/DF = 1.788, TLI = 0.926, CFI = 0.95, RMSEA = 0.1, AIC = 83.977) (table 2.1-2.3). Table

2.1-2.3 provides information about the fix indices and model selection outcomes. We follow MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara's (1996) suggestion and adopt 0.1 as the RMSEA value's threshold score (Moss, Lawson, and White, 2014). The RMSEA value for the 3-factor model of cultural intelligence, 2-factor model of perceived dissimilarity, and the 3-factor model of institutionalized tactics indicates a better but still poor fit of the data. However, since RMSEA is primarily determined by the sample size and degree of freedom ($\sqrt{(x^2 - df}/\sqrt{df(N-1}$), it is possible that the small sample size in this study and degree of freedom in this study led to artificially large values of the RMSEA (Kenny, Kaniskan, and McCoach, 2014). On the other side, the minimum discrepancy per degree of freedom (CMIN/DF), also called normal chi-square or normed chi-square, is correlated with RMSEA but making the model fit less dependent on the sample size (Shadfar and Alekmohammadi, 2013). The CMIN/DF value of 2:1 or 3:1 indicates an acceptable model (Carmines and Malver 1981, Kline 1998), with a value of 2 or less reflecting a good fit (Ullman 2001). While values as high as 5 are considered an adequate model fit (Schumacker and Lomax 2004). Hence, the CMIN/DF values for the selected models inform good model fit without the influence of sample size. Also, the TLI and CFI values larger than .80 indicate an adequate incremental model fit compared to the base model (Bentler 1990, Cold 1987, Marsh, Balla, and McDonald 1988, Moss, Lawson, and White 2015). The final model for all four variables achieve an adequate fit (CMIN/DF = 1.785, TLI = 0.611, CFI = 0.657, RMSEA = 0.1).

Perceived Dissimilarity	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
1 factor	5.016	0.663	0.759	0.225	148.316
2 factor	2.054	0.901	0.933	0.115	89.02

Table 2.1

CQ	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
4 factor	2.2	0.774	0.805	0.123	492.407
3 factor (metacognitive + motivational CQ)	2.203	0.773	0.8	0.123	493.901
2 factor	2.812	0.658	0.696	0.151	597.297
1 factor	3.467	0.534	0.583	0.177	669.342

Table 2.2

Proactive Socialization Behaviors	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
7 factor	2.188	0.67	0.698	0.123	695.466
6 factor (relationship-building + networking)	1.792	0.761	0.811	0.1	598.591
5 factor	1.809	0.755	0.803	0.101	601.71
4 factor	1.837	0.747	0.792	0.103	607.815
3 factor	1.971	0.706	0.756	0.111	640.835
2 factor	2.011	0.694	0.744	0.113	650.706
1 factor	2.188	0.64	0.698	0.123	695.466

Table 2.3

I used IBM SPSS Statistics 25 and PROCESS 3.4 by Dr. Hayes to conduct the analysis. I first test the influence of the interaction of perceived work style dissimilarity and newcomers' CQ on their proactive socialization behaviors. As indicated in table 2.4-2.9, I find that the metacognitive and motivational CQ moderates the direct relationships between newcomers' perceived work style dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors. When their metacognitive and motivational CQ is low, newcomers perceiving higher work style dissimilarity tend to engage in more feedback-seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.34*, R^2 = 0.31) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.42**, R^2 = 0.18), job-change negotiation ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.26**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.55**, R^2 = 0.26), positive framing ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.31), general socialization ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.36) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.32*, R^2 = 0.34), information seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.23**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40*, R^2 = 0.19), and relationships building behaviors ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.36) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.32**, R^2 = 0.34). As can be seen in Figures 2.2-2.5 and Figures 2.6-2.9, most times the interaction effects are only significant at the

lower level. The direct relationships between newcomers' perceived work style dissimilarity and the four types of proactive socialization behaviors are not influenced by a high level of metacognitive and motivational CQ (except motivational CQ * job-change negotiation and feedback-seeking) (Table 2.4-2.9) (Figure 2.2-2.9). I also find the metacognitive and motivational CQ moderating the direct relationship between newcomers' perceived work dissimilarity and their information-seeking behavior ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.23*, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40**, R^2 = 0.19) and relationship building and networking behaviors ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.41) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40**, R^2 = 0.18). The newcomers perceiving higher work style dissimilarity tend to engage in less information-seeking behavior when their metacognitive and motivational CQ are high. In addition, when newcomers have a high level of behavioral CQ, their perceived work style dissimilarity will lead to greater positive framing behaviors (ß = 0.46, R^2 = 0.10, P = 0.05) (figure 2.12).

I then test the effect of the interaction between newcomers' perceived categorical dissimilarity and CQ on their proactive socialization behaviors (table 2.10-2.15). The findings largely follow the same direction of work style dissimilarity, with newcomers' metacognitive and motivatioanl CQ moderating the direct relationship between their perceived categorical dissimilarity and feedback seeking ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.54**, R^2 = 0.23), job-change negotiation ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.37*, R^2 = 0.22) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.41**, R^2 = 0.14), general socialization ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.29), relationship building and networking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.55**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.43*, R^2 = 0.19), information seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.58**, R^2 = 0.4) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.50**, R^2 = 0.18), positive framing ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.29). To be specific, as we can see from figure 2.13-2.24, when metacognitive and motivational CQ are high, newcomers perceiving higher levels of categorical dissimilarity tend to participate in less proactive socialization activities. When the metacognitive

and motivational CQ is low, newcomers perceiving greater categorical dissimilarity tend to be more proactive.

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4
perceived dissimilarity	2.520	1.020	1.000			
CQ	5.810	0.800	-.495**	1.000		
perceived diversity climate 2	4.600	0.510	-0.064	0.221	1.000	
proactive socialization behavior	3.920	0.780	-0.200	.369**	.243*	1.000

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

	proactive socialization behavior (feeback seeking)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.08	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.16	0.2	0.26	0.26	0.2	0.19	0.03	0.02
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.09	-0.08	-0.08	-0.13	-0.11	-0.03	-0.04	-0.18	-0.18	-0.1	-0.08
work style dissimilarity		0.1	(.46)*	0.33	0.36	0.28	(.41)**	(.39)*	0.14	0.14	0.08	0.1
metacognitive CQ			(.50)**	(.64)**								
motivational CQ					0.38	(.40)**						
cognitive CQ							(.65)**	(.63)**				
behavioral CQ									(.302)*	0.3		
perceived diversity climate 2											0.25	0.25
work * MC				(-.34)*								
work* MOT						(-.42)**						
work * COG								-0.09				
work * BEH										-0.01		
work * diversity												-0.06
R^2	0.01	0.02	0.14	0.31	0.08	0.18	0.37	0.37	0.11	0.11	0.08	0.08

Table 2.4

	proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.01	0.02	-0.03	-0.02	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.21	0.09	0.1	-0.02	0.01
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.1	-0.08	-0.08	-0.13	-0.11	-0.04	-0.06	-0.15	-0.14	-0.1	-0.14
work style dissimilarity		0.16	(.69)**	(.29)**	0.42	0.32	(.49)**	(.44)**	0.19	0.22	0.15	0.06
metacognitive CQ			(.72)**	(.84)**								
motivational CQ					0.38	(0.53)**						
cognitive CQ							(.67)**	(.64)**				
behavioral CQ									0.18	0.25		
perceived diversity climate 2											0.18	0.22
work * MC				(-.26)**								
work* MOT						(.55)**						
work * COG								-0.19				
work * BEH										0.2		
work * diversity												0.27
R^2	0.01	0.02	0.3	0.39	0.09	0.26	0.4	0.41	0.06	0.07	0.05	0.07

Table 2.5

	proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.15	(.29)*	(.33)*	(.29)*	0.28	0.3	(.35)**	0.13	0.15
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.09	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.1	0.07	0.03
work style dissimilarity		0.11	(.46)*	0.41	(.48)*	(.52)*	0.32	0.35	0.15	0.24	0.09	0.03
metacognitive CQ			(.49)**	(.56)**								
motivational CQ					(.55)**	(.65)**						
cognitive CQ							(.44)**	(.46)**				
behavioral CQ									0.32	(.52)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											(.33)*	(.35)*
work * MC				-0.15								
work* MOT						(-.35)*						
work * COG								0.13				
work * BEH										(.46)**		
work * diversity												0.18
R^2	0.03	0.04	0.18	0.21	0.19	0.27	0.22	0.23	0.14	0.24	0.12	0.13

Table 2.6

	proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.05	0.25	0.21	0.22	(.37)**	(.40)**	(.32)*	(.33)*	(.32)*	(.34)*	0.18	0.22
pre-hire materials	-0.21	-0.21	-0.19	-0.19	(-.26)*	(-.25)*	-0.18	-0.21	-0.26	-0.24	-0.21	-0.27
work style dissimilarity		-0.04	0.38	0.29	0.38	0.33	0.1	0.04	-0.01	0.04	0.07	-0.19
metacognitive CQ			(.57)**	(.68)**								
motivational CQ					(.63)*	(.71)**						
cognitive CQ							(.28)*	0.23				
behavioral CQ									0.19	(.30)*		
perceived diversity climate 2											(.31)**	(.36)**
work * MC				(-.24)**								
work * MOT						(-.32)*						
work * COG								-0.24				
work * BEH										0.29		
work * diversity												0.37
R^2	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.36	0.28	0.34	0.16	0.17	0.13	0.17	0.19	0.22

Table 2.7

	proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	-0.01	-0.01	-0.06	-0.06	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.14	-0.09	-0.08
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.05	0.06	0.14	0.1	-0.01	0.01	0.09	0.07
work style dissimilarity		-0.05	(.52)**	(.44)*	0.27	0.2	0.18	0.12	0	0.05	0.08	-0.11
metacognitive CQ			(.79)**	(.88)**								
motivational CQ					(.46)**	(.58)**						
cognitive CQ							(.47)**	(.43)**				
behavioral CQ									(.35)**	(.46)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											(.35)**	(.37)**
work * MC				(-.23)*								
work * MOT						(-.40)*						
work * COG								-0.26				
work * BEH										0.27		
work * diversity												0.09
R^2	0.01	0.01	0.32	0.39	0.1	0.19	0.19	0.2	0.14	0.17	0.13	0.13

Table 2.8

	proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)											
	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.1	0.1	0.05	0.06	0.18	0.22	0.26	0.27	0.23	0.25	0.02	0.04
pre-hire materials	-0.05	-0.05	-0.03	-0.02	-0.08	-0.06	0.01	-0.03	-0.14	-0.13	-0.05	-0.08
work style dissimilarity		0	(.58)**	(.49)**	0.27	0.2	0.27	0.2	0.04	0.09	-0.04	-0.1
metacognitive CQ			(.80)**	(.91)**								
motivational CQ					0.4	(.51)**						
cognitive CQ							(.57)**	(.51)**				
behavioral CQ									(.35)**	(.45)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											(.37)**	(.39)**
work * MC				(-.24)**								
work * MOT						(-.40)*						
work * COG								-0.3				
work * BEH										0.26		
work * diversity												0.18
R^2	0.01	0.01	0.33	0.41	0.08	0.17	0.26	0.29	0.13	0.16	0.14	0.14

Table 2.9

	proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)										
	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.068	0.05	0.15	0.11	0.14	0.27	0.26	0.18	-0.13	0.01	0
pre-hire materials	-0.085	-0.07	-0.1	-0.1	-0.13	-0.03	-0.03	-0.17	-0.15	-0.09	-0.08
category dissimilarity	-0.047	0.06	0.28	0	0.13	0.28	0.15	-0.01	0.02	-0.09	-0.16
metacognitive CQ		0.29	(.65)**								
motivational CQ				0.2	0.33						
cognitive CQ						(.63)**	0				
behavioral CQ								(.29)*	0.27		
perceived diversity climate 2										0.27	0.28
category * MC			(-.54)**								
category * MOT					(-.49)*						
category * COG							(-.35)*				
category * BEH									-0.13		
category * diversity											0.15
R^2	0.01	0.08	23	0.04	0.15	0.33	0.39	0.1	0.11	0.08	0.09

Table 2.10

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	-0.03	-0.05	-0.05	-0.01	0.02	0.14	0.14	0.02	0.02	-0.09	-0.09
pre-hire materials	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08	-0.1	-0.03	-0.03	-0.11	-0.11	-0.07	-0.06
category dissimilarity	-0.29	-0.16	0	-0.26	-0.15	-0.01	-0.05	-0.27	-0.27	0.32	-0.4
metacognitive CQ		(.35)*	*.60)**								
motivational CQ				0.11	0.22						
cognitive CQ						(.54)**	(.51)**				
behavioral CQ								0.15	0.15		
perceived diversity climate 2										0.22	0.23
category * MC			(-.37)*								
category * MOT					(-.41)*						
category * COG							-0.1				
category * BEH									0		
category * diversity											-0.09
R^2	0.06	0.15	0.22	0.07	0.14	0.29	0.29	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.11

Table 2.11

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.23	0.27	(.30)*	0.17	0.3	0.28	0.12	0.11
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.05	0.02	0.11	0.17	0.05	0	0.08	0.07
category dissimilarity	-0.02	0.09	0.32	0.07	0.2	0.2	0.12	0.04	0	-0.04	-0.2
metacognitive CQ		0.29	(.34)**								
motivational CQ				0.32	(.45)**						
cognitive CQ						(.42)**	(.35)*				
behavioral CQ								(.31)*	(.32)*		
perceived diversity climate 2										(.34)*	0.29
category * MC			(-.50)**								
category * MOT					(-.49)**						
category * COG							-0.23				
category * BEH									0.17		
category * diversity											0.3
R^2	0.03	0.1	0.25	0.1	0.23	0.19	0.22	0.13	0.14	0.12	0.14

Table 2.12

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.22	0.2	0.2	(.30)**	(.31)*	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.14	0.13
pre-hire materials	-0.2	-0.18	-0.2	-0.22	-0.23	-0.18	-0.18	-0.25	-0.23	-0.2	-0.18
category dissimilarity	-0.21	-0.07	0.07	-0.11	-0.07	-0.09	-0.12	-0.18	-0.15	-0.26	(-.47)**
metacognitive CQ		(.37)**	(.60)**								
motivational CQ				(.40)**	(.44)**						
cognitive CQ						0.22	0.2				
behavioral CQ								0.18	0.15		
perceived diversity climate 2										(.33)*	(.36)**
category * MC			(-.35)*								
category * MOT					-0.14						
category * COG							-0.07				
category * BEH									-0.14		
category * diversity											(.44)*
R^2	0.12	0.22	0.29	0.23	0.24	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.23	0.3

Table 2.13

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	-0.03	-0.06	-0.05	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.11	0.11	-0.11	-0.12
pre-hire materials	0.1	0.12	0.08	0.07	0.04	0.13	0.13	0	-0.02	0.1	0.1
category dissimilarity	-0.11	0.1	(.35)*	-0.02	0.11	0.14	0.04	-0.06	-0.08	-0.16	-0.26
metacognitive CQ		(.56)**	(.95)**								
motivational CQ				0.32	(.46)**						
cognitive CQ						(.47)**	(.38)*				
behavioral CQ								(.35)**	(.37)**		
perceived diversity climate 2										(.37)**	(.37)**
category * MC			(-.58)**								
category * MOT					(-.50)**						
category * COG							-0.26				
category * BEH									0.11		
category * diversity											0.19
R^2	0.01	0.23	0.4	0.08	0.18	0.18	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.15

Table 2.14

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building+networking)

	model 10			model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.08	0.12	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.17	-0.05	-0.05
pre-hire materials	-0.02	0	-0.03	-0.03	-0.06	0.02	0.02	-0.11	-0.12	-0.2	0.01
category dissimilarity	(-.36)*	-0.2	0.03	.-.32	-0.21	-0.13	-0.23	-0.32	-0.33	(-.43)**	(-.29)**
metacognitive CQ		(.47)**	(.84)**								
motivational CQ				0.19	0.31						
cognitive CQ						(.45)**	0.37				
behavioral CQ								(.32)**	(.33)**		
perceived diversity climate 2										(.41)**	(.43)**
category * MC			(-.55)**								
category * MOT					(.43)*						
category * COG							-0.26				
category * BEH									0.06		
category * diversity											0.33
R^2	0.09	0.24	0.39	0.11	0.19	0.24	0.28	0.19	0.19	0.24	0.27

Table 2.15

proactive socialization behavior (feeback seeking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.02	0.03	0.1	0.15	0.21	0.19	0.14	0.12
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.06	-0.12	-0.07	-0.03	-0.01	-0.017	-0.16
work style dissimilarity	0.4	0.36	0.28	0.33	(.39)**	(.45)*	0.12	0.13
metacognitive CQ	(.43)*	(.62)**						
motivational CQ			0.29	(.47)*				
cognitive CQ					(.65)**	(.65)**		
behavioral CQ							0.26	0.24
perceived diversity climate 2	0.16	0.07	0.19	0.09	(.25)*	0.23	0.19	0.19
work * MC		(-.32)**						
work* MOT				(-.40)*				
work * COG						0.65		
work * BEH								-0.07
work * diversity		-0.12		-0.21		-0.19		-0.09
R^2	0.17	0.31	0.11	0.21	0.43	0.44	0.15	0.15

Table 2.16

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	-0.03	0	0.06	0.15	0.17	0.19	0.04	0.08
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.1	-0.13	-0.12	-0.04	-0.07	-0.14	-0.17
work style dissimilarity	(.68)**	(.55)*	0.38	0.25	(.47)**	(.39)*	0.17	0.12
metacognitive CQ	(.71)**	(.83)**						
motivational CQ			0.33	(.49)*				
cognitive CQ					(.68)**	(.64)**		
behavioral CQ							0.15	0.19
perceived diversity climate 2	0.03	-0.01	0.1	0.05	0.18	0.19	0.15	0.16
work * MC		(.27)**						
work* MOT				(-.55)**				
work * COG						-0.13		
work * BEH								0.14
work * diversity		0.11		0.12		0.13		0.22
R^2								
	0.29	0.39	0.1	0.27	0.43	0.44	0.08	0.1

Table 2.17

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.12	0.14	0.25	0.3	0.25	0.25	0.25	(.31)*
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.07	0.03	0.06	0.11	0.11	0.05	0.1
work style dissimilarity	0.4	0.32	0.42	0.39	0.29	0.29	0.13	0.21
metacognitive CQ	(.41)*	(.47)**						
motivational CQ			(.47)*	(.59)**				
cognitive CQ					(.43)**	(.45)**		
behavioral CQ							0.26	(.46)**
perceived diversity climate 2	0.22	0.19	0.2	0.16	(.31)*	0.33	0.26	0.16
work * MC		-0.13						
work* MOT				(-.33)*				
work * COG						0.19		
work * BEH								0.41
work * diversity		0.08		-0.03		0.12		0
R^2								
	0.09	0.24	0.22	0.28	0.29	0.3	0.19	0.25

Table 2.18

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.17	0.22	(.31_*	(.37)**	0.26	(.29)*	0.24	0.29
pre-hire materials	-0.2	-0.24	(-.26)*	(-.27)*	-0.18	-0.25	-0.25	-0.28
work style dissimilarity	0.3	0.11	0.31	0.19	0.07	-0.07	-0.05	-0.12
metacognitive CQ	(.49)*	(.57)**						
motivational CQ			(.53)**	(.59)**				
cognitive CQ					(.28)*	0.24		
behavioral CQ							0.13	0.19
perceived diversity climate 2	0.21	0.2	0.19	0.18	(.31)**	(.34)**	(.28)*	(.30)*
work * MC		(-.23)*						
work* MOT				-0.29				
work * COG						-0.13		
work * BEH								0.17
work * diversity		0.28		0.16		0.3		0.32
R^2	0.31	0.4	0.31	0.37	0.26	0.29	0.21	0.25

Table 2.19

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	-0.1	-0.1	-0.01	0.05	0.41	0.05	0.04	0.06
pre-hire materials	0.11	0.12	0.06	0.08	0.13	0.11	0	0.01
work style dissimilarity	(.45)*	0.42	0.15	0.13	0.15	0.11	-0.04	0
metacognitive CQ	(.70)**	(.82)**						
motivational CQ			0.32	0.45				
cognitive CQ					(.47)**	(.44)**		
behavioral CQ							(.29)*	(.37)*
perceived diversity climate 2	0.21	0.15	0.28	0.22	(.35)**	(.34)**	(.29)*	0.26
work * MC		-0.2						
work* MOT				-0.35				
work * COG						-0.17		
work * BEH								0.19
work * diversity		-0.08		-0.05		-0.02		0.01
R^2	0.36	0.41	0.17	0.23	0.31	0.31	0.21	0.22

Table 2.20

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.14	0.18	0.2	0.14	0.17
pre-hire materials	-0.3	-0.03	-0.07	-0.07	0.01	-0.03	-0.13	-0.13
work style dissimilarity	(.50)**	0.43	0.14	0.06	0.24	0.17	0.01	0
metacognitive CQ	(.72)**	(.83)**						
motivational CQ			0.25	0.35				
cognitive CQ					(.57)**	(.53)**		
behavioral CQ							(.29)*	(.35)*
perceived diversity climate 2	0.22	0.17	(.31)**	0.27	(.37)**	(.36)**	(.30)*	0.29
work * MC		(-.21)*						
work* MOT				-0.34				
work * COG						-0.2		
work * BEH								0.16
work * diversity		0.01		0.08		0.05		0.11
R^2	0.37	0.43	0.16	0.22	0.39	0.4	0.21	0.23

Table 2.21

proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)

	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	0	0.04	0.03	0.1	0.21	0.22	0.12	0.13
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.09	-9	-0.12	-0.03	-0.02	-0.16	-0.13
category dissimilarity	0	0.11	-0.06	-0.04	0.23	0.03	-0.05	-0.14
metacognitive CQ	0.23	(.63)**						
motivational CQ			0.12	0.27				
cognitive CQ					(.62)**	0.56		
behavioral CQ							0.25	0.23
perceived diversity climate 2	0.22	0.09	0.24	0.17	(.25)*	0.2	0.21	0.2
category * MC		(-.58)**						
category * MOT				(-.48)*				
category * COG						-0.26		
category * BEH								-0.18
category * diversity		0.32		0.26		0.25		0.29
R^2	0.12	0.26	0.09	0.19	0.39	0.45	0.14	0.17

Table 2.22

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)								
	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	-0.09	-0.07	-0.08	-0.03	0.09	0.09	-0.04	-0.04
pre-hire materials	-0.06	-0.07	-0.07	-0.09	-0.03	-0.02	-0.1	-0.1
category dissimilarity	-0.2	-0.14	-0.31	-0.32	-0.05	-0.17	-0.3	-0.39
metacognitive CQ	0.31	(.58)**						
motivational CQ			0.03	0.17				
cognitive CQ					(.53)**	(.55)**		
behavioral CQ							0.1	0.11
perceived diversity climate 2	0.16	0.07	0.21	0.16	0.2	0.22	0.2	0.2
category * MC		(-.41)*						
category * MOT				-0.4				
category * COG						-0.01		
category * BEH								-0.01
category * diversity		0.26		0.26		0.27		0.2
R^2	0.17	0.24	0.11	0.18	0.33	0.35	0.12	0.13

Table 2.23

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)								
	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	0.12	0.13	0.18	0.23	0.25	0.25	0.24	0.22
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.12	0.11	0.06	0.01
category dissimilarity	0.05	0.01	0.03	-0.08	0.17	-0.11	0.02	-0.17
metacognitive CQ	0.22	(.66)**						
motivational CQ			0.24	(.43)**				
cognitive CQ					(.41)**	(.40)**		
behavioral CQ							0.26	0.27
perceived diversity climate 2	0.28	-0.01	0.29	0.08	(.31)*	0.18	0.27	0.23
category * MC		(-.63)**						
category * MOT				(-.54)**				
category * COG						-0.15		
category * BEH								0.15
category * diversity		(.64)*		0.52		0.48		0.29
R^2	0.15	0.37	0.16	0.31	0.26	0.32	0.18	0.21

Table 2.24

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	0.14	0.15	0.22	0.23	0.21	0.21	0.19	0.2
pre-hire materials	-0.19	-0.19	-0.22	-0.21	-0.18	-0.16	-0.23	-0.19
category dissimilarity	-0.15	-0.24	-0.17	-0.36	-0.15	-0.34	-0.24	(-.46)**
metacognitive CQ	(.29)*	(.52)**						
motivational CQ			(.31)*	(.36)*				
cognitive CQ					0.21	0.27		
behavioral CQ							0.11	0.1
perceived diversity climate 2	(.27)**	0.22	(.26)*	(.37)*	(.31)**	(.37)**	(.31)**	(.31)**
category * MC		(-.38)**						
category * MOT				-0.13				
category * COG						0.08		
category * BEH								-0.25
category * diversity		0.15		0.23		(.49)*		(.58)**
R^2	0.3	0.41	0.3	0.37	0.27	0.35	0.25	0.34

Table 2.25

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	-0.11	-0.08	-0.06	-0.01	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.01
pre-hire materials	0.11	0.09	0.08	0.06	0.13	0.14	0.01	0
category dissimilarity	0.03	0.17	9.1	-0.1	0.08	-0.09	-0.11	-0.23
metacognitive CQ	(.49)**	(.89)**						
motivational CQ			0.21	0.36				
cognitive CQ					(.46)**	(.43)**		
behavioral CQ							(.28)*	(.31)*
perceived diversity climate 2	(.26)*	0.14	(.32)*	0.26	(.35)**	(.34)**	(.30)*	(.32)*
category * MC		(-.58)**						
category * MOT				(-.46)*				
category * COG						-0.12		
category * BEH								0.12
category * diversity		-0.08		0.28		0.26		0.2
R^2	0.29	0.43	0.16	0.26	0.3	0.33	0.22	0.24

Table 2.26

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)								
	model 15		model 16		model 17		model 18	
intern	-0.05	-0.03	-0.04	0.01	0.1	0.1	0.06	0.06
pre-hire materials	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.03	-0.09	-0.09
category dissimilarity	-0.28	-0.25	-0.41	(-.50)**	-0.21	(-.42)*	(-.39)**	(-.57)**
metacognitive CQ	(.37)**	(.75)**						
motivational CQ			0.06	0.18				
cognitive CQ					(.44)**	(.43)**		
behavioral CQ							0.24	(.27)*
perceived diversity climate 2	(.33)**	0.22	(.40)**	(.35)**	(.40)**	(.40)**	(.35)**	(.37)**
category * MC		(-.56)**						
category * MOT				-0.38				
category * COG						-0.1		
category * BEH								0.02
category * diversity		-0.23		0.41		0.4		0.37
R^2	0.33	0.48	0.25	0.33	0.39	0.44	0.3	0.34

Table 2.27

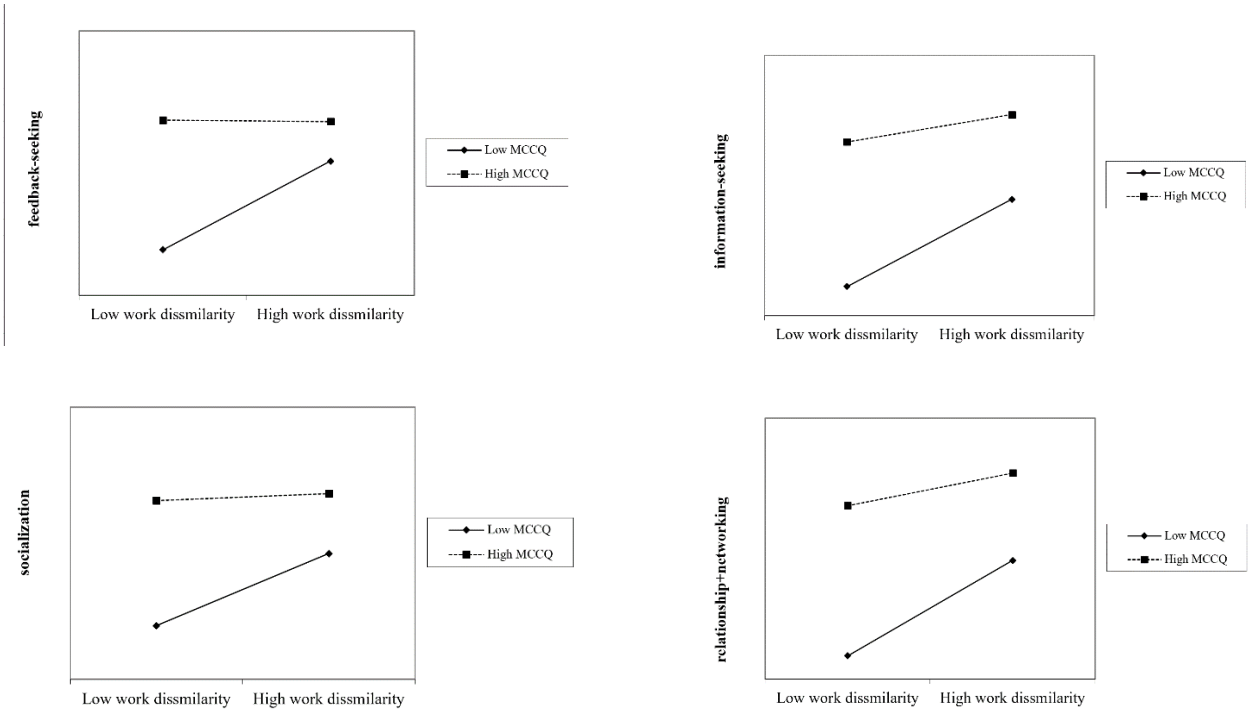


Figure 2.2-2.5 (work dissimilarity*metacognitive CQ)

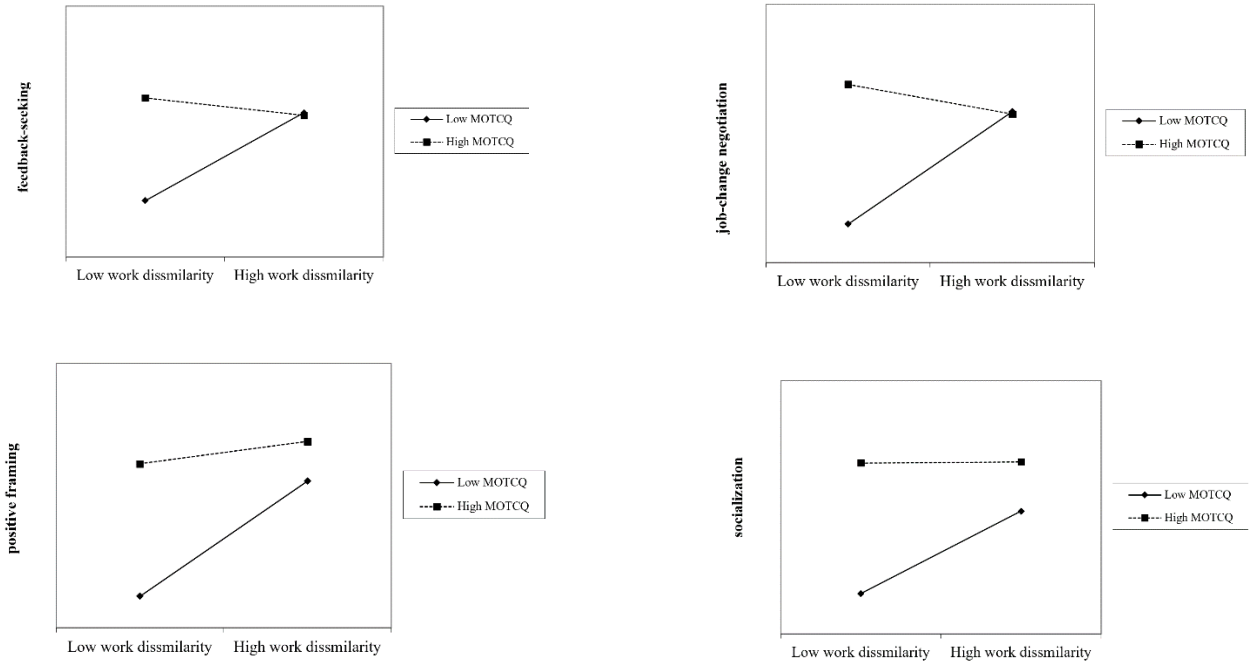


Figure 2.6-2.9 (work dissimilarity*motivational CQ)

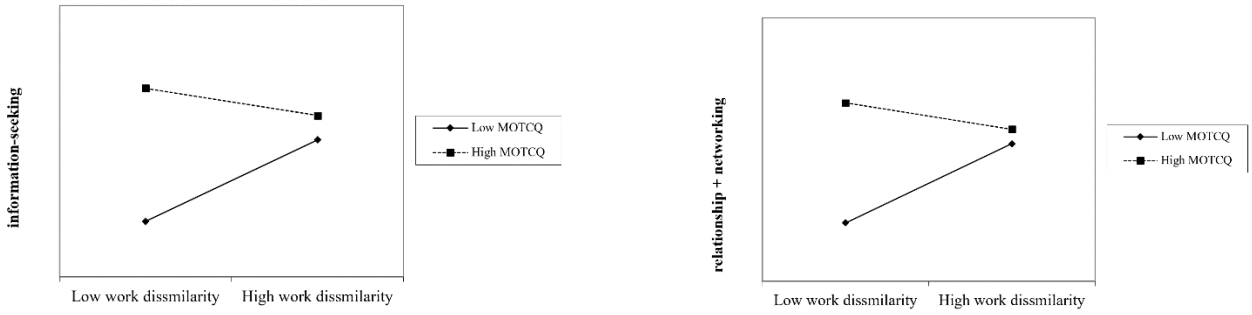


Figure 2.10 (work dissimilarity*motivational CQ) Figure 2.11

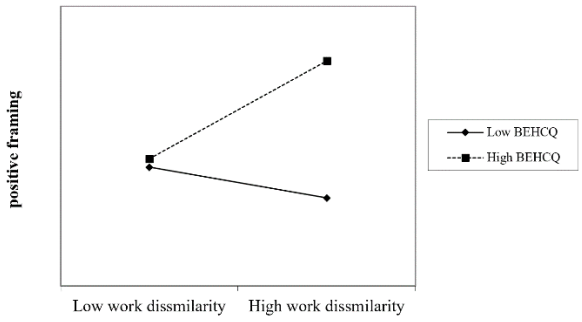


Figure 2.12 (work dissimilarity*behavioral CQ)

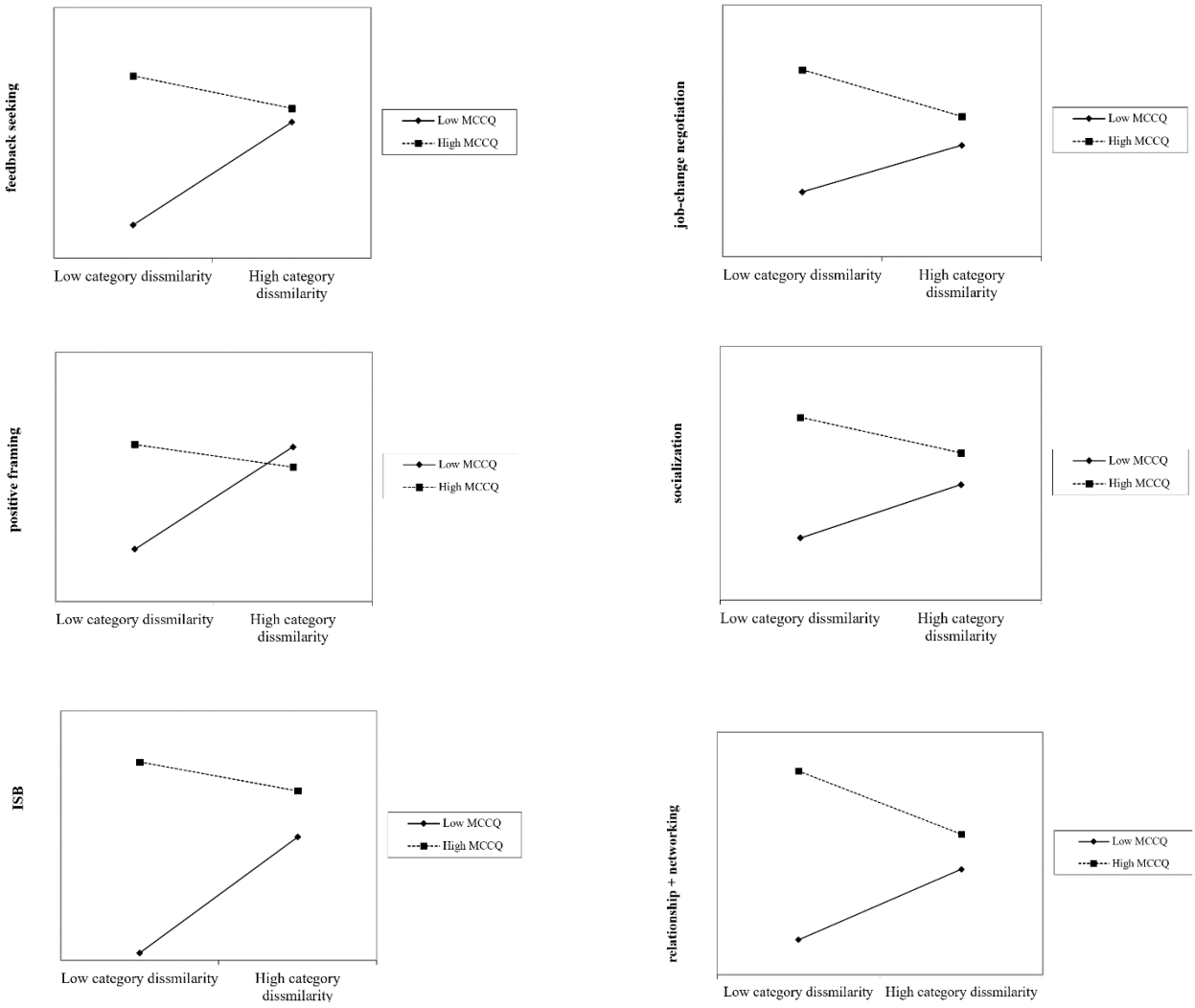
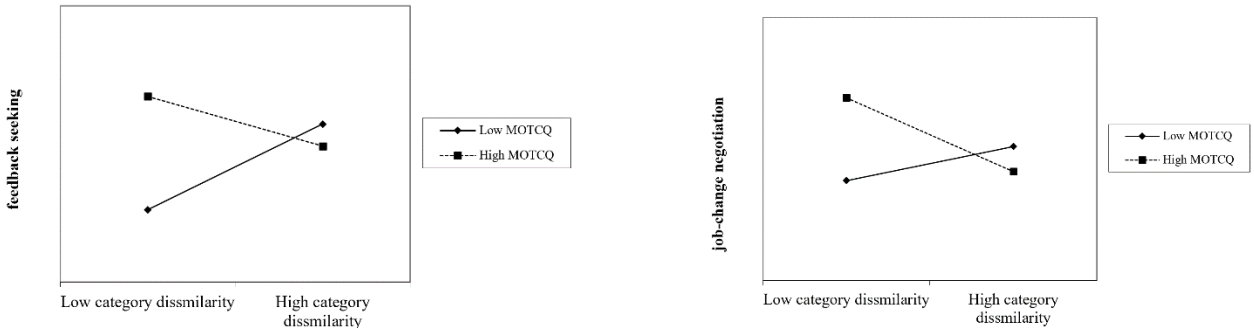


Figure 2.13-2.18 (category dissimilarity*metacognitive CQ)



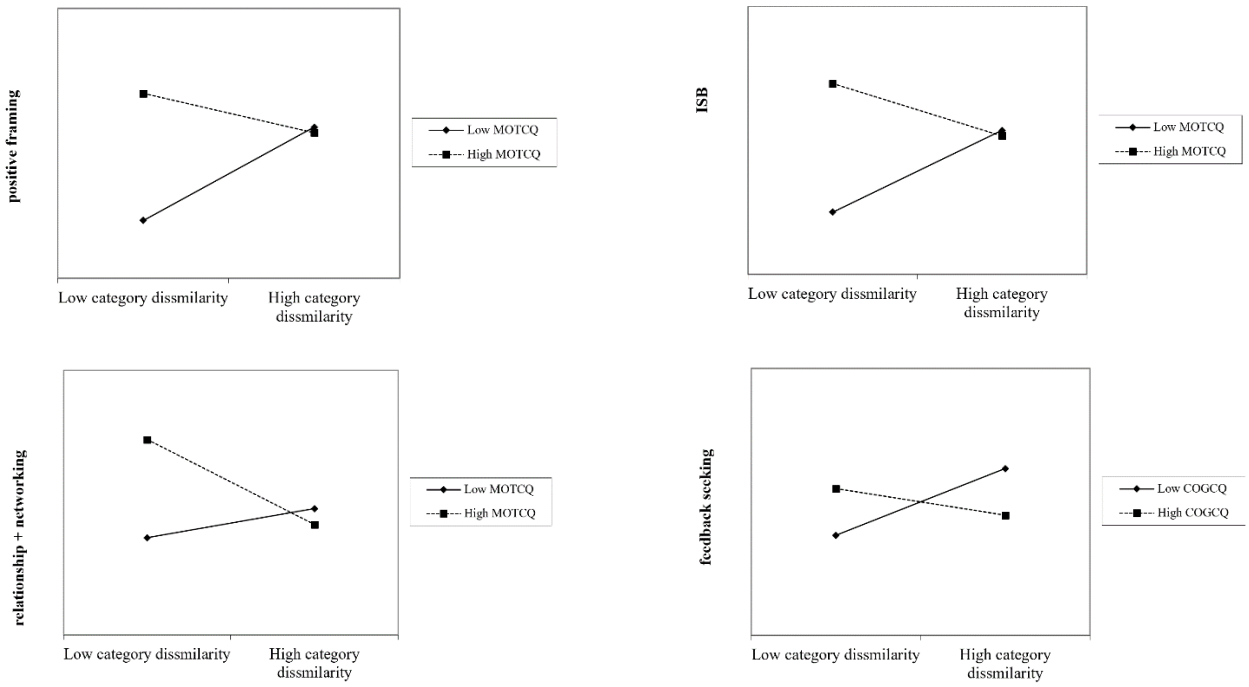


Figure 2.19-2.24 (category dissmilarity*motivational CQ/cognitive CQ)

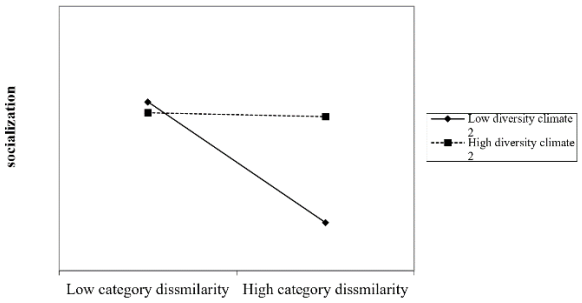


Figure 2.25 (category dissimilarity*perceived diversity climate)

The findings of CQ's interaction effect are largely opposite to my hypothesis, with the exception of behavioral CQ. One possible explanation is that with the high levels of conscious cultural awareness and the motivation to learn about another culture (Ang and Van Dyne 2008, Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, and Rockstuhl 2012), newcomers might raise concerns about the potential costs associated with interacting with people who are dissimilar with themselves through activities

such as information seeking, relationship building and networking. On the other side, when their cultural awareness and motivation to learn about another culture are low, they are less worried about the costs associated with proactive socialization as well, leading to more feedback-seeking, job-change negotiation, positive framing, and relationship-building behaviors. Similarly, when newcomers don't have much actual knowledge about the different cultures, they may not have the concerns about the potential costs, hence would be more likely to engage in proactive socialization behaviors such as positive framing. If this is the case, then the perceived diversity climate should be able to relieve their concerns about the potential costs associated with proactive socialization to some extent. In order to test my assumption, I insert perceived both diversity climate and cultural intelligence into the current model as moderators. The findings show support to my assumptions. To be specific, the influence of metacognitive and motivational CQ on the relationship between perceived work style dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors (except job-change negotiation and positive framing) are either reduced or canceled out (table 2.16-2.21). Similarly, the influence of high metacognitive and motivational CQ on the relationship between perceived category dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors (except positive framing) are either reduced or canceled out (table 2.22-2.27). When there is a high level of perceived diversity climate, newcomers' feedback-seeking, socialization, information-seeking, relationship-building and networking are promoted when they feel different from others in work styles, no matter what levels of CQ they have. The interaction effect of cognitive CQ on the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors follows the same pattern when the diversity climate is included in the model as an additional moderator. These findings provide support to my assumption that it is the awareness of, and the motivation to learn about another culture raised newcomers' concern of the potential costs, leading to reduced proactive socialization

behaviors. However, the effect of CQ is reduced when there is strong perceived diversity climate, which could mitigate newcomers' concerns and promote proactive socialization behaviors.

I also test the effect of perceived diversity climate as the single moderator in the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors. As indicated in table 1, the hypothesis is supported. As shown in Figure2.25, when the perceived diversity climate is low, newcomers perceiving more work dissimilarity tend to engage in fewer socialization behaviors (ß = 0.44, R^2 = 0.06, P = 0.09).

Discussion

I focus on the anticipatory socialization stage in the paper. I collect the independent variable (perceived dissimilarity) and individual factor (CQ) before organizational entry. Since newcomers can only experience the organizational climate after organizational entry, I collect the moderator variable of perceived diversity climate two weeks after organization entry. I then measure newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors three months after their organizational entry, since this would give them adequate time to reach out to the existing employees. I conduct confirmatory factor analysis for perceived dissimilarity, CQ, and proactive socialization behaviors and adopt the 3-factor model of CQ (combining metacognitive and motivational CQ), 2-factor model of perceived dissimilarity (work style and categorical dissmilarity), and 6-factor model of proactive socialization behavior (combining relationship building and networking behaviors). After testing the theoretical model, I find support for hypothesis 2. The relationship between categorical dissimilarity and general socialization behavior is moderated by perceived diversity climate. When the perceived diversity climate is low, employees perceiving higher levels of

category dissimilarity tend to engage in less general socialization behaviors. The outcome for hypothesis 1 is largely against my prediction, however. Newcomers who perceive higher levels of work style and category dissimilarity tend to engage in less proactive socialization behaviors when they have high levels of metacognitive, motivational, and cognitive CQ. Likely, newcomers with higher cultural awareness and knowledge and motivation to learn another culture tend to raise concerns about the potential costs of proactive socialization when they see themselves as different from the majority. However, we find that the perceived diversity climate could reduce these concerns and facilitate newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors when they feel dissimilar from the majority, no matter what levels of CQ they have. This finding implies that high levels of CQ mitigate the relationship between perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behavior through raising concerns of costs associated with it, validating my suggestion. However, CQ's influence is not strong enough compared to the effect of perceived diversity climate, as the latter cancels out the former's effect when included in the same model simultaneously.

Limitation and Future Direction

Since I primarily focus on the anticipatory socialization stage in this paper, perceived dissimilarity is only measured before the organizational entry. However, the level of perceived dissimilarity could change as newcomers start working in the organization and actually interact with the existing employees. Future studies could collect data on newcomers' perceived dissimilarity after entering the organization, interacted with their coworkers and supervisors for a certain period of time, and compare the new value with the pre-entry measurement. Also, in order to study the anticipatory stage of socialization, I collected data solely from college students who are about to graduate and will start working right after graduation. However, anticipatory socialization does not only occur to people who have zero official work experience, but also

happens to people who are transferring from another organization, another department, or another team. Besides, most college students are at the age of 21-25, which only represents the small portion of the large population of the newcomers and would be seen in a stereotypical way (e.g., millennials are self-centered). Also, it is possible that their lack of work experiences strengthened their concerns during proactive socialization with dissimilar others, so that they would be even less proactive when they aware of and motivated to learn about the new culture. Future studies could test the effect of CQ on experienced workers who transit from one organization or one team to another to see if CQ could promote proactive socialization with dissimilar others for experienced newcomers. Further, most college graduates would target white-collar positions when looking for jobs, while only a small portion of college graduates will end up with positions in blue-collar industries. Hence the result I got here might only work for white-collar industries. However, the socialization process for blue-collar positions might be different, with blue-collar workers possibly score lower in CQ, and the transfer of learning becomes more important for their jobs. Hence, future research could try to replicate our findings on blue-collar working groups and compare the outcome to the results in this study.

My measurement also suffers from a significant drop in respondent numbers. Since the dependent variable is collected at the beginning of COVID-19, the respondents might be too frightened by the pandemic crisis to turn in the survey in a timely manner, resulting in the small sample size in this study. Future studies could re-test the current theoretical model with larger, more diverse samples, and include the potential influence of COVID-19 into the model. Lastly, this study only examined the dissimilar newcomers' anticipatory socialization process. I suggest future studies to expand the timeline and examine dissimilar newcomers' socialization in accommodation and role-making stages as well.

Conclusion and contribution

This paper takes a unique perspective to focus on newcomer employees who perceive to be different from the majority of incumbent employees in the organization. I also contribute to the socialization literature in that I focus on the anticipatory socialization stage, which is largely ignored in the organizational socialization research. I am also the first to include CQ into the organizational socialization research, since CQ should also apply to organizational culture. Besides, instead of treating the contextual factor as the underlying background in which the socialization process occurs, I bring in the perceived diversity climate as a moderator in the current theoretical model. I investigate the influence of individual and contextual factors on the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and their proactive socialization behavior. The findings suggest that a perceived diversity climate reduces newcomers' concerns about costs associated with proactive socialization with dissimilar. The influence of the strong perceived diversity climate could neutralize the influence of CQ. When newcomers are aware of and motivated to learn about the new culture, their perceived dissimilarity with the incumbents is also strengthened, leading to greater concerns and less proactive socialization activities. However, the strong perceived diversity climate cancels out this effect, so that the hindering effect of CQ is only salient when the perceived diversity climate is also low, and the CQ's effect disappears when the perceived diversity climate is high. I believe the moderated moderation effect (Hayes 2017) of CQ and perceived diversity climate could further shed light on the organizational socialization literature.

Practical Implications

This paper provides several implications for practice. First of all, the newcomers without work experience may be more reluctant to proactively socialize with dissimilar others when they have a high awareness of and motivation to learn about a different culture. To facilitate proactive

socialization behaviors, organizations could establish mentor programs of networking events that connect new graduates with other young professionals or alumni who just transitioned from school to work, reducing their perceived distance between the organizational culture and college culture. Also, establishing a diverse and inclusive organizational climate is particularly helpful in promoting proactive socialization behaviors at the anticipatory stage of socialization. Organizations could establish programs facilitating the fit and acceptance of newcomer employees, as well as setting role models who share similar backgrounds as newcomers in the organization. Finally, since this study has been impacted by the COVID-19 and the accompanying work-from-home mode, proactive socialization became more challenging. Dissimilar newcomers might perceive more costs, especially effort costs, associated with proactive socialization as a result. To mitigate their concerns, organizations could provide distance socialization programs featuring more frequent and available webinars organized by alumni and experienced employees, more informational Q&A sessions, and more approachable remote assistance from organizational insiders.

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Although information-seeking efforts during organisational entry are of critical importance to newcomers' successful organisational assimilation, the means by which new hires seek information has received scant research attention. Consequently, in this article we develop a theoretical model depicting factors that may affect newcomers' information-seeking behaviors, examine the means or tactics by which they seek information, and present a series of heuristically-oriented propositions concerning newcomers' use of these tactics.

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Appendix

Variable	Scale
Perceived Dissimilarity	(Zeller-Bruhn et al. 2008) Perceived Similarity
	1. Members of my team share a similar work ethic 2. Members of my team have similar work habits 3. Members of my team have similar communication styles 4. Members of my team have similar interaction styles 5. Members of my team have similar personalities 6. Members of my team come from common cultural backgrounds 7. Members of my team are from the same country 8. Members of my team share similar ethnic backgrounds
Cultural Intelligence (CQ)	(Ang, Van Dyne, et al. 2007) CQS
	Metacognitive CQ (MC) 1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds 2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me 3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions 4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures Cognitive CQ (COG) 1. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures

	2. I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages 3. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures 4. I know the marriage systems of other cultures 5. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures 6. I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures Motivational CQ (MOT) 1. I enjoy interacting with people from different culture 2. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me 3. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me 4. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me 5. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture Behavioral CQ (BEH) 1. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it 2. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations 3. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it 4. I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it 5. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it
Perceived Diversity Climate	(Pugh et al. 2008)
	1. "[The company] makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted"

	2. "Where I work, employees are developed advanced without regard to the gender or the racial, religious, or cultural background of the individual" 3. "Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce" 4. "I feel that my immediate manager/supervisor does a good job of managing people with diverse backgrounds (in terms of age, sex, race, religion, or culture)."
Proactive Socialization Behaviors	(Ashford & Black 1996)
	To what extent have you… Feedback-seeking 1. Sought feedback on your performance after assignments? 2. Solicited critiques form your boss? 3. Sought out feedback on your performance during assignments? 4. Asked for your boss's opinion of your work? Job-change negotiation 5. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about desirable job changes? 6. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about your task assignments? 7. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about the demands placed on you? 8. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about their expectations of you? Positive framing 9. Tried to see your situation as an opportunity rather than a threat? 10. Tried to look on the bright side of things?

	11. Tried to see your situation as a challenge rather than a problem? General socialization 12. Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)? 13. Attended company social gatherings? 14. Attended office parties? Relationship-building 15. Tried to spend as much times as you could with your boss? 16. Tried to form a good relationship with your boss? 17. Worked hard to get to know your boss? Networking 18. Started conversations with people from different segments of the company? 19. Tried to socialize with people who are not in your department? 20. Tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis? Information-seeking 21. Tried to learn the (official) organizational structure? 22. Tried to learn the important policies and procedures in the organization? 23. Tried to learn the politics of the organization? 24. Tried to learn the (unofficial) structure?

List of variables

Essay 3: Socialization in the modern age: how do dissimilar newcomer employees socialize within diverse organizations

Lu Yu

This article is the third essay of the three dissertation essays. In the first essay, I reviewed the organizational socialization literature, summarized the theory background, and listed the four research perspectives of organizational socialization in chronicle order. At the end of the first essay, I provided a brief introduction about the integrative model, which consolidates the four research perspectives and targets the newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from the majority in diversity organizational climate. The second essay concentrated on the anticipatory stage of dissimilar newcomers' socialization process and tested the predicting effect of individual and contextual factors on their proactive socialization behaviors during the anticipatory stage. In this essay, I will focus on dissimilar newcomers' socialization experiences during the last two stages of the organizational socialization process (accommodation and role management stage) and examine the individual and contextual factors' influence on their proactive socialization behaviors, as well as adjustment outcomes.

Introduction

Organizational socialization is defined as "the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group he is entering" (Schein 1988). Scholars have adopted four main perspectives to study organizational socialization, including (a) the stage model (Feldman 1976), which divides the socialization process into anticipatory, accommodation, and role management stages. Each stage has different focuses and involves different sets of socialization behaviors. As newcomers start in

new environments, they are expected to go through the three socialization stages consecutively; (b) organizational socialization tactics (Van Maanen and Schein 1979), which classifies the tactics that organizations might use when socializing their newcomer employees into six categories, with formal (*vs.* informal) and collective (*vs*. individual) tactics studying the socialization context, sequential (*vs*. random) and fixed (*vs*. variable) tactics studies the socialization content, and serial (*vs*. disjunctive) and investiture (*vs*. divestiture) tactics focusing on the socialization process. The formal, collective, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics are also defined as institutionalized tactics, whereas informal, individual, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics are individualized tactics. Both institutionalized and individualized tactics have their pros and cons, and are adopted selectively by organizations; (c) socialization content (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994), which goes beyond how newcomers learn during socialization to discuss what do they learn during this process. There are three major directions of learning: the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and abilities; the general adjustment; and the organization (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Some scholars (e.g., Fisher 1986, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, (Fisher 1986)) conceptualized social content as newcomer learning and examined its antecedents and consequences; (d) the interactionist perspective (Reichers 1987), which suggests that newcomers are naturally inclined to assume that they receive less information than they need during the passive socializing process, especially when they experience reality shock after organizational entry. To deal with this situation, they tend to act proactively to interact with organizational insiders. The proactive socialization behaviors are also labeled as individual tactics, in comparison to the organizational tactics (Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007, Chao 2012).

The organizational socialization scholars have spent much effort integrating the four different perspectives in the last few years. For example, Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2015)

explicitly distinguished the socialization content and socialization process and proposed that the formal organizational practices, the organizational and adjustment-specific climate, and the socialization agents are the context variables that are predicting the newcomers' socialization content and process, respectively. In their model, the formal organizational practices and organizational climate would stimulate the learning about socialization content, while adjustment-specific climate and socialization agents (e.g., leaders, coworkers, clients) would facilitate the socialization process and boost the amount of learning. On the contrary, Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) defined socialization content as newcomer learning (amount and different types of information) and put it in their integrated model as a mediator between the socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment outcomes. To be specific, they suggest that both organizational (institutionalized/individualistic socialization tactics) and individual socialization tactics (newcomer proactivity) could contribute to newcomer learning (socialization content), and all together, could eventually enhance newcomers' adjustment experiences in the new environment. This process also goes across the three stages of organizational socialization as newcomers' careers advance. During the accommodation stage, organizational and individual socialization tactics occur at the beginning of newcomers' organizational entry, and one indicator of being accommodated in the new organization would be the measure of newcomer learning. The actual adjustment outcomes are measured at the role management stage, in which newcomers are largely acclimatized to the new environment but might still need to fine-tune some minor aspects of their roles. Similarly, Saks and Ashforth (1997), though did not directly equal the newcomer learning to socialization content, claimed that organizational and individual socialization tactics work together to facilitate the acquirement of information, uncertainty reduction, and newcomer learning, these together would then lead to a series of proximal and distal outcomes. However,

none of these integrative models target specific newcomer groups' organizational socialization experience. As the US workforce becomes progressively diverse, the individual and context multiplicity play an increaingly important role in newcomers' socialization experiences. In this essay, I build a new integrative model that incorporates the organizational and individual tactics and empirically examine their interactional effect on dissimilar newcomer employees' socialization experience during the accommodation and role management stages.

The proposed model focuses explicitly on newcomers who perceive to be different from the organization's primary workforce in various aspects. The existing organizational socialization process literature has paid surprisingly little attention to the dissimilar newcomers: most studies concerning dissimilar newcomers concentrated on their general socialization processes that occur outside of organizations (with the exception of Buono and Kamm 1983, Allen 1996, Malik, Cooper-Thomas et al. 2014. Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). Also, even though some of the organizational socialization studies were conducted in diversity contexts (Johnston and Packer 1987, Morrison and Von Glinow 1990, Offermann and Gowing 1990, Friedman and DiTomaso 1996, Mannix and Neale 2005), they seldom examine the role that diversity climate plays in the organizational socialization process empirically. Therefore, I seek to examine the dissimilar newcomer employees' socialization process in the diversity climate in this study: How do dissimilar newcomers socialize in diverse organizations? What makes their socialization processes unique? What is the role that diversity climate playing here? To answer these questions, I collected data from 745 college students and followed them from the time they just accepted the job offer to six months after entering the organization, aiming to capture all three stages of the organizational socialization process but with an emphasis on the accommodation and role management stages. Also, incorporating the interactionist perspective (Schneider and Reichers 1983), I contend that

the individual differences would interact with various contextual factors to influence the newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors. The individual differences being studied in this article include both the perceived dissimilarity of newcomer employees and their cultural intelligence levels (CQ). The contextual factors consist of the organization's diversity climate, coworker, supervisor, and organizational support, and the organizational socialization tactics being adopted during the early socialization stage. Figure 3.1 depicts the theoretical model for this essay.

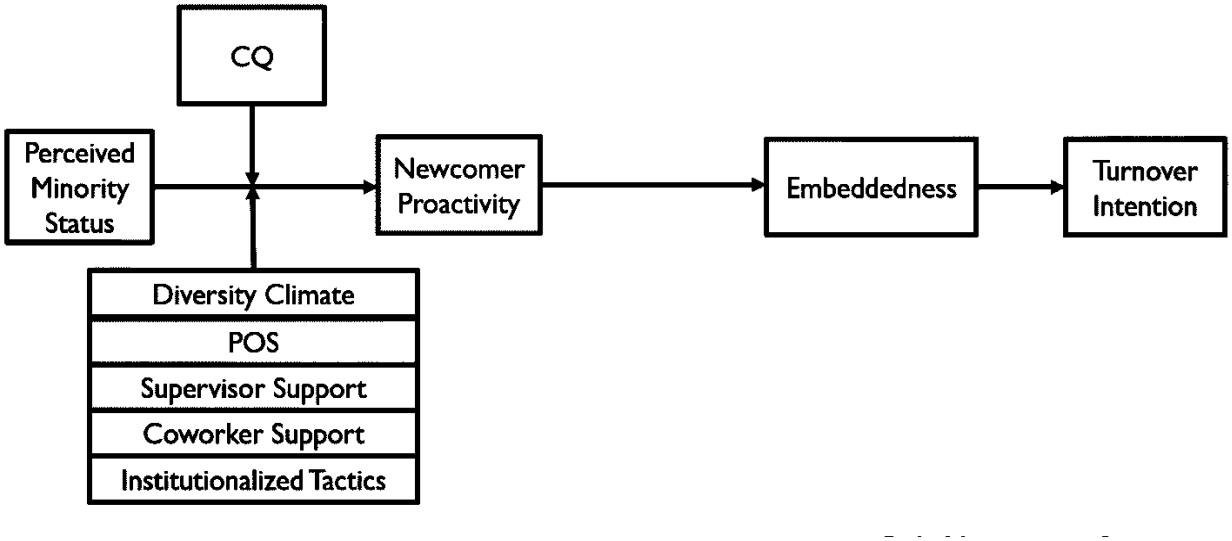

Figure 3.1

Our study contributes to the socialization literature in the following ways. First, I examine the organizing socialization process from dissimilar newcomers' perspectives by examining the interaction effect between their individual differences and contextual factors on the adjustment outcomes. Most research on dissimilar newcomer employees' socialization concentrates on their general socialization process that includes, but not exclusively emphasizing on the socialization activities within the organization (with the exception of Buono and Kamm 1983, Allen 1996,

Malik, Cooper-Thomas, et al. 2014, Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). This essay investigates the dissimilar newcomers' socialization process across three stages within the organizational context. Second, I incorporate diverse organizational climate into the theoretical model and examine the active role it plays when predicting the newcomers' proactive socialization activities. Namely, I include diversity climate as a moderating variable that interacts with newcomers' perceived dissimilarity to promote their proactive socialization behaviors during the accommodation stage of socialization. Third, I consider newcomers' cultural intelligence levels (CQ) as part of individual differences that could influence their proactivity (Schneider and Reichers 1983). There has been abundant research regarding how individual difference would predict or influence newcomers' proactivity during the socialization process in domestic organizations (Teboul 1995, Ashford and Black 1996, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, Finkelstein, Kulas, et al. 2003, De Vos, Buyens, et al. 2005, Tyson, Linnenbrink-Garcia, et al. 2009). However, none of them tested the effect of CQ on newcomers' proactive behaviors in the domestic context. I suggest that CQ plays a vital role in newcomers' socialization. CQ encompasses an individual's capacity to correctly interpret, acknowledge, and incorporate the verbal and nonverbal cues, and take actions to learn about the different culture. Considering organizational culture as a new culture that needs to be learned and embraced, a high level of CQ is desirable for all employees in both international and domestic contexts. I also involved three levels of support (coworker, supervisor, and organizational) as the contextual factors that could influence dissimilar newcomers' proactive activities. To be specific, I propose that the support could mitigate newcomers' concerns associated with proactive socialization, encouraging them to be more proactive. Also, the promoting effect of three levels of support on proactive socialization varies, with coworker support having the most potent effect, followed by supervisor support, and the effect of organizational support being the

weakest. Finally, I integrate the three different research perspectives in this study (the stage model, socialization tactics, and the interactionist perspective) and examine their combined influence on newcomers' adjustment empirically. Namely, I collected data from college graduates who just accepted the job offers and followed up for six months to capture their socialization processes throughout the three socialization stages. In this study, I primarily focus on the accommodation and role management stage of newcomer socialization and test the interaction effect of organizational socialization tactics and newcomers' perceived dissimilarity on their proactive socialization behaviors and the adjustment outcomes.

In the following section, I will review the three research perspectives and the theoretical background, and introduce the key constructs and how they are connected to form the hypotheses. Implication and future directions are discussed at the end of the esssay.

Theoretical Background

The Stage Model of Socialization

The organizational socialization research can be traced back to the 1950s (Samuel 1957). The early organizational socialization literature took the process perspective (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Louis, Posner, et al. 1983), in which the organizational socialization process was often divided into anticipatory, accommodation, and role management stages (Feldman 1976). The anticipatory stage depicts how employees develop expectations about the organization based on the information they acquire before the organizational entry. The accommodation stage starts from employees' organization entry, during which employees experience a series of sensemaking and adaptive activities and eventually achieve a more stable adjusted status. The stabilized status is described as the role management stage, during which employees are largely familiarized with the

organization and only some "fine-tuning" is needed. Since this study primarily focuses on the accommodation and role management stages, I will spend more time illustrating the last two organizational socialization stages.

The accommodation stage encompasses newcomer learning, sensemaking, and adjustment of an individual to the new role. It is considered the heart of organizational socialization. Individuals develop expectations about the organization during the anticipatory socialization stage, but often experience the "reality shock" (Dean 1983) upon entry. Since the information that individuals obtain prior to the organizational entry is always ambiguous, their expectations about the organization tend to be nebulous as well. The discrepancy between the "reality" and the expectation tends to overwhelm the newcomers and lead to a series of sensemaking and uncertainty reduction behaviors. If the requirements of the new role are inconsistent with that of newcomers' old role repertoire, newcomers would either resist the new ways of performing the role or be stimulated to adapt to the new role proactively (Louis 1980). The adjusting process would generate a revised role expectation, which would result in another round of comparison between the expectation and reality of the role. The organizational socialization during the accommodation stage is associated with the immediate needs of uncertainty reduction and sense of belonging. It is generally related to various proximal adjustment outcomes such as role clarity (Chan and Schmitt 2000, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006), role ambiguity (Hart and Miller 2005), work withdrawal (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003) and stress (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992), and so forth.

As the last stage of the organizational socialization process, the role management stage focuses on the adjustive activities required to become a full-fledged employee. The more profound level of learning in this stage can be obtained from the supervisors and organizational insiders who

no longer treat the individual as a newcomer, and the deeper learning adds details to the existing knowledge of the role. For this reason, individuals establish a deeper understanding of their coworkers, supervisors, and the organization than the previous stages, and mistakes would be less easily forgave (Chao 2012). The identity being formed at this stage may reflect various levels of acceptance of the new role, ranging from complete rejection to full internalization. Also, since newcomers are more stabilized during the last stage of socialization, the role management stage is generally linked to more distal adjustment outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, and turnover intention, etc. (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Taormina 1994, Klein and Weaver 2000, Reio Jr and Wiswell 2000, Cooper‐Thomas and Anderson 2002, Haueter, Macan, et al. 2003, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Cooper‐Thomas and Anderson 2005, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Chao 2012).

Socialization Tactics

The stage model provides us with a time frame in which each socialization activities are taken place in accordance with the need and focus of each stage. However, we are still not clear about how is each socialization behavior conducted. The socialization tactics describe the processes through which organizations socialize newcomer employees and the newcomers learn about and adapt to the new roles. The most widely used framework of organizational socialization tactics is Van Maanen, Schein et al.'s (1979) taxonomy, in which the socialization tactics are categorized on six bipolar continua, with each end signifying a distinct process. The six sets of tactics are further grouped into context tactics that describes the ways in which organizations deliver information to newcomers and includes formal (*vs.* informal) socialization tactics and collective (*vs.* individual) tactics; content tactics regarding the content of information that

newcomers learned during the socialization processes, including sequential (*vs.* random) tactics and fixed (*vs.* variable) tactics; and social tactics that 'provide social cues and facilitation necessary during learning processes' such as serial (*vs.* disjunctive) tactics and investiture (*vs.* divestiture) tactics (Jones 1986, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). Namely, the formal (*vs.* informal) socialization delineates whether newcomer employees are separated by providing training and orientation activities, and the collective (*vs.* individual) tactics outline whether newcomers are grouped together and offered common learning experiences during the socialization process. Also, the sequential (*vs.* random) tactics portray whether newcomers are socialized via having a 'lock-step series of adjustment experiences' by going through a specific order of assignments or positions (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). In contrast, the fixed (*vs.* variable) tactics characterized whether newcomers are moved from one task to another following a set timetable. Lastly, the serial (*vs.* disjunctive) tactic describes whether the information is learned from a role model such as a mentor, a supervisor, or an experienced coworker, while the investiture (*vs.* divestiture) tactics specify whether the organization affirms the newcomers' incoming identities, capabilities, and attributes. Among the six sets of socialization tactics, the collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics are identified as institutionalized tactics, while the individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics are defined as individualized tactics (Jones 1986). Unlike individualized socialization tactics that reflect a lack of formal structure and are generally associated with a role innovation orientation, with which newcomers are likely to initiate radical changes on the given roles and would disrupt the present state of affairs; institutionalized tactics socialize newcomers through a more structured and formalized process and are most likely associated with custodian role orientation, with which individuals are inclined to comply with the existing organizational image without challenging the current status quo, and make changes on the

basis of existing knowledge (Van Maanen and Schein 1979, Ashforth, Saks et al. 1997, Griffin, Colella, et al. 2000, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007, Chao 2012). Moreover, since institutionalized tactics encourage the passive reception of the structural and readily available information, it is expected to do a better job reducing the uncertainty inherent in early work experiences and be preferred over individualized tactics in most cases (Jones 1986, Ashforth, Saks, et al. 1997). I agree with this view and will discuss the positive influence of institutionalized socialization tactics on newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others in another section.

The interactionist perspective

The third organizational socialization research perspective being incorporated in this study is the interactionist perspective. The interactionist perspective's primary assumption is that individuals tend to believe that they are receiving less information than they actually need from the socialization agents, hence they would feel the need to proactively obtain additional information and resources that are not automatically granted (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). The interactionist perspective describes the symbolic verbal and social interactions between newcomers and organizational insiders during the socialization process, emphasizing the shared understanding of the two parties (Reichers 1987). One key derivative of the interactionist perspective is the information-seeking behavior (Miller and Jablin 1991, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993, Morrison 1993), which is later categorized as one of the seven proactive socialization behaviors (Ashford and Black 1996). Based on the interactionist perspective, newcomers who engage in proactive socialization behaviors could socialize themselves into the organizations through three mechanisms. They could either adapt their behaviors for a better fit or change the environment and role expectations from others to achieve better adjustment, or achieve mutual development for both parties (Cooper-Thomas and Burke 2012).

In comparison to the organization tactics that provide newcomers with the structural and standard information through formalized processes, proactive socialization activities encourage individuals to reach out to others to seek feedback about their behaviors and information about the role and the organization, establish the socialization network with supervisors and coworkers, and change the work environment or the role expectations both behaviorally and cognitively. Hence, proactive socialization is referred to as individual socialization tactics (Chao, 2012). The outcomes of newcomer proactivity can be categorized as proximal outcomes such as increased task mastery (Morrison 1993), role clarity (Jones 1986, Morrison 1993, Holder 1996), internal motivation (Ashforth and Saks 1996), decreased stress (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992) and task-specific anxiety (Saks and Ashforth 1996), and distal outcomes including acculturation (Morrison 1993), social integration (Morrison 1993), job satisfaction (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993, Ashford and Black 1996), organizational commitment (Jones 1986, Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992), job performance (Jones 1986, Morrison 1993, Ashford and Black 1996), adjustment (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992) and intention to quit (Ostroff and Kozlowski 1992, Morrison 1993). Previous studies also investigated the predicting variables for newcomer proactivity. For instance, socialization researchers generally found that individual differences such as proactive personality (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Thompson 2005), desire for control (Ashford and Black 1996), extraversion and openness to experience (Bauer and Green 1998, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller 2000, Sonnentag, Niessen, et al. 2004), a dispositional earing goal orientation (Bogler and Somech 2002, Godshalk and Sosik 2003) and self-efficacy(Saks and Ashforth 1997, Judge, Erez, et al. 2003, Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006), as well as contextual factors such as task interdependence, support from coworkers and managers (Feij, Whitely, et al. 1995, Major, Kozlowski, et al. 1995, Mignerey, Rubin, et al. 1995, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss,

et al. 2007), are positively related to newcomers' engagement in proactive socialization behaviors (Ashforth, Sluss et al. 2007).

In this study, I integrate the three perspectives of organizational studies to examine the dissimilar newcomers' socialization process empirically. To be specific, I propose that newcomers' individual differences (perceived dissimilarity and cultural intelligence) would positively relate to their degree of proactivity during socialization. At the same time, this relationship would be moderated by contextual factors such as support, perceived diverse organizational climate, and the organizational social tactics being used during the early socialization stage. As employees transition from the accommodation stage of socialization to the role management stage, their proactive socialization behaviors would lead to higher levels of job embeddedness and lower turnover intention.

In the next section, I will introduce the predominant theories and constructs used in this study.

Social Identity Theory

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981) states that individuals tend to categorize themselves and each other into social groups based on a series of stimuli. The similarity they share with other members in the same social group is defined as social identity. The membership of certain social groups comes with various benefits such as access to information and resources, knowledge sharing, social support from in-group members, and so forth. Individuals engage in self-categorization behaviors to reduce the uncertainty in the environment, meanwhile boost their self-esteem (Hogg and Terry 2001). For the same reason, individuals are also inclined to seek acceptance from the positively viewed groups and detach from the negatively viewed ones,

so that their social identity would align with the identity of the former groups (Tajfel, Turner, et al. 1979, Tajfel 1981, Peteraf and Shanley 1997).

Dissimilar newcomers are in particularly strong need to establish a new social identity in the new environment, compared with other newcomers. Since the background between them and most others are different in various ways, they tend to face more uncertainty during organizational entry and would be in greater demand for social support and access to information and resources. Therefore, newcomers perceiving dissimilar are expected to be more longing for the organizational insider group membership than others and would be more eager to take actions to achieve this goal.

Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Most organizational socialization research is built on uncertainty reduction theory, in which individuals are assumed to tend taking actions to improve the predictability of outcome during the initial interaction with others and reduce the anxiety caused by uncertainty in the environment (Berger and Calabrese 1974, Berger 1979, Berger and Bradac 1982). The uncertainty reduction process can be either proactive or reactive—individuals could either improve the predictability of the situation by anticipating the potential outcomes of specific actions and shape their behaviors during the interaction accordingly, or reduce uncertainty through sensemaking and learning from others' behaviors and reactions during the interaction. As ones' interpretation about the context become more accurate, their expectation about the outcomes of interactions would be closer to realistic as well. Hence, if the individual considers some outcomes to be more valuable than others, they would be more aware of their behavior during the interaction to maximize the likelihood of achieving that goal (Berger 1986).

It is widely agreed that newcomers would face enormous uncertainty during the organizational entry (Lester 1987, Miller and Jablin 1991, Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, et al. 1994, Ashford and Black 1996, Saks and Ashforth 1997, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Chao 2012). However, few studies focused specifically on newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from other employees. I suggest that dissimilar newcomers experience greater uncertainties than other newcomers since they need to deal with not only the ambiguities about the new role and new environment, but also the uncertainties about the cultural and behavioral differences when interacting with other employees. Combing with the social identity theory, since dissimilar newcomers are also in greater need of gaining the organizational insider group membership than other newcomers, they would put more effort in the socialization process to be accepted as one of the full-fledged employees when they sense support.

Hypotheses Development

Perceived Dissimilarity

Rather than being defined on the basis of static comparison between different social groups, the perceived dissimilarity should be contingent on subjective perceptions and contextual factors (Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992). Pugh, Dietz, et al. (2008) suggested that the perceived organizational diversity climate emerges from a sense-making process, which is strongly influenced by the organization's demographic composition. Building on this finding, I suggest that newcomers' perception of dissimilarity also emerges from a similar sense-making process and is influenced by the differences in demographic attributes, intrapersonal mediating processes, interpersonal manifestations, and more profound level characteristics among employees. The dissimilarity could be regarding the social category such as ethnic backgrounds, cultural backgrounds, nationalities, etc. but could also be in work styles such as work ethics, work habits, communication styles, etc.

The more different the newcomers think they are from most others in the organization, the more dissimilar is perceived. I further suggest that the perceived dissimilarity would lead to a series of barriers in newcomers' social interaction with organizational insiders. These barriers would lead to more uncertainties during the socialization process, causing a stronger need for the membership of the organizational insiders' group and the accompanying social support to reduce the uncertainty and improve the predictability of their outcomes behaviors.

Proactive Socialization Behavior (Newcomer Proactivity)

In order to facilitate the integration into the new organization, newcomers 'undertake active adaptation to maintain three conditions necessary for response: adequate information, adequate internal conditions, and flexibility or freedom of movement' (Ashford and Taylor 1990, Ashford and Black 1996). Ashford and Black (1996) identified seven proactive socialization activities that could help newcomers achieve this goal, including information- and feedback-seeking, job-change negotiating, positive framing, general socializing, relationship building, and networking.

Building on Ashford and Black's (1996) finding, I suggest that newcomers' proactive behaviors could be driven by their need for uncertainty reduction and the in-group membership of organizational insider groups and the accompanying benefits. To be specific, newcomers would engage in information- and feedback-seeking behaviors to obtain more knowledge about the new environment and gauge the appropriateness of their behaviors based on the feedback they gain. As a result, their uncertainty can be reduced through proactively predicting the behavioral expectations in the new environment and reactively adapting their behaviors based on the feedback they receive. As newcomers assimilate into the new settings, they are more likely to be accepted as organizational insiders. On the other hand, newcomers could also reduce uncertainty by altering the environment and the expectations about their roles (Berger 1986). To achieve that, they could

initiate job-change negotiation with organizational insiders and participate in the job structuring process. Alternatively, they could adopt positive framing tactics to influence the primary appraisal process and picture the difficult situations in through a positive lense. Both job-change negotiating and positive framing tactics strive to help newcomers reduce uncertainty and increase the predictability of the outcomes of their behaviors by changing the environment, either behaviorally or cognitively. As the outcomes of their behaviors become more predictable, newcomers would shape their expectations and pay more attention to monitoring their behaviors, and eventually become more acceptable to the organizational insiders. Lastly, general socializing, networking, and relationship building describe the formal and informal network establishment activities that occur both within and outside the organization. These activities help newcomers better identify with the organizational identity, acquiring appropriate skills, and understanding the normative standards and organizational policies (Reichers 1987, Morrison 1993). The instrumental and expressive benefits that come with the relationship networks would not only reduce newcomers' ambiguities about the roles and environment, but also get them accepted by the organizational insiders (Nelson and Quick 1991, Ashford and Black 1996).

The positive effect of newcomer proactivity on their adjustment outcomes has been empirically supported by various studies (Cooper‐Thomas and Anderson 2002, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003, Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007, Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). As newcomers gain more information and feedback about their behaviors and performance, they tend to have more explicit understandings of the role expectation and the environment. As they adapt their behaviors and mindsets over time, they tend to receive more recognition and social support from others, and become more satisfied with the work environment and find it easier to achieve better performance. Therefore, they would be more

likely to be considered qualified organizational insiders. Also, through actively participating in the job-change negotiating, newcomers do not just adjust the task sets to suit their skillsets, but could also alter how they perform the jobs. On the other hand, positive framing motivates newcomers to perform the jobs successfully by viewing problems or threats as challenges and opportunities (Ashford and Black 1996). Changing the job settings could help newcomers achieve satisfying job performance easier and receive positive evaluations from the organizational insiders, improving their adjustment. Finally, the relationship network built by formal and informal socializing tactics both within and outside the organization would not only provide employees with social support and easier access to the critical information resources, but make newcomers feel welcomed psychologically.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is defined as 'the capacity to function effectively in intercultural contexts' (Earley and Ang 2003, Ang and Van Dyne 2008). The most widely recognized conceptualization about CQ claimed that the CQ, like intelligence, consists of four loci, including metacognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, and behavioral CQ (Sternberg 1986, Klein, Fan, et al. 2006). To be specific, the cognitive CQ describes the understanding of the concrete socio-economical knowledge structure in certain cultures, and the appropriateness of certain behaviors in different cultural contexts. Metacognitive CQ, in comparison, reflects a higher-order cognition process, describing individuals' ability to go beyond acknowledging the new culture to incorporate it epistemically. The motivational CQ, on the other hand, portrays the mental capacity of directing the energy into and persist within the learning process. Lastly, behavioral CQ delineates the actual behaviors and capabilities to interpret and react to the verbal and nonverbal

actions properly in specific cultural contexts. The four dimensions of CQ, though qualitatively different from each other, aggregate together to form the overall CQ.

Although CQ plays a vital role in all newcomers' socialization process, I contend that dissimilar newcomers with higher levels of CQ are likely to be more proactive during the accommodation socialization stage than others. Having a higher level of overall CQ enables newcomers to acknowledge, learn, and adjust to the new context. Newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from others are under greater uncertainty due to the work style and background differences. Hence they would need more social support and recognition from the organizational insiders and would be more stimulated to learn and assimilate into the new settings. This is especially true during the accommodation socialization stage when newcomers just entered the organization and have a vague understanding of the organization's norms, standards, task sets, and structures. Since the organization's socialization tactics are the same for each newcomer, dissimilar newcomers would be motivated to gain more information and establish their networks more aggressively. If possible, they would strive to alter the work environment to fit their skills and workstyles better. Hence, I propose that the dissimilar newcomers with a higher level of overall CQ would engage in more proactive socialization behaviors during the accommodation socialization stage.

Hypothesis 1: At the accommodation stage, cultural intelligence (CQ) would interact with newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that perceived dissimilarity is positively related to newcomer's proactive socialization behaviors when CQ is high, but negatively related to the proactive socialization behaviors when CQ is low.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Diversity Organizational Climate

Due to the background and work style differences from most others, dissimilar newcomers would experience more uncertainty and anxiety during the socialization process. Namely, they would be attracted toward the organizational insider groups due to their advantageous status and accumulated expertise, therefore hope to be accepted as one of them. However, when organizational insiders view dissimilar newcomers as the outsiders of their social group and refuse to share the information and resources with them, dissimilar newcomers would perceive greater uncertainty and anxiety. In order to reduce the uncertainty and anxiety, dissimilar newcomers would need to adjust their behaviors to conform to the expectations of organizational insiders or seek ways to alter the expectations for their roles so that they could be accepted as one of the full-fledged employees (Jackson, Stone, et al. 1992).

However, when newcomers perceive to be dissimilar from most others, they become less proactive during socialization (Hurst, Kammeyer-Mueller, et al. 2012). According to the cost-value framework (Ashford 1986, Morrison and Vancouver 2000, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Park, Schmidt, et al. 2007, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015), newcomers tend to make conscious evaluations of the costs and benefits associated with their decisions before engaging in proactive socialization behaviors. The benefits of being proactive might include reduced uncertainty, improved role clarity, and the acceptance and the accompanying social support from organizational insiders. On the other hand, the costs are threefold. First of all, newcomers who ask questions about tasks and organizational policies, or some tacit social norms might be considered incompetent or even ignorant, leading to the image cost. The image costs are particularly worrisome for dissimilar newcomers during the accommodation socialization stage since they would encounter more barriers to learn about the new role and organization due to their

background dissimilarities. In addition, the image costs are especially salient for dissimilar newcomers who are susceptible to "stereotypical threat" (Steele and Aronson 1995). As a result, the dissimilar newcomers would not only prevent themselves from "losing face," but also be cautious of getting their entire social groups involved. Also, the less information the newcomers have at the accommodating stage, the more efforts are needed for proactive socialization. Nonetheless, the effort costs are especially burdensome for newcomers perceiving dissimilar, since they need invest more energy in interaction with the organizational insiders, but building the trusting relationship is more onerous for them than other newcomers due to the background and work style differences (Leigh 2006, Stolle, Soroka, et al. 2008, Hooghe, Reeskens, et al. 2009). Lastly, dissimilar newcomers might engage in more inference due to the image and effort concerns, though the inference outcome is often inaccurate. The inference costs will be escalated if new interpretations or decisions are made based on faulty inference.

However, newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from others do not always avoid proactive socialization during the accommodation stage. Previous studies suggested that the supportive organizational context could reduce the perceived costs associated with proactive socialization behaviors and therefore improve newcomer proactivity (Eisenberger, Huntington, et al. 1986, Eisenberger, Fasolo, et al. 1990, Madzar 1995, Vancouver and Morrison 1995, Miller and Levy 1997, Williams, Miller, et al. 1999, VandeWalle, Ganesan, et al. 2000, Levy, Cober, et al. 2002, Ashford, Blatt, et al. 2003, De Stobbeleir, Ashford, et al. 2011, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). I propose that the perceived diversity climate, being evaluated on the basis of employees' feels about how inclusive the organization is, how fair employees perceiving dissimilar would be treated comparing with others, how well does the organization do in acknowledging and incorporating different views, and whether the work environment is safe and comfortable enough for frequent

communication and social exchanges to occur between all social groups (Mor Barak, Cherin, et al. 1998, Ernst Kossek, Markel, et al. 2003, McKay, Avery, et al. 2007, Pugh, Dietz, et al. 2008), could also alleviate dissimilar newcomers' concerns about the various costs and eventually simulate their proactive socialization behaviors.

Hypothesis 2: At the accommodation stage, the perceived diversity organizational climate would interact with the newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that perceived dissimilarity is positively related to newcomer's proactive socialization behaviors with diversity climate is high, but negatively related to proactive socialization behaviors when diversity climate is low.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Support

During the organizational entry, newcomers tend to experience enormous uncertainty about their competence and social acceptance. In order to reduce the uncertainty, they tend to look for social support and validation from their peers, supervisors, and mentors (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). The social validation would not only reinforce their behaviors and performance but signal the narrowing credibility gap between newcomers' actions and the behavioral expectation for their roles (Felson 1992, Ashforth and Fugate 2001). Eventually, this validation would reduce newcomers' uncertainty about their competencies and promote social acceptance from organizational insiders. Hence, as newcomers encounter greater uncertainty, they are more likely to seek and appreciate the social support and validation from their coworkers and supervisors (Katz 1983). Following this logic, it is reasonable to posit that dissimilar newcomers would be in greater need of coworker and supervisor support since they tend to face more uncertainty during the socialization process. Previous socialization literature found that the support from coworkers and managers are positive predictors of various proactive tactics (Pinder and Schroeder 1987, Feij, Whitely, et al. 1995, Mignerey, Rubin, et al. 1995, Major and Kozlowski 1997, Saks and Ashforth

1997, Gruman, Saks, et al. 2006, Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). For example, Pinder and Schroeder (1987) found that employees being promoted to more complicated jobs reported mastering the new skills quickly when they receive support from their coworkers and supervisors. Also, Feij, Whitely et al. (1995) suggest that coworkers and supervisor support facilitate newcomers' adoption of career development strategies (i.e., career planning, help or advice seeking, communicating work goals and aspirations, developing skills, working extra hours, and networking). Contrarily, Walsh, Ashford et al. (1985) found that social agents' unavailability, combined with a high level of uncertainty, will thwart newcomer proactivity. Unfortunately, organizational members generally offer support before, and at the time of newcomers' organizational entry, the support would fade out as newcomers stay longer in the organization. The coworker and supervisor support is the most available during the anticipatory and early accommodation socialization stages, but less accessible in late accommodation and role management stages.

In addition, the perceived organizational support (POS) also encourages newcomers' proactive socialization (Eisenberger, Huntington et al. 1986, Eisenberger, Fasolo, et al. 1990, Ashford, Blatt, et al. 2003, De Stobbeleir, Ashford, et al. 2011, Anseel, Beatty, et al. 2015). POS is evaluated based on two criteria: (a) whether the organization value employees' contributions; and (b) whether the organization cares about employees' well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, et al. 1986). Recognizing newcomers' contribution and well-being signifies organizations' acknowledgment of newcomer employees' behaviors and performance, reducing newcomers' uncertainty about their competency and acceptance. Also, POS could positively influence newcomers' perceived possibility of successfully performing proactive socialization behaviors, neutralizing their image concerns, and eventually leading to more proactive socialization behaviors (Ashford, Rothbard, et al. 1998). Since dissimilar newcomers generally experience a greater level

of uncertainty, have more concerns about the image costs, and are in a greater need for acceptance than other newcomers, perceived POS could play an especially important role in facilitating their proactive socialization behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: At the accommodation stage, the perceived coworker, supervisor, and organizational support would interact with newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that perceived dissimilarity is positively related to newcomer's proactive socialization behaviors when perceived supports are high, but negatively related to the proactive socialization behaviors when perceived supports are low.

Though the supportive practices that newcomers received could be similar, the effects on their behaviors might differ. To be specific, the organizational support is more high-level and maybe both formal and informal. In contrast, supervisors and coworkers' support is more explicitly concentrated on newcomers' emotional and instrumental needs and are less formal than the organizational practices. Also, comparing to the organizational support, which comes from the company and targeting the entire group of newcomers, supervisor and coworker support originate from specific individuals and are directed at individual employees (Huffman, Watrous-Rodriguez, et al. 2008). Further, comparing the supervisor and coworker support, the former is considered less personal than the latter since it represents the organization (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). In fact, in Wayment and Peplau's (1995) comparison study regarding lesbian and heterosexual women, lesbians value the social support that focuses on their personal identity more than heterosexual women since it supports their feelings and self-worth. I suggest that the same mechanism applies to dissimilar newcomers as well—dissimilar newcomers would most appreciate the most personal support due to its effect on self-worth enhancement.

The difference in effect from different levels of support could also be explained using Lewin's (1943) field theory (Bentein, Stinglhamber, et al. 2002). To be specific, Lewin (1943) claims that the most proximal foci in one's work environment could influence employees' behavioral responses at work differently (in our case, the proactive socialization behaviors, the adaptation activities, and adjustment). He later suggested that the influence of the distal entities in work settings (for instance, the organization) on employee behavior should be mediated by more proximal ones (supervisor and coworker support) (Lewin 1951). Hence, the motivating effect of coworker support on individual newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors would be the strongest since coworkers' "conceptual distance" (Hunt and Morgan 1994, Yoon, Baker, et al. 1994) to individual employees are the shortest, while the effect of POS should have the weakest effect among the three levels of support. Their theories were also empirically supported by Becker, Billings et al. (1996). In their study, employees' commitment to supervisors overweight their organizational commitment because supervisors have stronger physical proximity and engage in more daily interactions with individual employees. Therefore, employees are more likely to gain a sense of control and feedback about their performance from their supervisors (Lawler 1992, Mueller and Lawler 1999). Hence, applying to the current model, I propose that the three types of support would work differently in promoting dissimilar newcomers' proactive socialization during the accommodation stage. With the smallest conceptual and physical distance, the coworker would provide dissimilar newcomers with the strongest support, while the power of organizational support, though still important, is the weakest among the three.

Hypothesis 4: At the accommodation state, the effect of coworker, supervisor, and organizational support would be different on promoting dissimilar newcomer's proactivity, with the effect of

coworker support stronger than that of supervisor support, and the effect of organizational support being the weakest among the three.

Perceived Dissimilarity and Institutional Tactics

The current findings of the relationship between institutionalized tactics and newcomer proactivity are controversial (Ashforth, Sluss, et al. 2007). Among the literature examining institutionalized tactics as a predictor of newcomer proactivity, Gruman, Saks et al. (2006), Mignerey, Rubin et al. (1995), and Teboul (1995) found positive relationships between the two variables. Since institutionalized tactics provide newcomers with ready opportunities to learn and reach out to organizational insiders, the structured learning environment makes learning easier, reducing the perceived costs associated with proactive socialization. However, Griffin, Colella et al. (2000) posited that newcomers would engage in more interactions with other newcomers within the institutionalized settings (especially when organizations use collective tactics), therefore, are less likely to socialize with experienced coworkers and supervisors actively. Also, Ashforth, Sluss et al. (2007) admitted that the institutionalized environment encourages 'a passive dependence on others', hence reducing newcomers' need to actively seek information from full-fledged employees. Findings of newcomer proactivity's moderating effect on the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and newcomers' adjustment outcomes are contentious as well. For instance, Gruman, Saks et al. (2006) and Kim, Cable et al. (2005) found that institutionalized tactics are most strongly related to newcomer's adjustment when their proactivity is low, since they might take the former as an easy alternative to proactive socialization. Nonetheless, Myers (2005), Scott and Myers (2005), and Harris, Simons et al. (2004) found that for jobs that have strong demand of transitioning of learning (firefighters and police officers), institutional tactics provide newcomers with systematic training about the theoretical knowledge. However, the

knowledge being acquired during training has to be transferred into practical operations, requiring newcomers to actively establish connections with their experienced coworkers and mentors, seek feedback, and adjust their behaviors accordingly. Hence, institutionalized tactics being used by organizations would facilitate newcomers' engagement in proactive socialization behaviors in this situation.

Despite the mixed finding of institutionalized tactics' effect on newcomer proactivity, I propose that newcomers perceiving dissimilar from most others would be more likely to engage in proactive socialization behaviors under an institutionalized environment during the accommodation stage. It is true that institutionalized socialization behaviors could provide newcomers with theoretical, general information about jobs and organizations, reducing newcomers' uncertainties about their competence and job settings, and dampening their motivation for proactive socialization. However, dissimilar newcomers' uncertainties are more than just about the KSAOs and jobs. The general information provided by formal and grouped training (i.e., using collective, fixed, and sequential tactics) is inadequate for them to be fully accepted as an organizational insider. In order to reduce the uncertainty about the work style and background differences, dissimilar newcomers are in greater need of asking questions, building networks, and adjusting the work environment. On the other hand, unlike other newcomers, dissimilar newcomers have more concerns about the image, effort, and inference costs. Their image concerns not only include being considered as an incompetent individual, but also the stereotype threat that could get their identity group involved as a whole. Not only do they need to ferret the information, but they also invest effort in accurately interpreting the information and making appropriate reactions in specific settings. As a result, their inference costs would also be higher than other newcomers.

Nevertheless, institutionalized socialization tactics could buffer dissimilar newcomers' cost concerns and eventually encourage their engagement in proactive behaviors. For example, organizations provide newcomers with ready opportunities to get information and feedback from and establish relationships with their mentors to reduce their effort costs by adopting serial tactics. In addition, by adopting formal tactics, newcomers are separated from experienced employees during training. The trial-and-error process is typical for all newcomers. Isolating newcomers from the experienced organizational insiders could also eliminate the potential image costs associated with trial-and-errors. Hence, I suggest that institutionalized socialization tactics are positively related to dissimilar newcomers' proactive behaviors.

Hypothesis 5: At the accommodation stage, the institutionalized socialization tactics being adopted by organizations would interact with newcomer's perceived dissimilarity, so that perceived dissimilarity is positively related to dissimilar newcomer's proactive socialization behaviors when more institutionalized socialization tactics are adopted, but negatively related to the proactive socialization behaviors when less institutionalized socialization tactics are adopted.

Embeddedness

In this study, I use embeddedness to measure the adjustment outcome of newcomers. Embeddedness, by definition, consists of three domains that reflect individuals' '(a) links to other people, teams, and groups; (b) perceptions of their fit with job, organization, and community; and (c) what they say they would have to sacrifice if they left their jobs' (Mitchell, Holtom, et al. 2001). The greater the number of links that connect employees with other individuals and activities, the less likely they will leave the organization. The better the fit, the more likely individual will be attached to the organization and less likely to leave. Lastly, the greater the sacrifices that individual need to make when quitting, the less likely he/she would leave the organization (Mitchell, Holtom,

et al. 2001, Lee, Mitchell, et al. 2004, Allen 2006, Crossley, Bennett, et al. 2007, Ren, Shaffer, et al. 2014).

Agreeing with Allen (2006) and Ren, Shaffer et al. (2014), I suggest that embeddedness is especially appropriate to reflect newcomers' socialization process's adjustment outcomes. As individuals transition from the accommodation socialization stage to the role management stage, they face less uncertainty within the organization and more restraint when quitting due to their efforts during the transition process (Allen 2006). For example, the ties established through a large amount of relationship building, networking, and general socialization behaviors provide newcomers with links to people. Also, if employees have spent a large amount of time and energy to familiarize with their roles in the organization and shaped their behaviors to assimilate to the normative standard, or even already altered the work environment and role environment to fit their own skillsets and work styles, not only do they possess the link with the organization and their roles, but also the fit with the organization. The perceived person-organizational fit could also be facilitated by their coworkers and supervisors' instrumental and emotional support. If they are to leave the organization, they will sacrifice both the established networks and personal relationships and the easy-for-achievement environment that they built from scratch.

Hence, I propose that the more proactive newcomers are during the accommodation stage, the more embedded they would be, and the less likely they would leave the organization in the role management stage. Previous studies also examined the mediating role of embeddedness in the relationships between social tactics and newcomers' turnover intention (Allen 2006), and in the relationships between some proactive socialization activities (information seeking, relationship building, and positive framing) and expatriates' retention (Ren, Shaffer, et al. 2014).

Hypothesis 6: At the role management stage, newcomer employee's level of job embeddedness mediates the relationship between the degree of engagement in proactive socialization behaviors and turnover intention, so that the more proactive the newcomer is, the more embedded he/she is, and the less likely that he/she would leave the organization.

Method

Data Collection

Data is collected from newcomers who just graduated from college and started officially working at four times: (a) personal variables including perceived dissimilarity and cultural intelligence (CQ) are measured at time one (prior to organizational entry); (b) coworker, supervisor, and organizational support, as well as perceived diversity climate are measured at times two (two weeks after entry), in order to catch newcomers' initial understanding about the organizational contexts from the beginning of the accommodation stage; (c) the aforementioned contextual factors are re-measured again at time three (three months after entry), since the social support are likely to fade after newcomers' initial entry, I believe it would be interesting to examine the difference in newcomers' perception of support and diversity climate between the two times. I also ask respondents to report institutional tactics being used by organizations at time three, since they would have a more thorough understanding about how organizations socialize newcomer employees after spending three months there; (d) outcome variables are measured at time four (six months after entry). By this time, newcomers would be in the role management stage and reflect on their adjustment outcomes within the organization.

Respondents are recruited from college students who got job offers and intended to accept them, but have not officially started working for their future employers yet. Specifically, I cooperate with student admission offices, career service offices, the center/office of international education of an American university in the Midwest and send out emails with links of surveys to their graduating students. All students need to satisfy all of the four screening criteria to be recruited: a) having at least one job offer in hand; b) intend to accept the offer; c) graduating after this semester; d) have not officially started working for their future employers yet. After answering yes to all the four questions at the beginning of the survey, they will be led to the main part of the survey.

Measurement

Perceived Dissimilarity ($\alpha = .88$, $\mu = 2.52$, SE = 1.02)

I adopt Zellmer-Bruhn, Maloney et al.'s (2008) scale of perceived similarity to measure this construct's countereffect. The scale consists of eight 7-item Likert scale, with three items asking about perceived social category similarities and five items asking about perceived work style similarities. Each item follows a seven-point response format, with 1 indicates strongly disagree, while 7 indicates strongly agree. Sample items for perceived social category and work style similarity including "members of my team are from the same country" and "members of my team have similar communication styles."

Cultural Intelligence (CQ) ($\alpha = .93$, $\mu = 5.81$, SE = 0.80)

I adopt the most widely used Ang, Van Dyne et al.'s (2007) measurement for CQ in our study. The scale operationalized the four dimensions of CQ, with four Likert-scale items measuring the metacognitive CQ, six items measuring cognitive CQ, five items measuring

motivational CQ, and five items measuring behavioral CQ. Each item asks participants to select the response that best describes their capabilities, with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Sample items for the four dimensions including "I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds"; "I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures"; "I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures"; "I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it."

Perceived Diversity Climate ($\alpha = .70$, $\mu = 1.42$, SE = 0.47)

I adopt Pugh, Dietz, et al.'s (2008) scale of perceived diversity climate for our study. Combining the three influential studies and developed their own measurements for the perceived climate of diversity (Mor-Barak and Cherin 1998, Ernst Kossek, Markel et al. 2003, McKay, Avery et al. 2007), Pugh, Dietz et al. (2008) selected four items that (a) conform with the construct definition and (b) similar to other measurements and developed the shortened version of perceived diversity climate measurement. The resulting four items are measured using four 5-point Likert-type scales, with 1= strongly agree, and 5 = strongly disagree. One sample item for this measurement is, "Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce."

Supervisor Support ($\alpha = .89$, $\mu = 5.81$, SE = 1.02)

I believe that to reflect the quality of the supervisor's support and the extent of interaction between the newcomer employee and the supervisor, leader-member exchange (LMX) would be a more accurate measurement. I adopt Liden and Maslyn's (1998) eleven item measurement. Each item is measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7

(strongly agree). A sample item is “My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.”

Coworker Support ($\alpha = .91$, $\mu = 3.79$, SE = 0.75)

Similarly, I believe that the team-member exchange would best reflect the supportiveness of relationships among team members. I adopted Seers, Petty et al.’s (1995) measurement of TMX (team-member exchange) in this study, which is a modified version of Seers’s (1989) work. The refined measurement consists of 10 items, and each items is measured by a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). A sample item is, “Do other members of your team usually let you know when you do something that makes their jobs easier (or harder)?”

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) ($\alpha = .83$, $\mu = 5.33$, SE = 0.956)

I adopt Eisenberger, Fasolo et al.’s (1990) nine-item short version of Eisenberger, Huntington et al.’s (1986) SPOS scale in our study. Each item is measured on a 7-point Likert-style scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A sample item is, “The organization strongly considers my goals and values.”

Institutionalized Tactics ($\alpha = .79$, $\mu = 4.91$, SE = 0.63)

I adopt Jones’s (1996) measurement in our study. The measurement was divided into six sections, targeting the six sets of socialization tactics. Each item is measured on 7-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample items for each section including “In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job-related training activities (collective *vs.* individual)”; “I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job-related skills (formal *vs.* informal)”; “I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are

very important in this organization (investiture *vs.* divestiture)"; "There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another, or one job assignment leads to another in this organization (sequential *vs.* random)"; "experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization (serial *vs.* disjunctive)"; "I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experiences (fixed *vs.* variable)".

Newcomer Proactivity ($\alpha = .94$, $\mu = 3.92$, SE = 0.78)

I adopt Ashford and Black's (1996) measurement of newcomer proactivity. Twenty-four items are included to operationalize the seven factors, with each item measured by five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (to no extent) to 5 (to a great extent). Sample items are, "To what extent have you… sought feedback on your performance after assignments? (feedback-seeking)", "…Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about desirable job changes? (job-change negotiation)" "…Tried to see your situation as an opportunity rather than a threat? (positive framing)" "…Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)? (general socialization)" "…Tried to spend as much times as you could with your boss? (relationship-building)" "…Started conversations with people from different segments of the company? (networking)" "…Tried to learn the (official) organizational structure? (information-seeking)"

Embeddedness ($\alpha = .90$, $\mu = 16.90$, SE = 39.09)

Embeddedness is measured using Mitchell, Holtom et al.'s (2001) scale. Since I am only interested in newcomer employees' embeddedness in the organization, I only selected the items that are related to the organization. For the fit and sacrifice dimension, items are measured using

a five-point Likert-style scale with 5 indicates strongly agree. The sample items for each factor are "I like the members of my workgroup (fit)" and "I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals (sacrifice)." The link dimension is measured by asking respondents filling the blank with their answers; one sample item is "How long have you been in your present position?".

Turnover Intention ($\alpha = .73$, $\mu = 3.46$, SE = 1.32)

I measure turnover intention with Nissly, Barak et al.'s (2005) four-item scale. Each item is measured with 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). One sample item is "In the next few months I intend to leave this organization."

Control Variables

I control whether the respondents have interned in the organization for which they will work after graduation, and how long did that internship last. Previous studies have examined the differences in socialization processes among newcomers who have zero experience with the organization, newcomers who used to work in other departments of the organization, as well as organizational insiders who have not changed their jobs (Chao 2012); as well as between newcomer who transit to the organization from school and newcomers who transit from another organization (Bauer, Bodner, et al. 2007, Saks, Uggerslev, et al. 2007). However, none of them took internship experience into consideration. For college students, the internship would be the only chance for them to gather information about the organizations they want to work in after graduation. Although the job requirements and contents of internship are generally different from the real work experience, internship experience could provide student newcomers with a more comprehensive understanding of the organization and, therefore, help them develop a more realistic expectation during the anticipatory socialization stage. I also control the availability of

pre-hire materials, which may influence newcomers' perception of the organization and proactive socialization intention.

Analysis

I conduct priori power analysis using G*Power 3.1.9.2 prior to the data collection. For the current model, I performed F tests (ANOVA test with fixed effects, special, main effects, and interactions). With the large effect size and numerator df of 8, the expected sample size is 108. I will first screen out the respondents who did not answer yes to all four screening questions and those who did not complete the questions, leading to 754 respondents at time 1. The number of respondents was reduced to 217 in time 2. After matching up with the data collected from time 3, we eventually got 112 valid responses. Time 4 data were collected in the middle of COVID-19 self-quarantine period and do not really have a deadline, which helped us to maintain a relatively high rate of response, resulting in 80 respondents. Among the 80 respondents, 14 have interned in the organization before the official organizational entry, with an average of 4 months in length. Also, 71 respondents have received pre-hire materials, and 52 respondents have received more than one offer. The average start-up salary for the respondents' positions ranges from 40,001 to 50,000 annually. The average size of organizations in which respondents work is 150-200 employees, with an average of 11-15 members in their teams.

In order to avoid common method bias and improve construct validity of the scales, I follow Podsakoff (2003) and Podsakoff, MacKenzie et al.'s (2012) suggestion to measure the individual, moderator, and outcome variables at different times (time 1, 2, 3 and time 4). To examine the construct validity of the measurements, I conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for perceived dissimilarity, proactive socialization, institutionalized tactics, and job embeddedness before the data analysis following Campbell and Fiske's (1959) criteria (Bagozzi, Yi et al. 1991, Bagozzi

1993). I eventually adopt the 6-factor model of proactive socialization (feedback-seeking, job-change negotiation, positive framing, general socialization, relationship building and networking, information-seeking) (CMIN/DF = 1.792, TLI = 0.761, DFI = 0.811, RMSEA = .01, AIC = 598.591), the 2-factor model of perceived dissimilarity (work dissimilarity and categorical dissmilarity) (CMIN/DF = 2.054, TLI = 0.901, CFI = 0.933, RMSEA = 0.115, AIC = 89.02), the 4 - factor model of CQ (metacognitive CQ, motivational CQ, cognitive CQ, behavioral CQ) (CMIN/DF = 2.2, TLI = 0.774, CFI = 0.805, RMSEA = 0.123, AIC = 492.407), the 3-factor model for institutional tactics (investiture, serial, and fixed *vs.* divestiture, disjunctive, andvariable; collective and sequential *vs.* individual vs. random; formal *vs.* informal) (CMIN/DF = 2.51, TLI = 0.409, CLI = 0.489, RMSEA = 0.128, AIC = 1194.944), and the 3-factor model of job embeddedness (organizational fit, organizational link, organizational sacrifice) (CMIN/DF = 1.705, TLI = 0.847, CFI = 0.88, RMSEA = 0.094, AIC = 374.117) (table 1). Item 4-7 in the organizational link factor within the job embeddedness measurement is removed due to the low loadings (<.1). Table 1 provides information about the fix indices and model selection outcomes. We follow MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara's (1996) suggestion and adopt 0.1 as the RMSEA value's threshold score (Moss, Lawson, and White, 2014). The RMSEA value for the 3-factor model of cultural intelligence, 2-factor model of perceived dissimilarity, and the 3-factor model of institutionalized tactics indicates a better but still poor fit of the data. However, since RMSEA is primarily determined by the sample size and degree of freedom ($\sqrt{(x^2 - df}/\sqrt{df(N-1}$), it is possible that the small sample size in this study and degree of freedom in this study led to artificially large values of the RMSEA (Kenny, Kaniskan, and McCoach, 2014). On the other side, the minimum discrepancy per degree of freedom (CMIN/DF), also called normal chi-square or normed chi-square, is correlated with RMSEA but making the model fit less dependent on the

sample size (Shadfar and Alekmohammadi, 2013). The CMIN/DF value of 2:1 or 3:1 indicates an acceptable model (Carmines and Malver 1981, Kline 1998), with a value of 2 or less reflecting a good fit (Ullman 2001). While values as high as 5 are considered an adequate model fit (Schumacker and Lomax 2004). Hence, the CMIN/DF values for the selected models inform good model fit without the influence of sample size. Also, the TLI and CFI values larger than .80 indicate an adequate incremental model fit compared to the base model (Bentler 1990, Cold 1987, Marsh, Balla, and McDonald 1988, Moss, Lawson, and White 2015).

Perceived Dissimilarity	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
1 factor	5.016	0.663	0.759	0.225	148.316
2 factor	1.788	0.926	0.95	0.1	83.977

Table 3.1

CQ	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
4 factor	2.2	0.774	0.805	0.123	492.407
3 factor	2.203	0.773	0.8	0.123	493.901
2 factor	2.812	0.658	0.696	0.151	597.297
1 factor	3.467	0.534	0.583	0.177	669.342

Table 3.2

Institutionalized Tactics	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
1factor	2.611	0.369	0.451	0.143	1237.639
2 factor	2.572	0.385	0.465	0.141	1221.217
3 factor (ID+SD+FV, CI+SR, FI)	2.51	0.409	0.489	0.128	1192.316
3 factor (FI+CI, SR+FV, SD+ID)	2.6	0.374	0.459	0.142	1231.169
4 factor	2.512	0.408	0.497	0.138	1192.316
5 factor	2.523	0.404	0.5	0.139	1193.96

Table 3.3

Proactive Socialization Behaviors	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
7 factor	2.188	0.67	0.698	0.123	695.466
6 factor (relationship-building + networking)	1.792	0.761	0.811	0.1	598.591
5 factor	1.809	0.755	0.803	0.101	601.71
4 factor	1.837	0.747	0.792	0.103	607.815
3 factor	1.971	0.706	0.756	0.111	640.835
2 factor	2.011	0.694	0.744	0.113	650.706
1 factor	2.188	0.64	0.698	0.123	695.466

Table 3.4

Job Embeddedness	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
3 factor	2.674	0.596	0.672	0.146	749.004
3 factor (reduced)	1.705	0.847	0.88	0.094	374.117

Table 3.5

I used IBM SPSS Statistics 25 and PROCESS 3.4 by Dr. Hayes to conduct the analysis. I first test the influence of the interaction of perceived work style dissimilarity and newcomers' CQ on their proactive socialization behaviors. As indicated in table 3.6-3.11, I find that the metacognitive and motivational CQ moderates the direct relationships between newcomers' perceived work style dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors. When their metacognitive and motivational CQ is low, newcomers perceiving higher work style dissimilarity tend to engage in more feedback-seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.34*, R^2 = 0.31) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.42**, R^2 = 0.18), job-change negotiation ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.26**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.55**, R^2 = 0.26), positive framing ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.31), general socialization ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.36) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.32*, R^2 = 0.34), information seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.23**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40*, R^2 = 0.19), and relationships building behaviors ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.36) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.32**, R^2 = 0.34). As can be seen in Figures 2.2-2.5 and Figures 2.6-2.9, most times the interaction effects are only significant at the lower level. The direct relationships between newcomers' perceived work style dissimilarity and

the four types of proactive socialization behaviors are not influenced by a high level of metacognitive and motivational CQ (except motivational CQ * job-change negotiation and feedback-seeking) (Table 3.6-3.11) (Figure 2.2-2.9). I also find the metacognitive and motivational CQ moderating the direct relationship between newcomers' perceived work dissimilarity and their information-seeking behavior ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.23*, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40**, R^2 = 0.19) and relationship building and networking behaviors ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.24**, R^2 = 0.41) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.40**, R^2 = 0.18). The newcomers perceiving higher work style dissimilarity tend to engage in less information-seeking behavior when their metacognitive and motivational CQ are high. In addition, when newcomers have a high level of behavioral CQ, their perceived work style dissimilarity will lead to greater positive framing behaviors (ß = 0.46, R^2 = 0.10, P = 0.05) (figure 2.12).

I then test the effect of the interaction between newcomers' perceived categorical dissimilarity and CQ on their proactive socialization behaviors (table 3.12-3.17). The findings largely follow the same direction of work style dissimilarity, with newcomers' metacognitive and motivatioanl CQ moderating the direct relationship between their perceived categorical dissimilarity and feedback seeking ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.54**, R^2 = 0.23), job-change negotiation ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.37*, R^2 = 0.22) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.41**, R^2 = 0.14), general socialization ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.29), relationship building and networking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.55**, R^2 = 0.39) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.43*, R^2 = 0.19), information seeking ($ß_{MC}$ = -0.58**, R^2 = 0.4) ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.50**, R^2 = 0.18), positive framing ($ß_{MOT}$ = -0.35*, R^2 = 0.29). To be specific, as we can see from figure 2.13-2.24, when metacognitive and motivational CQ are high, newcomers perceiving higher levels of categorical dissimilarity tend to participate in less proactive socialization activities. When the metacognitive and motivational CQ is low, newcomers perceiving greater categorical dissimilarity tend to be more proactive.

The findings of CQ's interaction effect ar largely opposite to our hypothesis, with the exception of behavioral CQ. One possible explanation is that with the high levels of conscious cultural awareness and the motivation to learn about another culture (Ang and Van Dyne 2008, Van Dyne, Ang, Ng, and Rockstuhl 2012), newcomers might raise concerns about the potential costs associated with interacting with people who are dissimilar with themselves through activities such as information seeking, relationship building and networking. On the other side, when their cultural awareness and motivation to learn about another culture are low, they are less worried about the costs associated with proactive socialization as well, leading to more feedback-seeking, job-change negotiation, positive framing, and relationship-building behaviors. Similarly, when newcomers don't have much actual knowledge about the different cultures, they may not have the concerns about the potential costs, hence would be more likely to engage in proactive socialization behaviors such as positive framing. If this is the case, then the perceived diverstiy cliamte should be able to relieve their concerns about the potential costs associated with proactive socialization. To test my assumption, I insert perceived both diversity climate measured at time 2 and cultural intelligence into the current model as moderators. To be specific, the influence of metacognitive and motivational CQ on the relationship between perceived work style dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors (except job-change negotiation and positive framing) are either reduced or canceled out (table 2.4-2.9). Similarly, the influence of high metacognitive and motivational CQ on the relationship between perceived category dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors (except positive framing) are either reduced or canceled out (table 2.10-2.15). When there are high levels of perceived diversity climate, newcomers' feedback-seeking, socialization, information-seeking, relationship-building and networking are promoted when they feel different from others in work styles, no matter what levels of CQ they have. The interaction effect of cognitive CQ on

the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors follows the same pattern when the diversity climate is included in the model as an additional moderator. These findings provide support to my assumption that it is the awareness of, and the motivation to learn about another culture that raised newcomers' concern of the potential costs, leading to reduced proactive socialization behaviors. However, the effect of CQ is not strong enough comparing to the effect of the perceived diversity climate, which could mitigate newcomers' concerns and promote proactive socialization behaviors. I then insert replaced the perceived diversity climate at time 2 with its re-measurement at time 3 and found an even stronger buffering effect. The perceived diversity climate measured at time 3 completely cancels out the effect of CQ on the relationship between perceived work style dissimilarity and positive framing, information seeking, and relationship-building and networking, as well as the relationship between perceived category dissimilarity and job-change negotiation, positive framing, general socialization, and information seeking. (table 3.18-3.29).

I also test the interaction effect of perceived dissimilarity and perceived diversity climate on newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors. As is shown in table 3.6-3.17, I find support for the interaction between work style dissimilarity and perceived diversity climate on newcomers' information-seeking behaviors. This relationship is only significant when the perceived diversity climate is high, so newcomers perceive to be more dissimilar from the others in work styles tend to engage in more information-seeking behaviors ($\beta = 0.57$, $R^2 = 0.29$, $P = 0.06$)(figure 3.2). I then test the influence of supervisor support on the relationships between perceived similarity and proactive socialization behaviors (Table 3.30-3.41). The supervisor supports is measured by LMX metrics, signifying the emotional and instrumental support from the supervisor. The finding for this hypothesis is interesting. When supervisor support at time 2 (two-weeks after entry) is low,

newcomers perceive to be dissimilar from others in work styles are forced to engage in more job-change negotiation when they first enter the organization, trying to figure out the work environment and find the fit between them and the job requirements (ß = -.65, R^2 = 0.19, P = 0.04)(figure 3.4) (table 3.31). However, when supervisor support is low at time 3 (three-months after entry), newcomers perceived dissimilar from the most others in their national, cultural, and ethnic backgrounds tend to engage in less positive framing (ß = 0.76, R^2 = 0.27, P = 0.01)(figure 3.5) (table 3.38). On the contrary, when supervisor support is high at time 3, newcomers who perceive category dissimilarity are more likely to view the difficult situtations in a positive way. I also find support for TMX, evidencing the interaction effect of coworker support on the direct relationship. Namely, when TMX is low, employees perceive higher levels of categorical dissimilarity tend to engage in less job change negotiation (ß = 0.26, R^2 = 0.55, P = 0.09) (figure 3.3) (table 3.37). However, I did not find support for the moderating influence of POS on newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others (Table 3.30-3.41). I also compare the effect of supervisor and coworker support on newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others by comparing the R^2 value and effect provided by PROCESS. Opposite to my hypothesis, supervisor support at time 3(R^2 = 0.1636, effect = -1.0127 at low level) has stronger influence on newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others comparing to coworkers support (R^2 = 0.0402, effect = -0.7383 at low level, -.3255 at medium level). I also theorized the moderating effect of institutionalized tactics on the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behaviors. The results show that when the institutionalized tactics are divestiture rather than investiture, disjunctive rather than serial, and following a variable rather than a fixed schedule, newcomers who perceive higher work style dissimilarity tend to engage in more job-change negotiation (ß = -0.56, R^2 = 0.37, P = 0.05)(figure 3.6)(table 3.43), and

newcomers perceive higher category dissimilarity tend to engage in greater positive framing (ß = .37*, R^2 = 0.12) (figure 3.7)(table 3.50). This outcome is against our hypothesis, but consistent with Ashforth, Sluss et al.'s (2007) findings. Individualized tactics tend to promote newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others, possibly due to the uncertainty associated with the sink-or-swim style of socialization tactics. On the contrary, when the organization uses institutionalized tactics during the onboarding process, newcomers would feel well informed about the job requirements at an early stage, reducing the need for proactive job-change negotiation and finding it easier to view challenges and tasks positively.

Support is also found for the link between proactive socialization behaviors and job embeddedness (table 3.54-3.56). To be specific, information-seeking behavior is positively linked to all three factors of job embeddedness ($ß_{fit}$ = 0.02** R^2 = 0.10)($ß_{link}$ = 0.14*, R^2 = 0.14)($ß_{sacrifice}$ = .05**, R^2 = 0.30). Job change negotiation (ß = 0.34, R^2 = 0.18, P = 0.02), feedback-seeking (ß = 0.31, R^2 = 0.16, P = 0.03), and relationship-building and networking (ß = 0.48, R^2 = 0.30, P = 0.00) are positively related to the potential sacrifice newcomers would experience once they leave the organization. Also, positive framing is positively related to the newcomer's link to the organization (ß = 0.34, R^2 = 0.24, P = 0.01). Finally, newcomers' job embeddedness is negatively related to their turnover intention, supporting hypothesis 6 ($ß_{fit}$ = -1.39**, R^2 = 0.24) ($ß_{sacrifice}$ = -0.64**, R^2 = 0.18) (table 3.57).

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
perceived dissimilarity	2.520	1.020	1.000												
CQ	5.810	0.800	-.495**	1.000											
perceived diversity climate 2	4.600	5.120	-0.064	0.221	1.000										
perceived diversity climate 3	1.420	0.470	0.149	-.445**	-.453**	1.000									
POS	5.320	0.960	-0.050	.370**	.364**	-.469**	1.000								
LMX 2	5.940	0.740	-.259*	.419**	.499**	-.506**	.494**	1.000							
LMX 3	5.810	1.020	-0.068	.355**	.349**	-.558**	.700**	.590**	1.000						
TMX 2	3.830	0.720	-0.183	.514**	.375**	-.440**	.434**	.562**	.458**	1.000					
TMX 3	3.790	0.750	-.227*	.490**	.353**	-.468**	.440**	.341**	.456**	.582**	1.000				
institutional tactics	4.910	0.630	-0.062	0.178	0.159	-.296**	.278*	.264*	0.026	-0.008	0.029	1.000			
proactive socialization behavior	3.920	0.780	-0.200	.369**	.243*	-.258*	-0.002	.298**	0.036	.296**	.334**	.540**	1.000		
job embeddedness	16.900	38.090	-.227*	.253*	0.137	-0.147	0.075	0.220	0.171	0.121	0.118	-0.027	0.171	1.000	
turnover intention	3.460	1.320	-0.187	0.084	0.024	0.011	-.330**	-0.145	-0.163	0.059	0.134	-.235*	0.136	.337**	1.000

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

proactive socialization behavior (feeback seeking)

	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.08	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.16	0.2	0.26	0.26	0.2	0.19	0.1	0.05
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.09	-0.08	-0.08	-0.13	-0.11	-0.03	-0.04	-0.18	-0.18	-0.12	-0.04
work style dissimilarity		0.1	(.46)*	0.33	0.36	0.28	(.41)**	(.39)*	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.14
metacognitive CQ			(.50)**	(.64)**								
motivational CQ					0.38	(.40)**						
cognitive CQ							(.65)**	(.63)**				
behavioral CQ									(.302)*	0.3		
perceived diversity climate 2											-0.23	(-.36)*
work * MC				(-.34)*								
work* MOT						(-.42)**						
work * COG								-0.09				
work * BEH										-0.01		
work * diversity												0.48
R^2	0.01	0.02	0.14	0.31	0.08	0.18	0.37	0.37	0.11	0.11	0.06	0.13

Table 3. 6

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.01	0.02	-0.03	-0.02	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.21	0.09	0.1	0.03	-0.01
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.1	-0.08	-0.08	-0.13	-0.11	-0.04	-0.06	-0.15	-0.14	-0.12	-0.05
work style dissimilarity		0.16	(.69)**	(.29)**	0.42	0.32	(.49)**	(.44)**	0.19	0.22	0.019	0.43
metacognitive CQ			(.72)**	(.84)**								
motivational CQ					0.38	(0.53)**						
cognitive CQ							(.67)**	(.64)**				
behavioral CQ									0.18	0.25		
perceived diversity climate 2											-0.15	-0.26
work * MC				(-.26)**								
work* MOT						(.55)**						
work * COG								-0.19				
work * BEH										0.2		
work * diversity												0.4
R^2	0.01	0.02	0.3	0.39	0.09	0.26	0.4	0.41	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.08

Table 3.7

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.17	0.17	0.15	0.15	(.29)*	(.33)*	(.29)*	0.28	0.3	(.35)**	0.22	0.18
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.09	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.12	0.04	0.1	0.05	0.14
work style dissimilarity		0.11	(.46)*	0.41	(.48)*	(.52)*	0.32	0.35	0.15	0.24	0.18	0.41
metacognitive CQ			(.49)**	(.56)**								
motivational CQ					(.55)**	(.65)**						
cognitive CQ							(.44)**	(.46)**				
behavioral CQ									0.32	(.52)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											(-.37)**	-0.48
work * MC				-0.15								
work* MOT						(-.35)*						
work * COG								0.13				
work * BEH										(.46)**		
work * diversity												0.37
R^2	0.03	0.04	0.18	0.21	0.19	0.27	0.22	0.23	0.14	0.24	0.17	0.21

Table 3.8

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	0.05	0.25	0.21	0.22	(.37)**	(.40)**	(.32)*	(.33)*	(.32)*	(.34)*	(.28)*	0.24
pre-hire materials	-0.21	-0.21	-0.19	-0.19	(-.26)*	(-.25)*	-0.18	-0.21	-0.26	-0.24	-0.25	-0.02
work style dissimilarity		-0.04	0.38	0.29	0.38	0.33	0.1	0.04	-0.01	0.04	0.03	0.02
metacognitive CQ			(.57)**	(.68)**								
motivational CQ					(.63)*	(.71)**						
cognitive CQ							(.28)*	0.23				
behavioral CQ									0.19	(.30)*		
perceived diversity climate 2											(.33)*	-0.041
work * MC				(-.24)**								
work * MOT						(-.32)*						
work * COG								-0.24				
work * BEH										0.29		
work * diversity												0.29
R^2	0.09	0.09	0.27	0.36	0.28	0.34	0.16	0.17	0.13	0.17	0.19	0.22

Table 3.9

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 1				model 2		model 3		model 4		model 5	
intern	-0.01	-0.01	-0.06	-0.06	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.05	-0.01
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.09	0.11	0.11	0.05	0.06	0.14	0.1	-0.01	0.01	0.02	0.11
work style dissimilarity		-0.05	(.52)**	(.44)*	0.27	0.2	0.18	0.12	0	0.05	0.05	0.4
metacognitive CQ			(.79)**	(.88)**								
motivational CQ					(.46)**	(.58)**						
cognitive CQ							(.47)**	(.43)**				
behavioral CQ									(.35)**	(.46)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											(-.49)**	(-.66)**
work * MC				(-.23)*								
work * MOT						(-.40)*						
work * COG								-0.26				
work * BEH										0.27		
work * diversity												(.57)*
R^2	0.01	0.01	0.32	0.39	0.1	0.19	0.19	0.2	0.14	0.17	0.2	0.28

Table 3.10

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 18				model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	0.1	0.1	0.05	0.06	0.18	0.22	0.26	0.27	0.23	0.25	0.13	0.07
pre-hire materials	-0.05	-0.05	-0.03	-0.02	-0.08	-0.06	0.01	-0.03	-0.14	-0.13	-0.08	0
work style dissimilarity		0	(.58)**	(.49)**	0.27	0.2	0.27	0.2	0.04	0.09	0.06	0.37
metacognitive CQ			(.80)**	(.91)**								
motivational CQ					0.4	(.51)**						
cognitive CQ							(.57)**	(.51)**				
behavioral CQ									(.35)**	(.45)**		
perceived diversity climate 2											-0.3	(-.43)**
work * MC				(-.24)**								
work * MOT						(-.40)*						
work * COG								-0.3				
work * BEH										0.26		
work * diversity												0.53
R^2	0.01	0.01	0.33	0.41	0.078	0.17	0.26	0.29	0.13	0.16	0.08	0.15

Table 3.11

proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	0.068	0.05	0.15	0.11	0.14	0.27	0.26	0.18	-0.13	0.08	0.06
pre-hire materials	-0.085	-0.07	-0.1	-0.1	-0.13	-0.03	-0.03	-0.17	-0.15	-0.11	-0.01
category dissimilarity	-0.047	0.06	0.28	0	0.13	0.28	0.15	-0.01	0.02	-0.09	0.07
metacognitive CQ		0.29	(.65)**								
motivational CQ				0.2	0.33						
cognitive CQ						(.63)**	0				
behavioral CQ								(.29)*	0.27		
perceived diversity climate 2										-0.22	-0.19
category * MC			(-.54)**								
category * MOT					(-.49)*						
category * COG							(-.35)*				
category * BEH									-0.13		
category * diversity											0.3
R^2	0.01	0.08	23	0.04	0.15	0.33	0.39	0.1	0.11	0.06	0.08

Table 3.12

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	-0.03	-0.05	-0.05	-0.01	0.02	0.14	0.14	0.02	0.02	-0.03	-0.04
pre-hire materials	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08	-0.1	-0.03	-0.03	-0.11	-0.11	-0.09	-0.08
category dissimilarity	-0.29	-0.16	0	-0.26	-0.15	-0.01	-0.05	-0.27	-0.27	-0.32	-0.19
metacognitive CQ		(.35)*	(.60)**								
motivational CQ				0.11	0.22						
cognitive CQ						(.54)**	(.51)**				
behavioral CQ								0.15	0.15		
perceived diversity climate 2										-0.17	-0.14
category * MC			(-.37)*								
category * MOT					(-.41)*						
category * COG							-0.1				
category * BEH									0		
category * diversity											0.24
R^2	0.06	0.15	0.22	0.07	0.14	0.29	0.29	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.1

Table 3.13

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.23	0.27	(.30)*	0.17	0.3	0.28	0.19	0.2
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.09	0.09	0.05	0.02	0.11	0.17	0.05	0	0.06	0.04
category dissimilarity	-0.02	0.09	0.32	0.07	0.2	0.2	0.12	0.04	0	-0.07	-0.16
metacognitive CQ		0.29	(.34)**								
motivational CQ				0.32	(.45)**						
cognitive CQ						(.42)**	(.35)*				
behavioral CQ								(.31)*	(.32)*		
perceived diversity climate 2										(-.35)**	(-.37)**
category * MC			(-.50)**								
category * MOT					(-.49)**						
category * COG							-0.23				
category * BEH									0.17		
category * diversity											-0.16
R^2	0.03	0.1	0.25	0.1	0.23	0.19	0.22	0.13	0.14	0.16	0.16

Table 3.14

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	0.22	0.2	0.2	(.30)**	(.31)*	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.24	0.24
pre-hire materials	-0.2	-0.18	-0.2	-0.22	-0.23	-0.18	-0.18	-0.25	-0.23	-0.23	-0.23
category dissimilarity	-0.21	-0.07	0.07	-0.11	-0.07	-0.09	-0.12	-0.18	-0.15	-0.27	-0.31
metacognitive CQ		(.37)**	(.60)**								
motivational CQ				(.40)**	(.44)**						
cognitive CQ						0.22	0.2				
behavioral CQ								0.18	0.15		
perceived diversity climate 2										(-.36)**	(-.37)**
category * MC			(-.35)*								
category * MOT					-0.14						
category * COG							-0.07				
category * BEH									-0.14		
category * diversity											-0.07
R^2	0.12	0.22	0.29	0.23	0.24	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.16	0.24	0.24

Table 3.15

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	-0.03	-0.06	-0.05	0.07	0.08	0.13	0.11	0.11	0.11	0.02	0.01
pre-hire materials	0.1	0.12	0.08	0.07	0.04	0.13	0.13	0	-0.02	0.04	0.04
category dissimilarity	-0.11	0.1	(.35)*	-0.02	0.11	0.14	0.04	-0.06	-0.08	-0.17	-0.03
metacognitive CQ		(.56)**	(.95)**								
motivational CQ				0.32	(.46)**						
cognitive CQ						(.47)**	(.38)*				
behavioral CQ								(.35)**	(.37)**		
perceived diversity climate 2										(-.50)**	(-.48)**
category * MC			(-.58)**								
category * MOT					(-.50)**						
category * COG							-0.26				
category * BEH									0.11		
category * diversity											0.25
R^2	0.01	0.23	0.4	0.08	0.18	0.18	0.22	0.14	0.14	0.22	0.23

Table 3.16

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building+networking)

	model 18			model 19		model 20		model 21		model 22	
intern	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.08	0.12	0.19	0.18	0.17	0.17	0.06	0.05
pre-hire materials	-0.02	0	-0.03	-0.03	-0.06	0.02	0.02	-0.11	-0.12	-0.05	-0.04
category dissimilarity	(-.36)*	-0.2	0.03	.-.32	-0.21	-0.13	-0.23	-0.32	-0.33	(-.43)**	(-.31)
metacognitive CQ		(.47)**	(.84)**								
motivational CQ				0.19	0.31						
cognitive CQ						(.45)**	0.37				
behavioral CQ								(.32)**	(.33)**		
perceived diversity climate 2										(-.34)**	(-.31)*
category * MC			(-.55)**								
category * MOT					(.43)*						
category * COG							-0.26				
category * BEH									0.06		
category * diversity											0.21
R^2	0.09	0.24	0.39	0.11	0.19	0.24	0.28	0.19	0.19	0.19	0.2

Table 3.17

proactive socialization behavior (feeback seeking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.06	0.02	0.15	0.16	(.27)*	0.22	0.19	0.11
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.02	-0.13	-0.05	-0.05	0.01	-0.18	-0.11
work style dissimilarity	0.44	(.51)*	0.32	0.53	(.43)**	(.64)**	0.16	0.37
metacognitive CQ	(.44)*	(.64)*						
motivational CQ			0.29	0.53				
cognitive CQ					(.63)**	(.60)**		
behavioral CQ							0.26	0.52
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.11	-0.04	-0.01	-0.05	-0.13	-0.24	-0.13	0.38
work * MC		(-.34)**						
work* MOT				(-.39)*				
work * COG						-0.01		
work * BEH								-0.1
work * diversity		0.33		0.37		0.38		0.16
R^2	0.02	0.34	0.09	0.22	0.38	0.42	0.13	0.16

Table 3.18

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	-0.03	-0.06	0.1	0.16	0.21	0.18	0.08	0.04
pre-hire materials	-0.07	-0.02	-0.13	-0.06	-0.04	-0.02	-0.15	-0.08
work style dissimilarity	(.70)**	(.70)**	0.43	(.54)*	(.49)**	(.61)**	0.2	0.4
metacognitive CQ	(.75)**	(.93)**						
motivational CQ			0.41	(.78)**				
cognitive CQ					(.66)**	(.62)**		
behavioral CQ							0.15	0.14
perceived diversity climate 2	0.05	0.15	0.02	0.2	-0.05	-0.11	-0.1	-0.18
work * MC		(-.31)**						
work* MOT				(.01)**				
work * COG						-0.15		
work * BEH								-0.13
work * diversity		0.2		0.21		0.27		0.31
R^2	0.3	0.43	0.09	0.31	0.4	0.43	0.06	0.1

Table 3.19

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.18	0.16	0.28	0.29	(.31)*	0.27	(.30)*	(.31)*
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.14	0.02	0.11	0.88	0.19	0.03	0.13
work style dissimilarity	(.43)*	(.56)*	0.4	(.56)*	(.35)*	(.60)**	0.2	0.37
metacognitive CQ	0.37	0.39						
motivational CQ			0.38	(.54)*				
cognitive CQ					(.39)**	(.41)**		
behavioral CQ							0.22	(.38)*
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.27	-0.32	-0.2	-0.19	(-.30)*	(-.43)**	(-.29)*	-0.31
work * MC		-0.08						
work* MOT				-0.28				
work * COG						0.28		
work * BEH								0.37
work * diversity		0.28		0.28		0.31		0.2
R^2	0.25	0.27	0.21	0.29	0.31	0.35	0.22	0.29

Table 3.20

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.23	0.21	(.36)**	(.38)**	(.34)**	(.31)*	(.21)*	0.28
pre-hire materials	-0.22	-0.18	(-.27)*	-0.22	-0.22	-0.19	-0.27	-0.21
work style dissimilarity	0.35	0.37	0.35	0.46	-0.13	0.24	0.03	0.19
metacognitive CQ	(.48)**	(.60)**						
motivational CQ			(.54)**	(.72)**				
cognitive CQ					0.23	0.2		
behavioral CQ							0.09	0.13
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.2	-0.15	-0.1	-0.04	(-.30)*	(-.35)*	(-.29)*	-0.034
work * MC		(-.21)*						
work* MOT				-0.3				
work * COG						-0.11		
work * BEH								0.13
work * diversity		0.28		0.21		0.25		0.22
R^2	0.31	0.37	0.28	0.35	0.24	0.26	0.2	0.23

Table 3.21

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	-0.02	-0.06	0.06	0.04	0.15	0.1	0.12	0.05
pre-hire materials	0.06	0.13	0.02	0.11	0.07	0.13	-0.03	0.06
work style dissimilarity	(.48)**	(.65)**	0.1	0.39	0.23	(.49)*	0.06	0.34
metacognitive CQ	(.64)**	(.69)**						
motivational CQ			0.07	0.18				
cognitive CQ					(.40)**	(.35)**		
behavioral CQ							0.22	0.17
perceived diversity climate 2	(-.30)*	(-36)*	-0.46	(-.54)**	(-.42)**	(-.57)**	(-.40)**	(.56)**
work * MC		-0.15						
work* MOT				-0.2				
work * COG						-0.08		
work * BEH								0.09
work * diversity		-0.08		-0.05		(.49)*		0.45
R^2	0.38	0.45	0.2	0.3	0.33	0.39	0.25	0.3

Table 3.22

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 6		model 7		model 8		model 9	
intern	0.06	0.02	0.17	0.16	0.27	0.22	0.23	0.18
pre-hire materials	-0.04	0.04	-0.09	0	-0.02	0.03	-0.15	-0.07
work style dissimilarity	(.57)**	(.68)**	0.2	0.45	0.3	(.49)*	0.07	0.29
metacognitive CQ	(.77)**	(.88)**						
motivational CQ			0.24	0.43				
cognitive CQ					(.53)**	(.48)**		
behavioral CQ							(.29)*	0.3
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.08	-0.07	-0.19	-0.19	-0.21	(-.31)*	-0.18	-0.28
work * MC		(.23)*						
work* MOT				-0.31				
work * COG						-0.19		
work * BEH								0.17
work * diversity		-0.07		0.44		0.43		0.34
R^2	0.33	0.43	0.1	0.21	0.3	0.36	0.16	0.2

Table 3.23

proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	0.06	0.03	0.09	0.13	0.27	0.25	0.17	0.15
pre-hire materials	-0.09	-0.08	-0.11	-0.12	-0.04	-0.03	-0.17	0.15
category dissimilarity	0.01	0.49	-0.07	0.25	0.26	0.17	-0.04	0.06
metacognitive CQ	0.22	(.95)**						
motivational CQ			0.05	0.37				
cognitive CQ					(.61)**	(.52)**		
behavioral CQ							0.25	0.22
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.14	0.29	-0.02	0.07	-0.06	0.04	-0.12	-0.1
category * MC		(-.76)**						
category * MOT				-0.05				
category * COG						(-.36)*		
category * BEH								0.22
category * diversity		0.02		0.19		0.04		0.14
R^2	0.09	0.26	0.06	0.16	0.33	0.4	0.12	0.12

Table 3.24

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	-0.05	-0.08	-0.03	0.01	0.14	0.14	0.01	-0.02
pre-hire materials	-0.06	-0.05	-0.09	-0.1	-0.03	-0.03	-0.11	0.11
category dissimilarity	0.18	0.21	-0.33	-0.007	-0.2	-0.06	-0.3	-0.19
metacognitive CQ	0.33	(.89)**						
motivational CQ			-0.04	0.22				
cognitive CQ					(.53)**	(.51)**		
behavioral CQ							0.1	0.08
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.04	0.29	-0.19	0.03	-0.03	0	-0.13	0.25
category * MC		(-.59)*						
category * MOT				-0.4				
category * COG						-0.1		
category * BEH								0.1
category * diversity		0.04		0.16		-0.03		0.25
R^2	0.15	0.26	0.09	0.15	0.29	0.3	0.1	0.11

Table 3.25

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	0.18	0.18	0.21	0.28	(.29)*	(.33)*	0.28	0.26
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.05	0.05	0	0.1	0.07	0.05	-0.04
category dissimilarity	-0.01	0.14	-0.04	0.03	0.12	-0.09	-0.02	-0.18
metacognitive CQ	0.15	(.71)**						
motivational CQ			0.09	0.42				
cognitive CQ					(.34)**	(.39)**		
behavioral CQ							0.21	0.22
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.28	-0.01	-0.31	-0.08	-0.26	-0.24	-0.28	(-.34)*
category * MC		(-.60)**						
category * MOT				(-.49)*				
category * COG						-0.11		
category * BEH								0.28
category * diversity		0.18		-0.28		-0.38		-0.14
R^2	0.17	0.28	0.16	0.25	0.25	0.3	0.19	0.24

Table 3.26

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	0.22	-0.22	0.27	0.28	0.27	(.29)*	0.26	0.27
pre-hire materials	-0.21	-0.21	-0.23	-0.24	-0.22	-0.22	-0.24	-0.4
category dissimilarity	-0.17	-0.08	-0.2	-0.23	-0.21	-0.25	-0.26	-0.31
metacognitive CQ	0.23	0.51						
motivational CQ			0.22	0.22				
cognitive CQ					0.12	0.16		
behavioral CQ							0.06	0.07
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.27	-0.12	-0.24	-0.25	(-.33)**	-0.36	(-.34)**	(-.33)*
category * MC		-0.3						
category * MOT				-0.01				
category * COG						0.08		
category * BEH								-0.08
category * diversity		-0.16		-0.047		-0.15		-0.14
R^2	0.28	0.3	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.25	0.25

Table 3.27

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	-0.02	-0.05	0	0.02	0.12	0.11	0.09	0.06
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.08	0.04	0.03	0.07	0.08	-0.01	-0.04
category dissimilarity	-0.01	0.34	-0.2	0.01	0.02	0.01	-0.13	-0.04
metacognitive CQ	(.39_**	(.91)**						
motivational CQ			-0.09	0.06				
cognitive CQ					(.35)**	0.31		
behavioral CQ							0.21	0.2
perceived diversity climate 2	(-.34)**	-0.01	(-.55)**	-0.42	(-.41)**	(-.37)**	(-.41)**	(.48)**
category * MC		(-.57)*						
category * MOT				-0.23				
category * COG						-0.11		
category * BEH								0.32
category * diversity		0		0.2		0.03		0.32
R^2	0.3	0.4	0.22	0.25	0.26	0.31	0.26	0.3

Table 3.28

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 23		model 24		model 25		model 26	
intern	0.04	0	-0.04	0.06	0.1	0.17	0.05	0.13
pre-hire materials	-0.02	-0.01	-0.05	-0.05	-0.07	0	-0.04	-0.12
category dissimilarity	-0.27	0.16	(-.47)**	0.27	(-.43)**	-0.25	(-.46)**	-0.33
metacognitive CQ	(.38)*	(1.05)**						
motivational CQ			0.06	0.05				
cognitive CQ			-0.11		-0.33	0.32		
behavioral CQ							0.08	0.23
perceived diversity climate 2	-0.19	0.2	(-.40)*	-0.25	-0.24	-0.18	(-.35)**	-0.26
category * MC		(-.72)**						
category * MOT				-0.25				
category * COG						-0.19		
category * BEH								0.17
category * diversity		0.2		0.16		0.05		0.18
R^2	0.26	0.4	0.19	0.22	0.24	0.3	0.19	0.25

Table 3.29

proactive socialization behavior (feedback)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.07	0.1	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.13	0.19
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.06	-0.09	-0.09	-0.1	-0.09	-0.07	-0.07	-0.09	-0.05
work style dissimilarity	0.14	0.17	0.19	0.03	0.11	0.26	0.23	0.28	0.19	-0.02
POS	0.13	0.11								
LMX2			(.32)*	0.19						
LMX3					0.1	0.09				
TMX2							(.47)**	(.43)**		
TMX3									(.32)*	(.38)**
work * POS		-0.17								
work * LMX 2				-0.49						
work * LMX 3						-0.39				
work * TMX 2								-0.3		
work * TMX 3										0.17
R^2	0.03	0.04	0.11	0.18	0.03	0.06	0.21	0.21	0.11	0.16

Table 3.30

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.09	0.06	-0.01	-0.1	0.067	0.05	0.01	-0.03	0.22	0.22
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.05	-0.11	-0.11	-0.12	-0.12	-0.07	-0.07	-0.04	-0.03
work style dissimilarity	0.21	0.26	0.22	0	0.18	0.24	(.35)*	(.44)**	0.21	0.03
POS	0.2	0.17								
LMX2			0.28	0.1						
LMX3					0.22	0.22				
TMX2							(.69)**	(.61)**		
TMX3									(.69)**	(.70)**
work * POS		-0.23								
work * LMX 2				(-0.65)**						
work * LMX 3						-0.15				
work * TMX 2								-0.54		
work * TMX 3										0.22
R^2										
	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.19	0.07	0.07	0.43	0.46	0.48	0.5

Table 3.31

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.25	0.25	0.12	0.08	0.23	0.24	0.16	0.15	(.31)*	(.31)*
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.08	0.08	0.11	0.12
work style dissimilarity	0.16	0.14	0.19	0.11	0.13	0.08	0.23	0.27	0.14	-0.14
POS	0.21	0.22								
LMX2			(.50)**	(.43)**						
LMX3					0.27	0.27				
TMX2							(.46)**	(.43)**		
TMX3									(.46)**	(.47)**
work * POS		0.09								
work * LMX 2				-0.26						
work * LMX 3						0.1				
work * TMX 2								-0.22		
work * TMX 3										0.33
R^2										
	0.08	0.08	0.23	0.25	0.11	0.12	0.24	0.25	0.27	0.31

Table 3.32

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	(.34)*	(.33)*	0.15	0.12	(.32)*	(.33)**	0.24	0.25	(.38)**	(.39)**
pre-hire materials	-0.18	-0.16	-0.2	-0.21	-0.24	-0.25	-0.18	-0.18	-0.17	-0.16
work style dissimilarity	0.04	0.06	0.01	-0.05	-0.01	-0.09	0.11	0.1	0	-0.29
POS	(.28)*	0.26								
LMX2			(.45)**	(.40)**						
LMX3					(.36)**	(.36)**				
TMX2							(.55)**	(.56)**		
TMX3									(.46)**	(.47)**
work * POS		-0.14								
work * LMX 2				-0.18						
work * LMX 3						0.18				
work * TMX 2								0.12		
work * TMX 3										0.34
R^2										
	0.17	0.17	0.24	0.25	0.22	0.23	0.36	0.36	0.31	0.35

Table 3.33

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.19	0.18	-0.04	-0.09	0.12	0.12	-0.02	-0.07	0.18	0.18
pre-hire materials	0.15	0.16	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.15
work style dissimilarity	0.11	0.12	0.18	0.07	-0.01	0.04	0.13	0.24	0	-0.14
POS	(.59)**	(.58)**								
LMX2			(.85)**	(.74)**						
LMX3					(.61)**	(.31)**				
TMX2							(.64)**	(.53)**		
TMX3									(.65)**	(.65)**
work * POS		-0.11								
work * LMX 2				-0.34						
work * LMX 3						-0.11				
work * TMX 2								-0.72		
work * TMX 3										0.17
R^2										
	0.33	0.34	0.48	0.51	0.34	0.34	0.34	0.39	0.4	0.41

Table 3.34

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 10		model 11		model 12		model 13		model 14	
intern	0.25	0.24	0.03	-0.04	0.21	0.19	0.09	0.06	(.29)*	(.29)*
pre-hire materials	0	0.02	-0.06	-0.06	-0.09	-0.09	-0.01	-0.01	0.01	0.02
work style dissimilarity	0.11	0.14	0.13	-0.03	0.03	0.11	0.21	0.27	0.05	-0.16
POS	(.46)**	(.44)**								
LMX2			(.64)**	(.51)**						
LMX3					(.52)**	(.52)**				
TMX2							(.79)**	(.73)**		
TMX3									(.65)**	(.66)**
work * POS		-0.14								
work * LMX 2				-0.48						
work * LMX 3						-0.21				
work * TMX 2								-0.38		
work * TMX 3										0.24
R^2										
	0.2	0.2	0.29	0.35	0.25	0.26	0.51	0.52	0.4	0.42

Table 3.35

proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	0.1	0.12	0.1	0.1	0.09	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.17	0.16
pre-hire materials	-0.07	-0.09	-0.07	-0.05	-0.09	-0.12	-0.06	-0.07	-0.05	-0.05
category dissimilarity	-0.06	-0.03	-0.1	-0.04	-0.05	-0.1	0.06	0.07	-0.04	0.01
POS	0.12	0.1								
LMX2			0.29	0.29						
LMX3					0.1	0.14				
TMX2							(.45)**	(.40)**		
TMX3									(.36)**	(.36)**
category * POS		-0.27								
category * LMX 2				-0.14						
category * LMX 3						0.17				
category * TMX 2								-0.13		
category * TMX 3										-0.11
R^2										
	0.03	0.05	0.1	0.11	0.02	0.03	0.18	0.18	0.14	0.15

Table 3.36

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	0.02	0.04	-0.06	-0.06	0.01	0.01	-0.03	-0.03	0.16	0.18
pre-hire materials	-0.05	-0.06	-0.07	-0.03	-0.09	-0.11	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01
category dissimilarity	-0.31	-0.28	-0.27	-0.14	-0.28	-0.33	-0.14	-0.15	(-.28)*	(-.40)**
POS	0.2	0.18								
LMX2			0.23	0.23						
LMX3					0.22	0.25				
TMX2							(.61)**	(.66)**		
TMX3									(.68)**	(.69)**
category * POS		-0.2								
category * LMX 2				-0.34						
category * LMX 3						0.15				
category * TMX 2								0.13		
category * TMX 3										(.26)*
R^2										
	0.1	0.11	0.1	0.15	0.1	0.11	0.38	0.38	0.51	0.55

Table 3.37

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	0.22	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.22	0.19	0.16	0.16	(.29)*	(.29)*
pre-hire materials	0.1	0.12	0.06	0.06	0.04	-0.13	0.09	0.06	0.12	0.12
category dissimilarity	-0.04	-0.07	0.04	0.02	-0.01	-0.27	0.09	0.12	-0.01	0.01
POS	0.19	0.21								
LMX2			(.48)**	(.48)**						
LMX3					0.27	(.45)**				
TMX2							(.44)**	(.35)**		
TMX3									(.45)**	(.45)**
category * POS		0.29								
category * LMX 2				0.04						
category * LMX 3						(.76)**				
category * TMX 2								-0.27		
category * TMX 3										-0.03
R^2										
	0.07	0.1	0.21	0.21	0.1	0.27	0.22	0.24	0.26	0.26

Table 3.38

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	(.31)*	(.29)*	0.13	0.13	(.29)*	(.29)*	0.22	0.23	(.35)**	(.36)**
pre-hire materials	-0.16	-0.14	-0.19	-0.18	-0.23	-0.24	-0.17	-0.14	-0.16	-0.15
category dissimilarity	-0.24	-0.27	-0.14	-0.1	-0.2	-0.23	-0.08	-0.12	-0.2	-0.28
POS	(.29)**	(.31)**								
LMX2			(.44)**	(.44)**						
LMX3					(.36)**	(.38)**				
TMX2							(.51)**	(.65)**		
TMX3									(.46)**	(.47)**
category * POS		0.25								
category * LMX 2				-0.12						
category * LMX 3						0.08				
category * TMX 2								0.38		
category * TMX 3										0.16
R^2	0.21	0.23	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.25	0.29	0.4	0.34	0.36

Table 3.39

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	0.15	0.15	-0.05	-0.04	0.11	0.09	-0.02	-0.03	0.16	0.15
pre-hire materials	0.17	0.17	0.06	0.07	0.03	-0.04	0.12	0.09	0.15	0.15
category dissimilarity	-0.17	-0.17	0.06	0.14	-0.08	-0.23	0.05	0.1	-0.09	0
POS	(.59)**	(.59)**								
LMX2			(0.83)**	(.85)**						
LMX3					(.61)**	(.71)**				
TMX2							(.63)**	(.50)**		
TMX3									(.64)**	(.63)**
category * POS		0								
category * LMX 2				-0.2						
category * LMX 3						0.44				
category * TMX 2								-0.38		
category * TMX 3										-0.19
R^2	0.35	0.34	0.46	0.48	0.34	0.39	0.33	0.37	0.4	0.42

Table 3.40

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building+networking)

	model 27		model 28		model 29		model 30		model 31	
intern	0.19	0.19	-0.05	-0.02	0.15	0.14	0.05	0.04	0.23	0.22
pre-hire materials	0.04	0.03	0.06	-1	-0.07	-0.14	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.04
category dissimilarity	(-.42)**	(-.41)**	0.06	-0.26	(-.36)*	(-.48)**	-0.19	-0.18	(-.36)**	(-.34)*
POS	(.47)**	(.47)**								
LMX2			(.83)**	(.60)**						
LMX3					(.52)**	(.61)**				
TMX2							(.72)**	(.69)**		
TMX3									(.65)**	(.65)**
category * POS		-0.1								
category * LMX 2				-0.09						
category * LMX 3						0.36				
category * TMX 2								-0.09		
category * TMX 3										-0.04
R^2	0.3	0.3	0.46	0.33	0.33	0.36	0.5	0.51	0.48	0.48

Table 3.41

proactive socialization behavior (feedback seeking)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.12	0.12	0.13	0.11	0.12	0.18
pre-hire materials	-0.12	-0.12	-0.1	-0.06	-0.08	-0.11
work style dissimilarity	0.1	0.06	0.1	0.15	0.1	0.11
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	(-.31)*	(-.34)*				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.24	0.26		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0.22	0.2
work * (ID+SD+FV)		-0.17		-0.33		0.36
work * (CI+SR)						
work * (FI)						
R^2	0.09	0.1	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.1

Table 3.42

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.09	0.1	0.04	0.01	0.02	-0.02
pre-hire materials	-0.15	-0.15	-0.1	-0.05	-0.11	-0.09
work style dissimilarity	0.17	0.03	0.16	0.24	0.17	0.17
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	(-.58)**	(-.68)**				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.1	0.13		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.06	-0.04
work * (ID+SD+FV)		(-.56)**				
work * (CI+SR)				-0.54		
work * (FI)						-0.31
	0.29	0.37	0.03	0.07	0.03	0.05

Table 3.43

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.17	0.17	0.24	0.24	0.21	0.13
pre-hire materials	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.12
work style dissimilarity	0.11	0.16	0.1	0.12	0.11	0.11
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	0.01	0.05				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			(.36)**	(.37)**		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0.18	0.21
work * (ID+SD+FV)		0.21				
work * (CI+SR)				-0.13		
work * (FI)						-0.47
R^2	0.04	0.05	0.19	0.19	0.08	0.15

Table 3.44

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.27	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.23	0.23
pre-hire materials	-0.23	-0.22	-0.21	-0.19	-0.23	-0.22
work style dissimilarity	-0.03	-0.09	-0.04	0	-0.03	-0.03
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	-0.18	-0.23				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.18	0.19		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.14	-0.14
work * (ID+SD+FV)		-0.24				
work * (CI+SR)				-0.27		
work * (FI)						-0.02
	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.13	0.11	0.11

Table 3.45

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.04	-0.01	-0.08
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.07	0.09	0.12	0.09	0.13
work style dissimilarity	-0.05	-0.03	-0.05	0.01	-0.05	-0.04
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	-0.2	-0.19				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			(.37)**	(.39)**		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0.02	0.05
work * (ID+SD+FV)		0.04				
work * (CI+SR)				-0.39		
work * (FI)						-0.44
R^2	0.04	0.04	0.15	0.16	0.01	0.06

Table 3.46

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)

	model 15		model 16		model 17	
intern	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.13	0.1	0.07
pre-hire materials	-0.08	-0.08	-0.05	-0.01	-0.06	-0.04
work style dissimilarity	0	-0.05	-0.01	0.07	0	0
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	(-.38)**	(-.42)**				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.25	0.27		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.07	-0.05
work * (ID+SD+FV)		-0.2				
work * (CI+SR)				-0.46		
work * (FI)						-0.22
	0.12	0.13	0.07	0.1	0.02	0.03

Table 3.47

proactive socialization behavior (feedback)

	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.13	0.12	0.11	0.07	0.1	0.1
pre-hire materials	-0.13	-0.14	-0.08	-0.06	-0.06	-0.05
category dissimilarity	0.1	0.08	-0.14	-0.07	-0.11	-0.11
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	(-.34)*	(-.35)*				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.27	0.22		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0.24	0.21
category * (ID+SD+FV)		0.19				
category * (CI+SR)				-0.34		
category * (FI)						-0.06
R^2	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.13	0.07	0.07

Table 3.48

proactive socialization behavior (job-change negotiation)

	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.07	0.08	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03	-0.05
pre-hire materials	-0.14	-0.13	-0.07	-0.05	-0.08	-0.03
category dissimilarity	-0.04	-0.03	-0.34	-0.28	-0.27	-0.26
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	(-.56)**	(-.55)**				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.18	0.13		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.01	-0.18
category * (ID+SD+FV)		-0.17				
category * (CI+SR)				-0.34		
category * (FI)						-0.33
	0.27	0.29	0.09	0.14	0.06	0.13

Table 3.49

proactive socialization behavior (positive framing)

	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.16	0.14	0.22	0.24	0.19	0.2
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.09	0.08
category dissimilarity	-0.02	-0.06	-0.16	-0.19	-0.07	-0.08
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	0.02	-0.01				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.4	(.42)**		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0.2	0.23
category * (ID+SD+FV)		(.37)*				
category * (CI+SR)				0.18		
category * (FI)						0.05
R^2	0.03	0.12	0.2	0.22	0.07	0.07

Table 3.50

proactive socialization behavior (general socialization)

	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.24	0.24	0.25	0.26	0.21	0.21
pre-hire materials	-0.21	-0.22	-0.19	-0.2	-0.21	-0.21
category dissimilarity	-0.15	-0.15	-0.28	-0.3	-0.17	-0.17
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	-0.14	-0.14				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			0.23	0.25		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.12	-0.14
category * (ID+SD+FV)		0.07				
category * (CI+SR)				0.1		
category * (FI)						-0.04
	0.13	0.13	0.17	0.18	0.13	0.13

Table 3.51

proactive socialization behavior (information seeking)

	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.05	-0.02	-0.03
pre-hire materials	0.07	0.05	0.11	0.1	0.1	0.11
category dissimilarity	-0.02	-0.05	-0.25	-0.28	-0.12	-0.12
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	-0.2	-0.22				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			(.42)**	(.44)**		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					-0.05	0.02
category * (ID+SD+FV)		0.36				
category * (CI+SR)				0.14		
category * (FI)						-0.05
R^2	0.04	0.11	0.18	0.19	0.02	0.02

Table 3.52

proactive socialization behavior (relationship-building + networking)						
	model 32		model 33		model 34	
intern	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.09	0.05	0.049
pre-hire materials	-0.06	-0.06	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02
category dissimilarity	0.23	-0.24	(-.48)**	(-.46)**	-0.36	-0.36
institutionalized tactics (ID+SD+FV)	-0.3	-0.31				
institutionalized tactics (CI+SR)			(.35)**	(.34)**		
institutionalized tactics (FI)					0	-0.01
category * (ID+SD+FV)		0.11				
category * (CI+SR)				-0.09		
category * (FI)						-0.01
R^2	0.15	0.15	0.2	0.2	0.09	0.09

Table 3.53

	job embeddedness (fit)					
intern	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	(-.12)*	-0.01	-0.01
pre-hire materials	0	0	0	0	0	0
feedback seeking	0.01					
job-change negotiation		0.01				
positive framing			0.01			
general socialization				(.02)*		
information-seeking					(.02)**	
relationship building + networking						(.02)**
R^2	0.06	0.06	0.1	0.13	0.16	0.15

Table 3.54

	job embeddedness (link)					
intern	-0.07	-0.07	(-.12)*	-0.08	-0.05	-0.08
pre-hire materials	0.09	0.09	0.05	0.1	0.06	0.09
feedback seeking	0.02					
job-change negotiation		0.05				
positive framing			(.18)**			
general socialization				0.07		
information-seeking					(.14)*	
relationship building + networking						0.09
R^2	0.06	0.07	0.24	0.08	0.18	0.1

Table 3.55

	job embeddedness (sacrifice)					
intern	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
pre-hire materials	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01
feedback seeking	(0.03)**					
job-change negotiation		(.03)**				
positive framing			0.01			
general socialization				(.03)*		
information-seeking					(.05)**	
relationship building + networking						(.05)*
R^2	0.17	0.17	0.08	0.12	0.3	0.3

Table 3.56

	turnover intention		
intern	-0.01	0	-0.01
pre-hire materials	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01
job embeddedness (fit)	(-1.39)**		
job embeddedness (link)		0.09	
job embeddedness (sacrifice)			(-.64)**
R^2	0.24	0.08	0.18

Table 3.57

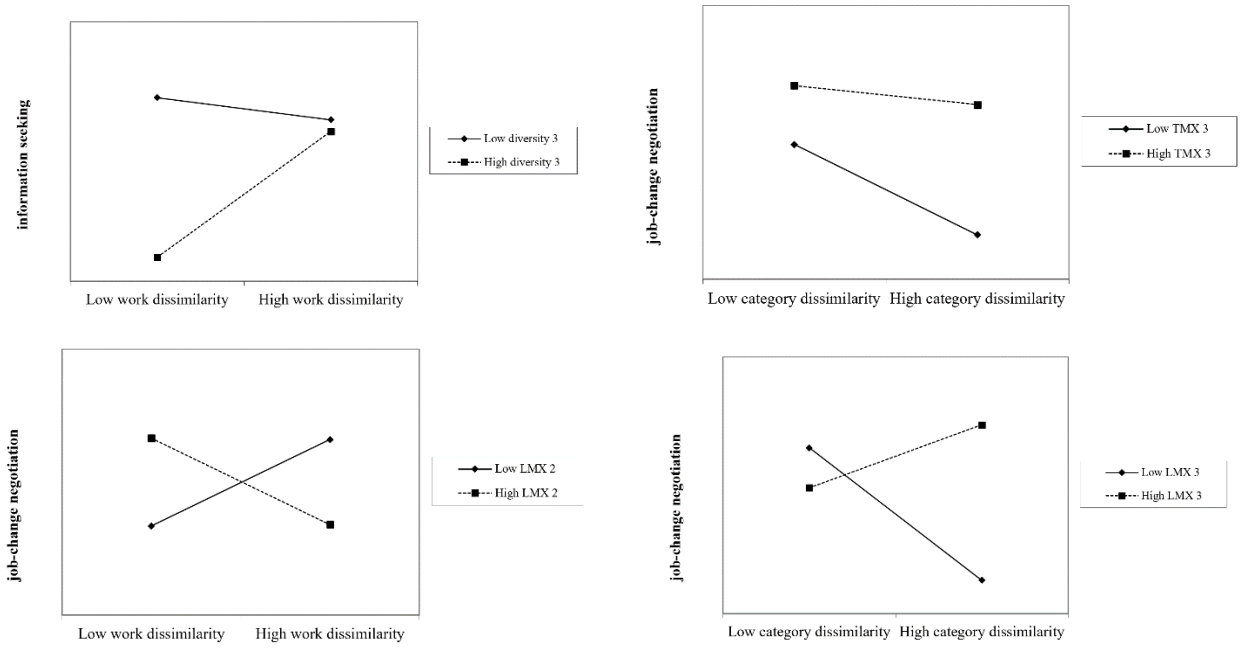

Figure 3.2-3.5

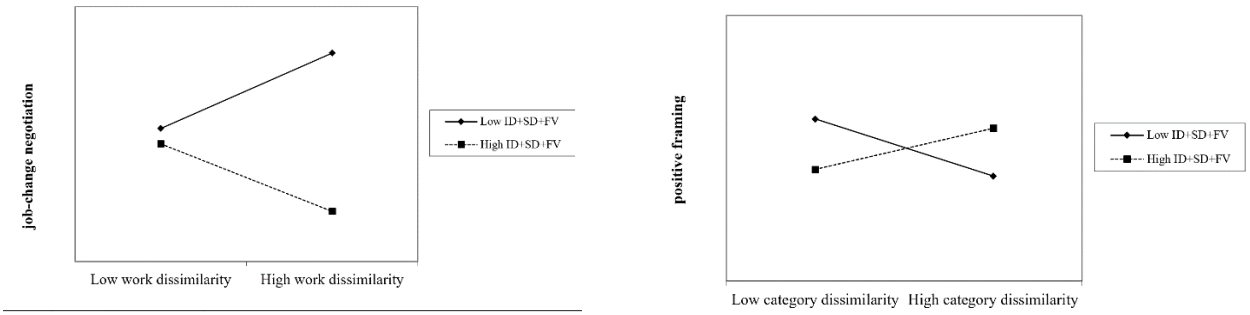

Figure 3.6-3.7

Discussion

This paper focuses on the accommodation and role management stages of the organizational socialization process. I collect the independent variable (perceived dissimilarity) and individual factor (CQ) prior to newcomers' organizational entry, and measure their perceived

diversity climate, supervisor and coworker support at time 2 (two weeks after entry) and time 3 (three months after entry). The purpose of the measure-remeasure process is to identify the change in newcomers' perceptions of the three variables. Surprisingly, though the leader and coworker support remained at the same level with a slight reduce ($\mu_{LMX2} = 5.94, \mu_{LMX3} = 5.81, \mu_{TMX2} = 3.83, \mu_{TMX3} = 3.79$), the perceived diversity climate measured at time 3 is signficantly lower than its level at time 2 ($\mu_{DIVERSITY2} = 4.60, \mu_{DIVERSITY3} = 1.42$). This is a powerful indicator of the gap between the planning and implementation of the diverse and inclusive organizational culture in organizations. The difference between the supervisor and coworker support could also provide some explanation for the finding for hypothesis 4. The lack of coworker support might be one reason for its weaker influence on newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others compared to supervisor support. I then collect the data for job embeddedness and turnover intention at time 4, which occurs 6 months after organizational entry. I did not find support for hypothesis 1. Newcomers perceive a higher level of work style and category dissimilarity tend to engage in less proactive socialization behaviors when they have high levels of metacognitive, motivational, and cognitive CQ. Likely, newcomers with higher cultural awareness and knowledge and motivation to learn another culture tend to raise concerns about the potential costs of proactive socialization when they see themselves as different from the majority. However, we find that the high level of perceived diversity climate could reduce these concerns and facilitate newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors when they feel dissimilar from the majority, no matter what levels of CQ they have. This finding implies that high levels of CQ mitigate the relationship between perceived dissimilarity and proactive socialization behavior through raising concerns of costs associated with it, validating my suggestion. However, CQ's influence is not strong enough compared to the effect of strong perceived diversity climate, as the latter cancels out the former's

effect when included in the same model simultaneously. Although the perceived diversity climate becomes significantly lower at time 3, its buffering effect on high CQ newcomers' concerns is stronger than its measurement at time 2, signifying the importance of perceived diversity climate at the accommodation stage.

Other than this, I find support for most hypotheses. For instance, newcomers' perceived work style dissimilarity interacts with the perceived diversity climate measured at time 3 and contributes to greater information-seeking behaviors. The perceived diversity climate measured at time 3, although significantly lower than its level at time 2, still significantly influence newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar newcomers when it is at a high level. I also found support for hypothesis 3, where low levels of coworker and supervisor support would hinder newcomers' intention of proactive socialization with dissimilar others. However, when the supervisor support is low at the beginning of the organizational entry, newcomers are forced to engage in job-change negotiation to figure out the job requirements themselves. The find for hypothesis 5 is against our prediction but follows the direction proposed by Ashford and Sluss et al. (2007). To be specific, I find that lack of institutionalized tactics would induce more uncertainty and push newcomers to reach out to incumbents when they perceive dissimilarity in work styles. On the contrary, when organizations heavily use institutionalized tactics, dissimilar newcomers tend to find it less necessary to engage in job-change negotiations and more comfortable to engage in positive framing. I also find support for hypothesis 6, with the moderated relationships positively related to newcomers' job embeddedness, leading to reduced turnover intention.

Contributions

This article contributes to the organizational socialization literature in the following ways. First, I take a unique perspective to focus on newcomer employees who perceive to be different

from most incumbent employees in the organization. The focus on newcomers who perceive to be dissimilar from the majority incumbents would exploit a new area for organizational socialization studies—what makes newcomers' socialization experiences different from dissimilar others? How could these unique experiences benefit/ thwart their socialization and adjustment in organizations? What could organizations do to facilitate their proactivity? I am also the first to include CQ into the domestic organizational socialization research, since CQ should also apply to the domestic organizational culture. Besides, instead of treating the contextual factor as the underlying background in which the socialization process occurs, I bring in the perceived diversity climate as a moderator in the current theoretical model. I investigate the influence of individual and contextual factors on the relationship between newcomers' perceived dissimilarity and their proactive socialization behavior. The findings suggest that a perceived diversity climate reduces newcomers' concerns about costs associated with proactive socialization with dissimilar others. The influence of the strong perceived diversity climate even overpowers the influence of individual factors. When newcomers are aware of and motivated to learn about the new culture, their perceived dissimilarity with the incumbents is also strengthened, leading to greater concerns and less proactive socialization activities. However, the strong perceived diversity climate cancels out this effect, so that the hindering effect of CQ is only salient when the perceived diversity climate is also low, and the CQ's effect disappears when the perceived diversity climate is high. I believe the moderated moderation effect (Hayes 2017) of CQ and perceived diversity climate could further shed light on the organizational socialization literature. I also examine other contextual factors' influence on newcomer proactivity. Namely, I incorporate three levels of perceived support and examine their influences on dissimilar newcomer's proactivity and find that even though the strong supervisor and coworker support may not boost newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar

others, lack of supervisor and coworker support will reduce newcomers' willingness to reach out to the dissimilar others. Moreover, I find that merely leaving newcomers swim-or-sink in the organization would induce more uncertainty and urge newcomers to become more proactive. Lastly, I integrate all three organizational socialization research perspectives in this essay. Namely, I examine the effect of organizational socialization tactics and other contextual and individual factors on newcomers' proactive socialization behaviors throughout the anticipatory, accommodation, and role management stage.

Practical implications

This paper provides several implications for practice. First of all, the newcomers without work experience may be more reluctant to proactively socialize with dissimilar others when they have a high awareness of and motivation to learn about a different culture. To facilitate proactive socialization behaviors, organizations could establish mentor programs of networking events that connect new graduates with other young professionals or alumni who just transitioned from school to work, reducing their perceived distance between the organizational culture and college culture. Also, establishing a diverse and inclusive organizational climate is particularly helpful in promoting proactive socialization behaviors at the accommodation stage of socialization. Organizations could establish programs facilitating the fit and acceptance of newcomer employees, as well as setting role models who share similar backgrounds as newcomers in the organization. The data also suggested that organizations have a vast gap between the planning and establishing of the diverse and inclusive organizational climate. The weak diversity climate cannot effectively buffer newcomers' concerns associated with proactive socialization with the dissimilar others. As a result, organizations need to have specialties to monitor and manage the effective implementation of the comprehensive plans of diversity and inclusion. Finally, although there is no significant drop

in the level of coworker and supervisor support at time 3, I see a significant difference between the overall level of coworker and supervisor support at both time 2 and time 3. This chasm may have undermined the power of coworker support in newcomers' proactive socialization with significant others. The current result indicates that high levels of supervisor and coworker support might not lead to more proactive socialization with dissimilar others, but low levels of coworker support will reduce the amount of newcomer proactivity. However, with a higher overall level of coworker support, I expect to see greater power on newcomer proactivity due to its shorter psychological distance compared with supervisor support. For instance, it is possible that when the overall level of coworker support is the same as supervisor support, the former could encourage newcomers to engage in more proactive socialization when they perceive themselves to be dissimilar from others. Hence, it is crucial for organizations to not only facilitate the support from supervisors, but among coworkers. Further, even though entirely rely on institutionalized tactics during the onboarding process might create the opportunity for "passive dependence on others" or alternative to proactive socialization based on the previous finding, organizations should keep some portion of the onboarding process adopting the institutionalized tactics, especially when newcomers are coming from different backgrounds and having diverse work styles. Entirely relying on the "swim-or-sink" style of socialization tactics could induce more uncertainty and anxiety during newcomer socialization, forcing them to reach out to existing employees in the organization and have a hard time picturing the challenges through a positive lense. During the onboarding process, the ideal practice would combine the collective and individualistic tactics, offering newcomers adequate general information and encouraging them to socialize with current employees proactively. Finally, since time 3 and time 4 data collection in this study is conducted during the COVID-19, newcomers' experiences at the later socialization stages might be severely

influenced. In order to deal with the changes in the work mode and better socialize the newcomers, organizations should create opportunities to promote proactive socialization. For instance, organizations could encourage easy and frequent online interaction and collaboration by designing formal and informal activities and networking events. The organization could also establish online groups for newcomers and dissimilar employees, embracing the diversity in the workforce. Further, during the onboarding process, organizations could deploy a gamified experience to engage the newcomers, and involve mentors/ role models/ experienced employees with similar backgrounds in the orientation sessions.

Limitations and Future Research

To capture newcomers' socialization activities during the anticipatory stage, this paper only measured perceived dissimilarity at time 1, which occurs prior to organizational entry. However, the level of perceived dissimilarity could change as newcomers start working in the organization and actually interact with the existing employees. Future studies could collect data on newcomers' perceived dissimilarity after entering the organization, interacted with their coworkers and supervisors for a certain period of time, and compare the new value with the pre-entry measurement. Also, in order to study the anticipatory stage of socialization, I collected data solely from college students who are about to graduate and will start working right after graduation. However, anticipatory socialization does not only occur to people who have zero official work experience, but also happens to people who are transferring from another organization, another department, or another team. Future studies could examine the current findings on a broader range of the population. Besides, most college students are at the age of 21-25, which only represents the small portion of the large population of the newcomers and would be seen in a stereotypical

way (e.g., millennials are self-centered). Also, it is possible that their lack of work experiences strengthened their concerns during proactive socialization with dissimilar others, so that they would be even less proactive when they aware of and motivated to learn about the new culture. Future studies could test the effect of CQ on experienced workers who transit from one organization or one team to another to see if CQ could promote proactive socialization with dissimilar others for experienced newcomers. In addition, most college students target white-collar positions when looking for jobs, while only a small portion of college graduates will end up with positions in blue-collar industries. Hence the result I got here might only work for white-collar industries. However, the socialization process for blue-collar positions might be different, with blue-collar workers possibly score lower in CQ, and the transfer of learning becomes more important for their jobs. Hence, future research could try to replicate our findings on blue-collar working groups and compare the results to the results in this study.

My measurement also suffers from a significant drop in respondent numbers. Since time 3 and time 4 data collection happened during COVID-19, the respondents might be too frightened by the pandemic crisis to turn in the survey in a timely manner, resulting in the small sample size in this study. Future studies could re-test the current theoretical model with larger, more diverse samples and include the potential influence of COVID-19 and the new stay-at-home work mode into the model.

There are also some boundary conditions for this study. First, I assume that all newcomers are lower-status when entering the organization hence would need to work with or under the experienced employees for a long time. However, it is also possible that newcomers are entered the organization for a higher-level job and have a certain level of job autonomy, hence they would not have such a great need of assimilating into the existing employee groups (Hurst, Kammeyer-

Mueller, et al. 2012). However, in order to perform their job efficiently, high-status newcomers still need to build relationships with other management teams and their subordinates, acquire information related to their jobs and feedback about their management styles and make certain adaptations. Also, since higher-status newcomers are in a more powerful position, they would have more leeway and authority to shape the environment to fit their work styles. Future studies are encouraged to test the current model on newcomers transiting to more senior positions.

Conclusion

This article integrates the three organizational socialization perspectives and examines dissimilar newcomers' unique socialization experiences throughout the three socialization stages. We propose that the socialization activities during the anticipatory stage would influence newcomers' socialization process in the accommodation and role management stages. To be specific, we find that newcomers perceiving to be dissimilar from the majority in the organization tend to engage in less proactive socialization behaviors when they have high CQ, possibly due to the strengthened sense of dissimilarity and the concern of potential costs associated with practivity. However, strong perceived diversity climate could mitigate or even overrule the effect of CQ in some cases. Newcomers who perceive strong diversity in the organizational climate are encouraged to be more proactive during interactions with employees with different work styles and demographic backgrounds. The coworker and supervisor support are found to influence newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others. To be specific, although a high level of supervisor and coworker support does not necessarily improve newcomers' proactive socialization with dissimilar others, a low level of supervisor and coworker support will make newcomers less proactive during social interactions. We also find the impact of institutionalized tactics on

newcomers' socialization. Even though the high level of institutionalized tactics may not lead to reduced proactive socialization with dissimilar others, a lack of institutionalized tactics would force newcomers to become more proactive.

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> Although information-seeking efforts during organisational entry are of critical importance to newcomers' successful organisational assimilation, the means by which new hires seek information has received scant research attention. Consequently, in this article we develop a theoretical model depicting factors that may affect newcomers' information-seeking

behaviors, examine the means or tactics by which they seek information, and present a series of heuristically-oriented propositions concerning newcomers' use of these tactics.

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Appendix A

Main Variable Measurement

Variables	Measurement	Time of Collection
Perceived dissimilarity	Zeller-Bruhn et al 2008 (Perceived Similarity)	Time 1 (pre-entry)
	1. Members of my team share a similar work ethic 2. Members of my team have similar work habits 3. Members of my team have similar communication styles 4. Members of my team have similar interaction styles 5. Members of my team have similar personalities 6. Members of my team come from common cultural backgrounds 7. Members of my team are from the same country 8. Members of my team share similar ethnic backgrounds	
Cultural Intelligence (CQ)	Ang, Van Dyne et al. 2007 (CQS)	Time 1 (pre-entry)
	Metacognitive CQ (MC) 1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds 2. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me 3. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions 4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures	

	Cognitive CQ (COG) 7. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures 8. I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages 9. I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures 10. I know the marriage systems of other cultures 11. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures 12. I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures Motivational CQ (MOT) 6. I enjoy interacting with people from different culture 7. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me 8. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me 9. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me 10. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture Behavioral CQ (BEH) 1. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it 2. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations 3. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it 4. I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it 5. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it	

Diversity Climate	Pugh et al. 2008	Time 2 (two weeks after entry) Time 3 (three months after entry)
	1. "[The company] makes it easy for people from diverse backgrounds to fit in and be accepted" 2. "Where I work, employees are developed advanced without regard to the gender or the racial, religious, or cultural background of the individual" 3. "Managers demonstrate through their actions that they want to hire and retain a diverse workforce" 4. "I feel that my immediate manager/supervisor does a good job of managing people with diverse backgrounds (in terms of age, sex, race, religion, or culture)."	
Supervisor Support	Liden & Maslyn 1998 (LMX-MDM)	Time 2 (two weeks after entry) Time 3 (three months after entry)
	1. I like my supervisor very much as a person 2. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend 3. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with 4. My supervisor defends my work actions to a supervisor, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question 5. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others	

	6. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake 7. I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description 8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interest if my work group 9. I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job 10. I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job 11. I admire my supervisor's professional skills	
Coworker Support	Seers 1989, 1995 (TMX)	Time 2 (two week after entry) Time 3 (three months after entry)
	1. How often do you make suggestions about better work methods to other team members? 2. Do other members of your team usually let you know when you do something that makes their job easier (or harder)? 3. How often do you let other team members know when they have done something that makes your job easier (or harder)? 4. How well do other members of your team recognize your potential? 5. How well do other members of your team understand your problems and needs? 6. How flexible are you about switching hob responsibilities to make things easier for other team members? 7. In busy situations, how often do other team members ask you to help out?	

	8. In busy situations, how often do you volunteer your efforts to help others on your team? 9. How willing are you to help finish work that had been assigned to others? 10. How willing are other members of your team to help finish work that was assigned to you?	
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	Eisenberger et al. 1986, 1990 (short version of SPOS)	Time 3 (three months after entry)
	1. The organization strongly considers my goals and values 2. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem 3. The organization really cares about my well-being 4. The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability **5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (R)** 6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work **7. The organization shows very little concern for me (R)** 8. The organization cares about my opinions 9. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work	
Institutional Tactics	Jones 1986	Time 3 (three months after entry)
	Collective versus individual (CI): 1. In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job related training activities	

	2. Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements 3. This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences 4. Most of my training has been carried out apart from other newcomers (r) 5. There is a sense of "being in the same boat" amongst newcomers in this organization *Formal versus informal (FI):* 1. I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job-related skills 2. During my training for this job I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members 3. I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods 4. Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis (r) 5. I have been very aware that I am seen as "learning the ropes" in the organization *Investiture versus divestiture (ID):* 1. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization 2. Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally 3. I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization (r) 4. My colleagues have gone out of t heir way to help me adjust to this organization	

	5. I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations (r) *Sequential versus random (SR):* 1. There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization 2. Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the proceeding stages of the process 3. The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experiences a track record is very apparent in this organization 4. This organization does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experiences (r) 5. The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this organization *Serial versus disjunctive (SD):* 1. Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization 2. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization form observing my senior colleagues 3. I have received little guidance from experiences organizational members as to how I should perform my job (r) 4. I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization (r) 5. I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization (r) *Fixed versus variable (FV):*	

	1. I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experiences 2. I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization 3. The way in which my progress through this organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me 4. I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercise in this organization (r) 5. Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, through the grapevine, rather than regular organizational channels (r)	
Newcomer Proactivity	Ashford & Black 1996	Time 3 (three months after entry)
	To what extent have you… Feedback-seeking 25. Sought feedback on your performance after assignments? 26. Solicited critiques form your boss? 27. Sought out feedback on your performance during assignments? 28. Asked for your boss's opinion of your work? Job-change negotiation 29. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about desirable job changes? 30. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about your task assignments?	

	31. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about the demands placed on you? 32. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about their expectations of you? Positive framing 33. Tried to see your situation as an opportunity rather than a threat? 34. Tried to look on the bright side of things? 35. Tried to see your situation as a challenge rather than a problem? General socialization 36. Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)? 37. Attended company social gatherings? 38. Attended office parties? Relationship-building 39. Tried to spend as much times as you could with your boss? 40. Tried to form a good relationship with your boss? 41. Worked hard to get to know your boss? Networking 42. Started conversations with people from different segments of the company? 43. Tried to socialize with people who are not in your department? 44. Tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis? Information-seeking 45. Tried to learn the (official) organizational structure?	

	46. Tried to learn the important policies and procedures in the organization? 47. Tried to learn the politics of the organization? 48. Tried to learn the (unofficial) structure?	
Embeddedness	Allen 2006, Mitchell et al. 2000	Time 4 (six months after entry)
	Organizational Fit 1. I like the members of my work group 2. My coworkers are similar to me 3. My job utilizes my skills and talents well 4. I feel like I am a good match for this company 5. I fit with the company's culture 6. I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company Organizational Link 7. How long have you been in your present position? 8. How long have you worked for this company? 9. How long have you worked in the industry? 10. How many coworkers do you interact with regularly? 11. How many coworkers do you interact are highly dependent on you? 12. How many work teams are you on? 13. How many work committees are you on? Organizational Sacrifice 14. I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals 15. The perks on this job are outstanding 16. I feel that people at work respect me a great deal 17. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this hob	

	18. My promotional opportunities are excellent here 19. I am well compensated for my level of performance 20. The benefits are good on this job 21. The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent 22. The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent 23. The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent	
Turnover Intention	Nissly, Barak & Levin 2005	Time 4 (six months after entry)
	1. In the next few months I intend to leave this organization 2. In the next few years I intend to leave this organization 3. I occasionally think about leaving this organization 4. I'd like to work in this organization until I reach retirement age	

Appendix B

Control Varibles Measurement

Demographic Variables Being Controlled	Measurement	Time of Collection
Internship experiences	Y/N	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Major	Type down	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Age	Type down	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Gender	Self-identified gender (M/F/Prefer not to say)	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Years of graduation	Type down	Time 1 (pre-entry)
How did you hear about the organization?	Campus recruiting/ Job board/ Job listing on website/ Word of mouth/ Other (please specify)	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Alternative offers in hand	Y/N	Time 1 (pre-entry)
Availability of pre-hair materials	Y/N (if yes, what kind?)	Time 1 (pre-entry)

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Chancellor's Graduate Student Award, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee 2015-2019
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RESEARCH

Manuscripts in Progress

Yu, L. & Ren, H., "Who Do They Think You Are? The Impact of HCN's View On Female Expatriate's Cross-Cultural Adjustment." Revise and resubmit at ***Journal of Global Mobility***.

Singh, R., Fouad, N., Zhu, X., Kozlowski, M., Wester, S., Yadav, M., **Yu, L.**, "Do Men and Women in traditionally Male-Dominated Occupations Experience Asymmetric Career Effects?" Under review at ***Journal of Vocational Behavior***.

Yu, L. "Organizational Socialization. A Review and Future Research Agenda." Under review at ***Human Resource Development Review***.

Yu, L. "Socialization in the modern age: how do minority newcomer employees socialize prior to the entry of diverse organizations?" Manuscript revision stage.

Yu, L. "Socialization in the modern age: how do minority newcomer employees socialize after entering their organizations?" Manuscript revision stage.

Fouad, N., Levitas, E., Singh, R. & **Yu, L.** "Push and pull of workplace factors and patenting activity among engineers: Does gender matter?" (in preparation for submission to ***Academy of Management Journal***). Data analysis stage.

Albert, D. & **Yu, L.** "Explaining the recombination-performance link: a behavioral research perspective of business divisions." Data analysis stage.

Conference Presentations

Yu, L. & Dobrev, S., "The Authentic Chinese Restaurants and Their Organizational Argument: What Made Them Authentic And How?" ***2017 Midwest Academy of Management Annual Meeting,*** Chicago, Illinois.

Yu, L. & Ren, H., "Being A Female and An Expatriate: An Examination of Female Expatriates' Successfulness From HCN's Perspective." ***2017 Midwest Academy of Management Annual Meeting,*** Chicago, Illinois.

Singh, R., Fouad, N., Zhu, X., Kozlowski, M., Wester, S., Yadav, M., **Yu, L.,**"Do Men and Women in Traditionally Male-Dominated Occupations Experience Asymmetric Career Effects?" ***2020 Academy of Management Annual Meeting,*** Vancouver, BC, Canada.

Other Conference Appearance

Caucus Proposal Discussant – "Comparative Analysis of Inclusivity: The Other Side of Exclusivity" ***2019 Academy of Management Annual Meeting,*** Boston, Massachusetts.

TEACHING EXPERIENCES

Independent Teaching

Organizational Behavior (BUS ADM 330)(hybrid)	Fall 2020
Organizational Behavior (BUS ADM 330)(online)	Spring 2020
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Organizational Behavior (BUS ADM 330)	Spring 2019
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Strategic Management (BUS ADM 600, undergraduate capstone class)	Summer 2018

Teaching Assistant

Organizational Behavior (BUS ADM 330)	Spring 2018

SERVICE TO THE PROFESSION

Academy of Management Review Program Assistant — Aug 2016-Jan 2018

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

Academy of Management	2015-Present
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Sojourner Family Peace Center	Milwaukee, WI
HR Intern	May 2014-May 2015
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