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The role of proactivity during organizational entry: Proactive socialization tactics, citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors

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The Role of Proactivity during Organizational Entry: Proactive Socialization Tactics,
Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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initiative

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Dedication

For my wonderful parents, Mualla and Kudret, as always...

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The Role of Proactivity during Organizational Entry: Proactive Socialization Tactics,
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ABSTRACT

Newcomers engage in proactive behaviors during organizational entry to increase their adjustment to the organization and to successfully complete their socialization. The present study investigated the links between proactive socialization tactics (i.e., positive framing, sense making and relationship building) and organizational outcomes. Specifically, organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., assisting coworkers) and counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., verbal abuse) were investigated. The sample included 216 employees from various industries and organizations with an average organizational tenure of 9 months. The results indicated that all proactive socialization behaviors were associated with high levels of citizenship behaviors (i.e., OCB). Only positive framing was associated with low levels of counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., CWB). Furthermore, newcomer adjustment variables (i.e., role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration) were positively related to OCB and negatively related to CWB. The results also provided some support for the newcomer adjustment variables as mediators between proactive socialization behaviors and OCB/CWB. The present study also investigated the role of procedural justice in this model that links proactive socialization behaviors to OCB/CWB through newcomer adjustment variables. Results indicated procedural justice moderated the relationship between relationship building and newcomer adjustment including role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration.

Chapter One: Introduction

If opportunity doesn't knock, build a door. – Milton Berle

In an era of boundariless careers and frequent job transitions, it is crucial for employees to get socialized to their organization effectively and to adjust to their work setting quickly (Saks and Ashforth, 1997). Organizational entry marks a period of “reality shocks”, surprises and uncertainty for newcomers (Reichers, 1987; Louis, 1980). Under these turbulent circumstances, successful organization socialization can be achieved when “the person secures relevant job skills, acquires a functional level of organizational understanding, attains supportive social interactions with coworkers, and generally accepts the established ways of a particular organization” (Taormina, 1997, p. 29). The process of socialization during entry is critical in many respects, because perceptions, attitudes and behaviors of newcomers are shaped constantly as they gain knowledge in their new work setting and establish their roles in the organizational structure (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Socialization theory posits that people are not reactive and passive agents during organizational entry, but newcomers engage in a set of proactive activities to gain control over their environment and increase their work adjustment (Ashford and Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Because the organization cannot possibly provide all of the information and socialization that the employee needs, the employee must make some proactive efforts to learn how things are done (Schein, 1968) and to “become fully adjusted insider” (Fisher, 1985, p. 39). Proactive socialization tactics (e.g., information seeking and networking) help

newcomers with the adjustment process (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo & Tucker, 2007). These tactics have been related to positive individual and organizational outcomes including high performance, high job satisfaction as well as low levels of anxiety, turnover intentions and actual turnover (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashford, 1997). The existing research on proactive socialization tactics focuses mainly on task performance (Morrison, 1993b) as a behavioral outcome. The influence of such tactics on the behaviors beyond task performance is largely unknown.

Two different streams of research study extra-task performance behaviors that impact the context in which tasks are performed, thereby affect organizational functioning and experiences (Dalal, 2005; Lee & Allen; 2002; Miles, Borman, Spector & Fox, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2002). Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) involves actions that contribute to the organizational, social, and psychological environment in the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1997). OCB may include acts such as helping coworkers, defending one's company against criticisms and offering ideas to improve things. Counterproductive work behavior (CWB), on the other hand, concerns intentional actions to harm the organization or its members (Fox & Spector, 1999; Spector & Fox, 2002). CWB may include acts such as theft, verbal abuse, withholding of effort, stealing, and physical assault. There has been a growing interest in exploring OCB and CWB for two main reasons. First, they are recognized as part of a broad conception of job performance that goes beyond assigned tasks (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Supervisors factor them in when they evaluate employee performance. Second, both citizenship and counterproductive behavior affect individual and organizational functioning and productivity. OCB is typically associated with positive outcomes such as organizational commitment and high performance ratings (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), while

CWB is typically associated with negative outcomes such as financial losses and poor well-being (Spector & Fox, 2002). This growing body of research has studied OCB and CWB mostly without any reference to a particular time period in organizational life. Thus, there is no research that specifically focuses on the impact of experiences during organizational entry on OCB and CWB. This inquiry is important, because the beginning of one's career in an organization is a potent time for organizational identification, cultivation of company values and formation of initial attitudes and behavioral response patterns (Saks & Ashford, 2002), which tend to be resistant to change. Furthermore, perceptions and attitudes about one's workplace such as justice and job satisfaction are among the main predictors OCB and CWB (Podsakoff et al, 2000; Hershcovis et al., 2007).

One of the critical tenets of organizational entry is a move from unfamiliar, unknown, unpredictable and uncontrollable to familiar, known, predictable and controllable. As one of the powerful tools to succeed in this transition, personal control is a central theme around which literatures from organizational socialization and extra-task performance behaviors (OCB and CWB) can be integrated. According to the control theory, personal control is a critical motivational force behind human actions including behaviors in the workplace (Bell & Staw, 1989; Greenberger & Strasser, 1986). While control perceptions promote healthy functioning, lack or loss of control has a detrimental effect on motivation, performance and well-being (Greenberger, Strasser, Cummings & Dunham, 1989; Shapiro & Schwartz, 1996). In socialization literature, several authors have described organizational entry as a period of uncertainty (Jones, 1986; Lois, 1980; Miller & Jablin, 1991) and suggested that gaining personal control by reducing uncertainty is critical for effective newcomer adjustment and socialization. Along similar lines, Ashford and Black (1996) suggested that the "entry into a new organizational environment can be thought of as a

process by which individuals temporarily lose and *proactively* attempt to regain feelings of control” (p. 200). During this process, personal control can be achieved by the use of proactive socialization tactics, which help newcomers in adjusting to their new role and work setting (Kim, Cable & Kim, 2005). In terms of work behaviors, personal control is also important for extra-task performance behaviors and has been suggested one of the mechanisms that link OCB and CWB. Specifically, high control perceptions are associated with OCB, while low control perceptions may trigger CWB (Spector & Fox, 2002). The premises of both lines of inquiry can be taken together. Through proactive socialization tactics, newcomers increase personal control in a state of utmost uncertainty during organizational entry. As they learn about their environment or establish beneficial work relationships, they reduce uncertainty and better adjust to their social and organizational setting at work; therefore engage in more OCB and in less CWB.

In sum, the present study had the goal of testing the following relationships (See Figure 1). First, the main goal was to investigate the effect of proactive socialization behaviors on extra-task performance behaviors (OCB and CWB). I utilized the socialization model proposed by Saks and Ashforth (2002), control theory, and OCB-CWB literature to explain how proactivity during organizational entry can be linked to extra-task performance behavior. Second, I examined the role of newcomer adjustment (i.e., role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration), which signifies successful attainment of a certain degree of control, in linking the proactive behaviors to OCB and CWB. Third, I explored the effect of procedural justice as a contextual factor on the relationship between proactive behaviors and socialization outcomes. Procedural justice determines whether an individual’s effort will translate into desired outcomes (e.g., self-efficacy), so the relationship between proactive

socialization tactics and outcomes may change depending whether procedures are perceived fair or unfair.

I will first review the literature on counterproductive and organization citizenship behaviors. Then, I will present theoretical and empirical work on extra-task performance behaviors that investigates OCB and CWB simultaneously including personal control. Next, I will focus on specific proactive socialization behaviors as a means of gaining control in the work environment. Lastly, I will propose mediating variables (i.e., newcomer adjustment), which indicate having some level of control, and moderating variables (e.g., justice) that operate in linking proactive socialization behaviors to outcomes.

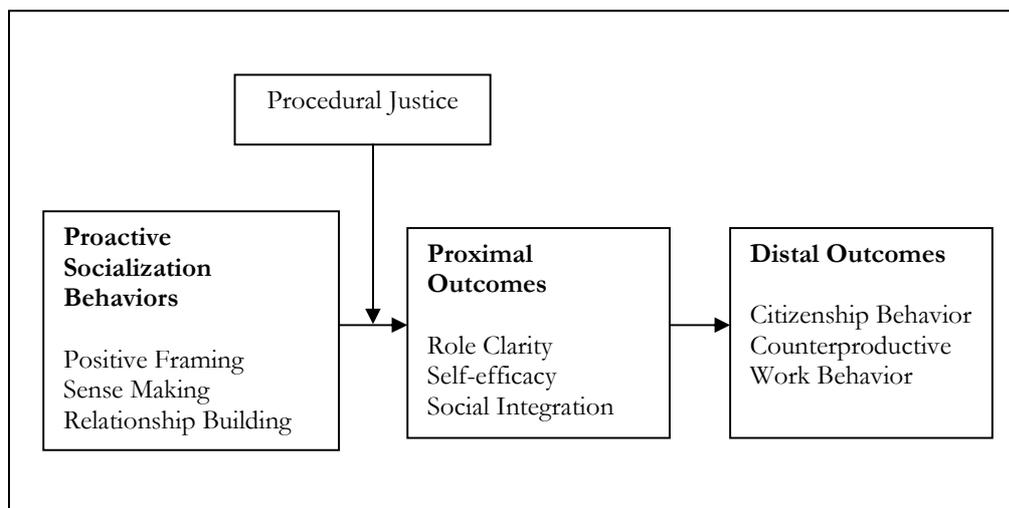


Figure 1. Proposed Relationships in the Present Study

Literature Review

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Employees who contribute to the organization beyond their job requirements are valuable assets for themselves as well as for the organization. Productive behaviors that are intended to help the organization or the members of the organization are considered organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Organ, 1997). These activities contribute to the

psychological and social environment of the workplace and to the organization's productivity by allowing the company to adapt to change and its members to cooperate (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). OCB is also conceptually similar to other constructs such as pro-social behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993) and organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992).

In the literature, there have been different categorizations of OCB. Smith, Organ, and Near (1983) identified two factors: altruism and generalized compliance. Later, Organ (1995) proposed a five-factor model including altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. In an attempt to extend the domain of the OCB construct, Van Dyne and LePine (1998) suggested helping behavior (i.e., promotive behaviors which emphasizes small acts of consideration) and voice behavior (i.e., promotive behaviors that emphasize expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize) as forms of OCB. OCB has been also defined by its target (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Interpersonal OCB (OCBI) is directed at coworkers (e.g., helping others), whereas organizational OCB (OCBO) targets the organization (e.g., enhancing the reputation of the organization).

Citizenship behaviors are influenced by context and by personality. OCB has been related to organizational characteristics (e.g., group cohesiveness), leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et. al, 2000; Ilies, 2007; Piccolo & Colquitt), perceived justice (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and perceived organizational support (Moorman & Byrne, 2005). Additionally, several studies found that positive employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment promote OCB (Dalal, 2005; Moorman & Byrne, 2005; Podsakoff et. al, 2000). In terms of dispositional antecedents, OCB has been positively related to helpfulness, empathy, agreeableness, positive affectivity, conscientiousness (Allen, Fecteau, & Fecteau,

2004; Hertz & Donovan, 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2000), internal locus of control, collectivism and personal initiative (Borman, Penner, Allen and Motowidlo (2001).

Counterproductive Work Behavior

Besides prosocial behaviors, people also engage in antisocial behaviors in the workplace. These intentional acts to harm the organization or its members are considered counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Spector & Fox, 2002). CWB includes acts such as theft, sabotage, verbal abuse, and work slowdowns (Penney & Spector, 2002). CWB is also conceptually similar to constructs such as work aggression (Fox & Spector, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Spector, 1978), deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), retaliation (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999), or revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997).

Like OCBs, CWBs can be differentiated according to the target of the behavior (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Spector & Fox, 2002). Some CWBs are aimed at other people in the organization (CWBP), while some CWBs target the organization (CWBO). For example, employees may verbally abuse a coworker (CWBP) or steal from the organization (CWBO). Recently, Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler (2006) developed a scale with five dimensions of CWB including sabotage, theft, abuse, production deviance and withdrawal.

There has been a lot of research on contextual and personality factors that are related to the occurrence and the frequency of CWB. Contextual antecedents of CWB include organizational constraints, role ambiguity, role conflict, interpersonal conflict, abusive supervision and poor leadership (Chen & Spector, 1992; Detert, Trevino, Burris & Andiappan, 2007; Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness et al., 2007; Spector &

Fox, 2002). Several reviewers agree that job satisfaction and perceived justice are among the key potential antecedents of CWB (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002). Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth (1997) also found that organizational support is associated with decreases and organizational politics is associated with increases the likelihood of antagonistic behaviors (e.g., arguing with coworkers and spreading rumors or gossip about coworkers). Additionally, work group level of CWB coupled with task interdependence of group members (Robinson & O'Really, 1998), supervisory and work group norms (Greenberg & Scott, 1996) have been found to relate to individual levels of CWB. In terms of dispositional antecedents, trait anger and trait anxiety have been positively related to CWB (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999; Fox & Spector, 1999; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 1999). Ones, Viswesvaran and Schmidt, (1993) found that integrity tests that assessed conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability were negatively related to CWB. Other studies reported Machiavellianism (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), negative affectivity, agreeableness (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999), narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2002) and external locus of control (Perlow & Latham, 1993; Storms & Spector, 1987) as predictors of CWB.

Integration of Citizenship Behaviors and Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Both OCB and CWB are important acts that affect organizational life in every stage. Research indicated that supervisors factor in subordinates' OCB and CWB in their performance evaluations (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Furthermore, large scale OCB and CWB by the supervisor and coworkers set the norms for engaging in OCB and CWB within a work unit, a department or the organization overall (Robinson & O'Really, 1998). Recently, there have been attempts to explore OCB and CWB in a parallel fashion (Dunlop & Lee,

2004; Lee & Allen, 2002; Miles, Borman, Spector, & Fox, 2002). Although attempts for model development for the OCB-CWB links are in infancy and mostly empirical, personal control offers an alternative approach to investigate how and why people engage in OCB and CWB.

Most of the frameworks that study OCB and CWB simultaneously recognize both differences and similarities between the two extra-task performance behaviors. The work on OCB and CWB so far concluded that they are distinct constructs. In a meta-analysis on the OCB-CWB relationship, Dalal (2005) reported a moderate negative relationship between the two constructs. Similarly, Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling and Nault (2002) reported that OCB and CWB represent two unique factors. There are four main areas in which OCB and CWB are distinct: (1) *OCB and CWB may differ in their nature and their content.* OCB emphasizes usually positive aspects, whereas CWB includes hurtful acts, but OCB and CWB are not necessarily opposites on a continuum. For example, staying extra hours to finish a project can be considered as OCB, but not staying overtime is not necessarily CWB. (2) *They may differ in the degree of discretion.* Whereas all types of CWB are agreed to be more under the discretion of the person, there is debate to which extent some OCB (e.g., helping coworkers) is voluntary. Some citizenship behaviors can be considered in-role job performance, therefore individuals may engage in them to get organizational rewards (Organ, 1997). In contrast, counterproductive behaviors are discouraged, therefore the choice to engage in them belongs solely to the individual. (3) *OCB and CWB may have different antecedents.* For example, Miles et al. (2002) found that trait anger was significantly positively related to CWB, but not to OCB. In another study, positive affect and job cognitions related to OCB, but not CWB (Lee & Allen, 2002). (4) *Researchers identified different motives for OCB and CWB.* Rioux and Penner (2001) identified prosocial values, organizational concern and impression

management as motive for engaging in citizenship behaviors. Meanwhile, Penney, Spector, Goh, Hunter and Turnstall (2006) listed boredom, retaliation and influencing others as motives for engaging in CWB. Therefore, people may engage in OCB and CWB for different reasons.

Despite the differences between OCB and CWB, theory and research suggests that the productive and counterproductive aspects of job behaviors share some similarities. (1) *They are essentially behaviors that employees perform in the workplace, therefore they are subject to similar affective and cognitive processes.* For example, if employees believe that they are unfairly treated by the organization, they are more likely to engage in OCB and less likely to engage in CWB (Spector & Fox, 2002). (2) *Both behaviors are different from task performance in that they have more room for discretion.* While task performance presents a ‘strong situation’, non-task performance (i.e., contextual performance and counterproductive performance) can be interpreted as a ‘weaker situation’ (Miles et al., 2002). Individuals may perceive more control over their choices in the nature and intensity of OCB and CWB as opposed to task performance. Therefore, conditions or antecedents that create opportunities for voluntary behaviors will affect both OCB and CWB. (3) *OCB and CWB have some common antecedents.*

Conscientiousness, perceived justice, and job satisfaction, have been listed as predictors of both OCB and CWB (Dalal, 2005). (4) *Some mechanisms are common to both work behaviors.*

Psychological contract, emotions as responses to stressors and control perceptions have been utilized to explain both OCB and CWB (Spector & Fox, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2008). Since personal control is critical for proactive behaviors during organizational entry as well as extra-task performance behaviors, control theory provides a promising framework to link proactive socialization behaviors to OCB and CWB.

Linking OCB and CWB in a Personal Control Framework

Personal control is one of the basic motivational forces for human beings (Rothbaum, Weisz & Synder, 1982). Although there are individual differences in need for control (Burger & Cooper, 1979), there is common agreement that all people strive to have some control over their environment (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986). Research has shown that personal control has been associated with psychological well-being, physical health, and mental health (Shapiro & Schwartz, 1996). According to Spector and Fox (2002), control theory provides one of the mechanisms through which OCB and CWB are linked (See Figure 2).

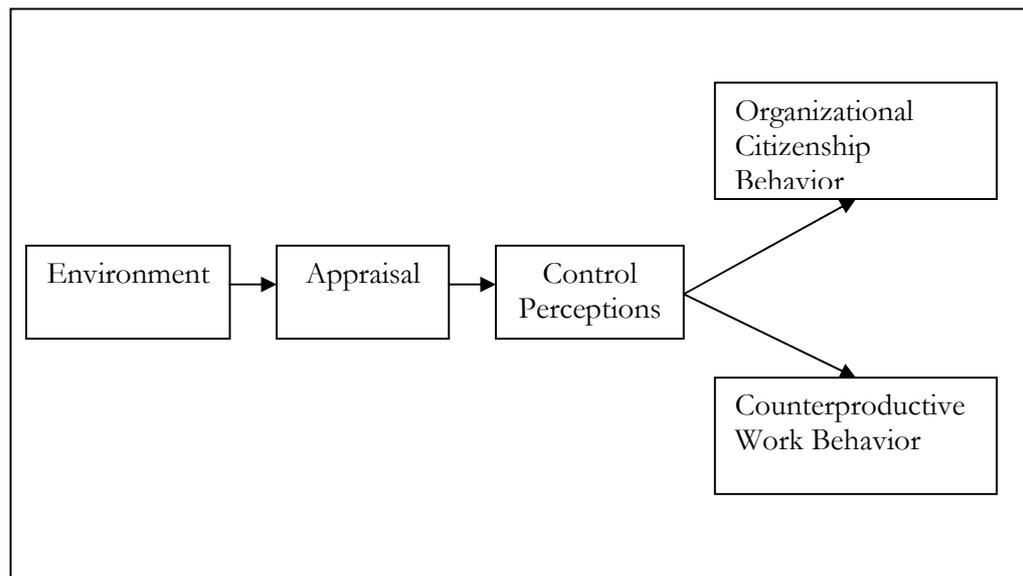


Figure 2. Personal Control and Extra-task Performance Behaviors

According to Spector and Fox (2002), the extent to which an individual perceives having control in a situation determines how he or she perceives the situation and responds to it. Control perceptions may affect responses to the work environment in several ways (Spector, 1998). First, control mitigates the impact of stressful job situations. In other words,

situations perceived to be under personal control are less likely to be seen as stressors. Second, in line with the Karasek (1979) demands-control model, control serves as a buffer. When people experience stressors and if they believe that they have control over these stressors, they respond in more positive ways than when they lack control. Finally, perceived control is thought to affect how people cognitively reconstruct environmental events and whether they respond constructively or destructively (Spector & Fox, 2002). Specifically, people who have high levels of perceived control are likely to view stressful events as challenges to be overcome constructively. In contrast, people who have low perceived control are likely to view stressful events as threats and to respond in a counterproductive manner. For example, if newcomers perceive that uncertainty in the environment is under their control, they are more likely to respond positively and less likely to react negatively. Supporting the suggested role of control perceptions, both OCB and CWB has been related to locus of control (Barbuto & Bugenhagen, 2006; Fox & Spector, 1999; Hoffi-Hofstetter & Mannheim, 1999; Perlow & Latham, 1993). People who believe that they have control over the events that affect them (i.e., internal locus of control) are more likely to engage in OCB and less likely to engage in CWB.

Several cognitive and affective mechanisms may explain how people deal with different control perceptions. First, high control is associated with positive emotions (Patrick, Skinner & Connell, 1993; Weiner, 1985), which predict prosocial behaviors (Clark & Isen, 1982). In contrast, low control invokes negative emotions (Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1978; Patrick, Skinner & Connell, 1993), which predict counterproductive behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2002). Second, perceived control may involve beliefs about one's ability to perform the helpful behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). When people perceive high control of the situation or resources, they may believe that they can successfully carry out

acts of OCB; therefore they are more likely to engage in OCB. In contrast, people who perceive low control over their environment are more likely perceive situations and events as stressors; thus they may be prone to engage in CWB (Fox et al., 2001). In fact, people may engage in delinquent and destructive behaviors as a means of exerting control over otherwise uncontrollable circumstances (Allen & Greenberg, 1980).

Although literature on control outlines some circumstances under which people may not want to have high levels of control or deliberately want to relinquish control (Burger, 1989), overall personal control is a necessary human condition. Consequently, behaviors intended to increase control have been associated with positive outcomes including job satisfaction, physical health and psychological well-being (Greenberger, et al., 1989; Shapiro & Schwartz, 1996). Personal control is also important at work (Ashford & Black, 1996). One condition that creates a crisis of control is uncertainty in the environment such as in the case of organizational entry. There are different ways to increase control when dealing with uncertainty. An employee can address the sources of uncertainty directly (e.g., asking about organizational policies) or he/she can build up social-capital resources to be prepared when uncertainty arises (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In that sense, proactive socialization behaviors provide a distinct opportunity for the newcomer to position himself or herself in the information loop of the organization, to have access to people and resources as well as to boost a positive mindset (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & KammeyerMueller, 2000). All these behaviors serve the end of making the work environment more predictable and certain.

Proactive Socialization, Personal Control and Outcomes

Organizational socialization during new entry refers to “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational

role” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). To function efficiently in a work environment and to be a “good soldier” of an organization, people need to know the formal and informal rules of conduct that govern their work setting. Through their socialization experience individuals learn what behaviors are desirable and what ones are not (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The main driver of organizational socialization during new entry is uncertainty and lack of knowledge about how things are done in the organization (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Van Maanen (1977) describes entry into an organization as a job transition that “thrust(s) one from a state of certainty to uncertainty; from knowing to not knowing; and from the familiar to the unfamiliar” (p. 16). According to uncertainty reduction theory (Louis, 1980), employees are motivated to gain personal control in unfamiliar and ambiguous organizational settings. Therefore, organizational socialization during new entry involves a constant effort to reduce uncertainty in the work environment through learning and work adjustment (Loius, 1985; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Newcomers try to reduce uncertainty such that “the work environment becomes more predictable, understandable, and ultimately controllable” (Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Attempts to reduce uncertainty may be instigated by the organization or by the individual (Gruman et al., 2006). Organizations have on-boarding activities for newcomers ranging from casual social gatherings to intensive training sessions. However, organizational socialization tactics cannot address all sources of uncertainty for all newcomers, so individuals may still need to deal with uncertainty that arises from their particular situation and experiences. Therefore, individuals may initiate socialization efforts themselves to customize their socialization experience.

The gap between individuals' motivation for perceived control and relative uncontrollability of entry situations provides employees with a motivation for action and individual initiative (Ashford & Black, 1996; Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Reichers, 1987). Consequently, most people undertake some action to gain control and to understand the demands of their new environment. Although control and certainty are not identical concepts, Bell and Staw (1989) suggested that achieving certainty gives individuals a degree of control, because people have the knowledge of behaviors demanded of them and of resources available to them. Proactive socialization tactics involve behaviors by individuals who actively try to reduce uncertainty in their work environments through their own initiative (Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

According to the socialization model developed by Saks and Ashforth (1997), proactive socialization behaviors by the individual lead to a process of information acquisition, uncertainty reduction and learning (See Figure 3). This process results in proximal outcomes such as role clarity, social integration and person-organization fit, which then lead to distal outcomes ranging from low levels of stress and absenteeism to high levels of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors. Supporting this model, research on proactive socialization indicated that these proactive socialization behaviors are associated with high social integration, job performance, job satisfaction, and low levels of role ambiguity and turnover intentions (Morrison, 1993b; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Furthermore, research also found that proximal outcomes (e.g., role clarity and social acceptance) transferred the effects of some tactics to outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007).

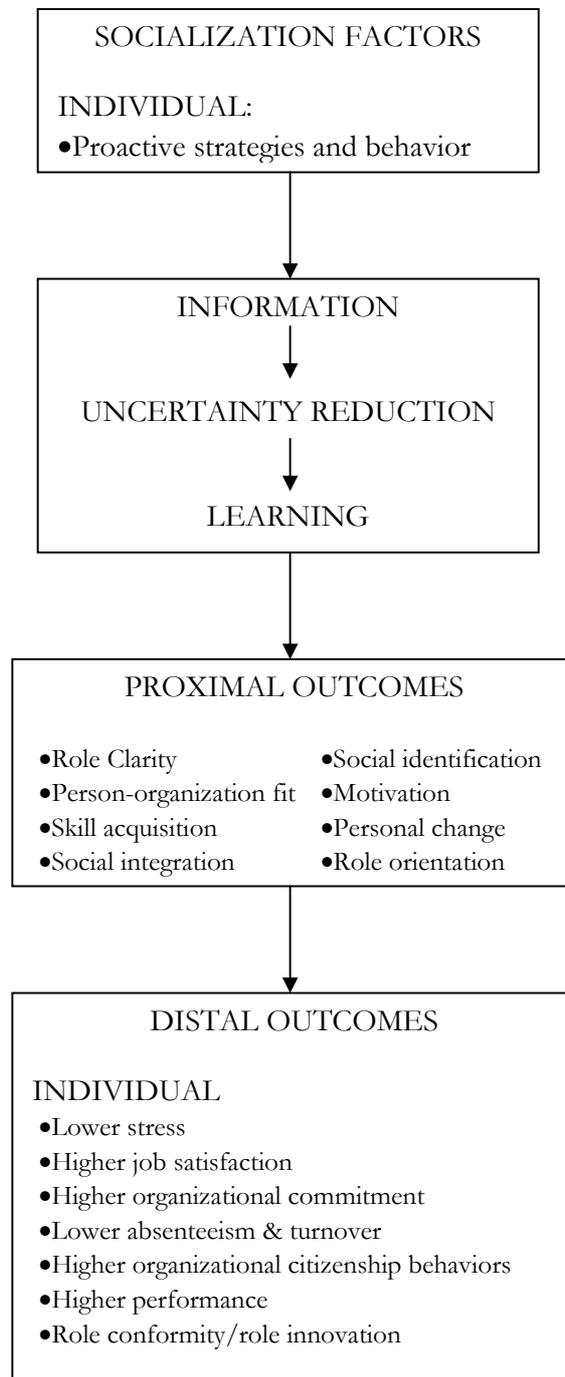


Figure 3. Organizational Socialization Adapted from Saks and Ashforth (1997)

Proactive socialization behaviors that are helpful in dealing with uncertainty during organizational entry can be placed into three main categories (Ashford & Black, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006): Positive framing (interpreting the environment positively), sense making (seeking out information and feedback) and relationship building (general socializing, networking, and building relationships, for example, with one's boss).

Positive framing refers to a cognitive self-management mechanism that employees use “to alter their understanding of a situation by explicitly controlling the cognitive frame they place on the situation” (Ashford & Black, 1996). People who engage in positive framing look on the positive side of things and view situations as an opportunity rather than a threat. Put differently, positive framing involves interpreting events in the environment as supportive rather than antagonistic. Positive interpretations of the work events can be considered a coping mechanism that helps reduce stress, allows employees to feel proactive and able to succeed in their new environment (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). Positive framing has been significantly related to social integration, role clarity, person-organization fit, job satisfaction, job performance and turnover (Ashford & Black, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Sense making involves information seeking and feedback seeking (Ashford & Black, 1996). Information seeking refers to employee's search for and acquisition of information that is related to the job, organization and social context. As employees gain information about their tasks, duties and social expectations in their work setting, they are able to reduce uncertainty and make sense of their new environment (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Saks & Ashford, 1997a). New employees can acquire information from other newcomers, coworkers, supervisors, mentors and written materials. In that way, they learn the formal and informal rules and regulations. Feedback seeking refers to an employee's solicitation of

information about his or her performance (Ashford & Black, 1996). Feedback is especially important for newcomers (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), because they are more likely to misinterpret the environment, make mistakes, and violate organizational norms than individuals who have completed the socialization process (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). According to Ashford and Taylor (1990), feedback also allows new employees to understand when they need to learn more or when they need to reinterpret past information. Ashford (1986) noted that organizations often do not provide new employees with enough feedback and that is common for employees to have to proactively ask for feedback. Both feedback seeking and information seeking serve to reduce uncertainty and equip the employee with knowledge about performance expectations, norms and relationships, so the work environment becomes more predictable (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Information seeking and feedback seeking have been significantly related to social integration, role clarity, person-organization fit, job satisfaction, job performance and turnover (Ashford & Black, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Lastly, *relationship building* refers to behaviors on the part of the new employee that are directed towards initiating social interaction in the work environment (Ashford & Black, 1996). Relationship building is important for organizational newcomers as a means of avoiding loneliness and social isolation (Nelson & Quick, 1991). According to Chao et al. (1994), people are also important for providing information, resources and support, thereby increasing control perceptions and predictability in the work environment. Ashford and Black (1996) categorized proactive behaviors geared towards relationship building into networking (e.g., stopping by other people's offices to talk about a project), general socializing (e.g., participating in an organization's formal social activities, such as office parties) and building relationships with one's boss (e.g., joining the supervisor for lunch or

asking questions about his or her background). These proactive behaviors build friendship networks (Nelson & Quick, 1991) and help learn about appropriate skills, role expectations as well as organizational policies (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993, 2002; Reichers, 1987). Relationship building has been related to social integration, role clarity, person-organization fit, job satisfaction, job performance and turnover (Ashford & Black, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

The Current Study: Proactive Socialization Tactics and Extra-task Performance Behaviors (OCB and CWB)

Organizational socialization during new entry is the process by which individuals acquire the knowledge, skills and behaviors required to participate and function effectively as a member of an organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and extra-task performance behaviors (See Figure 4). Furthermore, I examined newcomer adjustment (i.e, role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration) as mediating variables between proactive socialization behaviors and OCB/CWB. Lastly, I explored procedural justice as a moderator between proactive socialization behaviors and newcomer adjustment.

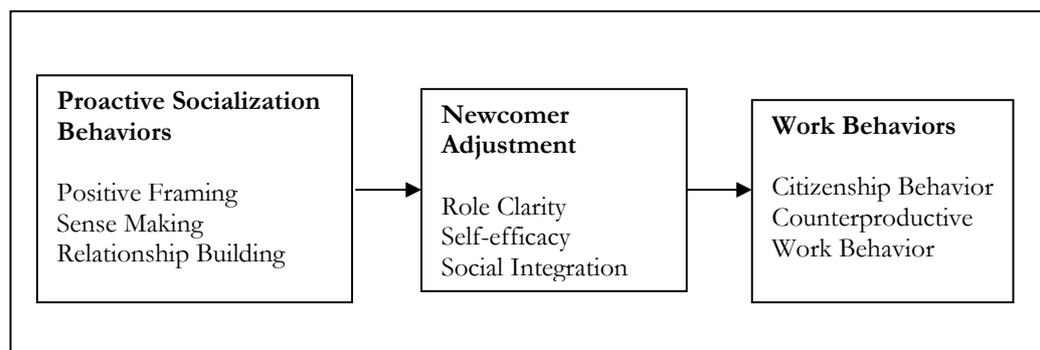


Figure 4. Proposed Relationship in the Present Study

Proactive socialization tactics are behaviors that newcomers use to reduce uncertainty in the new work environment and include positive framing (e.g., seeing challenges as opportunity), sense making (e.g., asking for feedback) and relationship building (e.g., networking). Proactive socialization tactics have been related to task performance (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Nonetheless, extra-task aspects of job performance (i.e., OCB and CWB) have not been investigated as an outcome. In fact, in their organizational socialization model, Saks and Ashforth (1997) suggested organizational citizenship behavior as a distal outcome of the socialization process. However, no empirical study has yet investigated this suggestion. Proactive socialization behaviors by the employee help the employee to reduce uncertainty, to increase predictability and to get socialized to the organizational and social context (Bauer et al. 2007). Furthermore, they boost self-efficacy (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) in the uncertainty context, which will contribute to positive experiences. The positive attitudes and emotions that result from these experiences promote a tendency to engage in citizenship behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, proactive socialization behaviors will be positively associated with OCB.

Hypothesis 1: Positive framing will be positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 2: Sense making will be positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 3: Relationship building will be positively related to OCB.

The literature on stress, personal control and organizational socialization also suggests a link between proactive behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. However, there is no study that investigated that link. Proactive socialization behaviors make the work context more predictable and provide a sense of control (Ashford & Black, 1996). Uncertainty is one of the predominant stressors during organizational entry. By using proactive socialization tactics, newcomers reduce uncertainty, learn which behaviors are

appropriate and which one are not (Ashford & Black, 1996); they increase their fit to their organization, form relationships with others and interpret events in a positive light (Bauer et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2005). As a result of increased predictability and control, newcomers who engage in proactive socialization behaviors have fewer negative experiences. In fact, proactive socialization tactics have been associated with low levels of stress and anxiety (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). Stressors are among the strongest potential antecedents of counterproductive work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). Furthermore, some destructive behaviors may be a means of exerting control over otherwise uncontrollable circumstances (Allen & Greenberg, 1980). By decreasing stressors and devising a more problem-focused approach, proactive socialization behaviors may also reduce counterproductive tendencies. Therefore, proactive socialization behaviors will be negatively associated with CWB.

Hypothesis 4: Positive framing will be negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 5: Sense making will be negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 6: Relationship building will be negatively related to CWB.

The Mediating Role of Newcomer Adjustment

During organizational entry, increases in personal control and predictability may be indicated by the degree of newcomer adjustment (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007), which is attained as a result of information gathering, uncertainty reduction and learning during the socialization process (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Newcomer adjustment consists working both task and social transitions (Fisher, 1986). According to Feldman (1981), newcomer adjustment involves achievement of role clarity, task mastery and social acceptance from others during organizational entry.

Socialization models treat newcomer adjustment as links between proactive socialization and behavioral outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In their meta-analytic review, Bauer et al. (2007) identified role clarity, self-efficacy and social acceptance as proximal socialization outcomes that link organizational socialization tactics to behavioral outcomes. They found that adjustment (role clarity, self-efficacy and social acceptance) mediated the effects of organizational socialization tactics and information seeking on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, intentions to remain and turnover. Although they only focused on the tactics used by the organization, newcomer adjustment may serve as a mediator between socialization tactics by the individual and outcomes. Since newcomer adjustment involves reducing uncertainty, gaining a certain level of control and increasing predictability in the work environment, it is expected to relate to OCB and CWB.

Role Clarity. As one indicator of newcomer adjustment, role clarity refers to understanding job tasks to perform and understanding task priorities and time allocation (Feldman, 1981). Knowing what is expected from oneself gives a sense of control over the work situation (Ashford & Black, 1996). Proactive socialization tactics have been positively related to role clarity (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). For example, through feedback and information provided by written documents, supervisors, mentors and coworkers, newcomers can learn what their roles entail and how they can succeed in them. A positive mindset also helps newcomers to better understand the demands of their roles.

Role clarity has been related to task performance (Ashford & Black, 1996). Employees who are clear about role expectations are more likely to perform well. Role clarity has also been suggested as a mediator in the Saks and Ashforth's socialization model (1997) between proactive behaviors and OCB. When people know what their roles involve, they

may also gain insights into additional prosocial behaviors they may engage in. Furthermore, role clarity has been associated with positive experiences, which promote citizenship behaviors. On the contrary, lack of role clarity (i.e., role ambiguity) is a stressor and has been also related to CWB (Chen & Spector, 1992). Therefore, role clarity may serve as a mediator between proactive socialization tactics and extra-task behaviors.

Hypothesis 7a: Role clarity will be positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 7b: Role clarity will be negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 8a: Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making, (iii) relationship building and OCB.

Hypothesis 8b: Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making, (iii) relationship building and CWB.

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as a personal judgment as to “how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (Bandura, 1982, p. 122). People who are high on self-efficacy feel confident that they have the abilities, skills and resources to achieve desired outcomes (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is also a form of control, whereas low self-efficacy is a form of low perceived control in which someone does not believe he or she can do acts successfully (Spector, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2002). During organizational entry, as newcomers learn the tasks of the new job (task mastery), they also gain confidence in their roles; thereby increase their self-efficacy in accomplishing their jobs and fitting in the social environment (Bauer et al., 2007).

There is substantial evidence that self-efficacy leads to high task performance (e.g., Wood, Bandura & Bailey, 1990). Furthermore, Bauer et al. (2007) found that self-efficacy serves as a mediator between socialization efforts by the organization and task performance. However, the relationship between self-efficacy and extra-task performance behaviors

received little attention. Jex and Bliese (1999) suggested that self-efficacy is related to problem-focused coping, therefore it results in more constructive and less destructive responses to stressors. Self-efficacy during the socialization process, which is gained as a result of newcomer's proactive behaviors to increase control feelings over the environment, represents a source of motivation as well as a resource to deal with stressors constructively, instead of behaving destructively. Therefore, self-efficacy will serve as a link between proactive socialization behaviors and extra-task performance behaviors.

Hypothesis 9a: Self-efficacy will be positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 9b: Self-efficacy will be negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 10a: Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.

Hypothesis 10b: Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.

Social Integration. Social integration as adjustment to one's group and social environment refers to coming to feel liked and accepted by peers (Morrison, 1993). Social integration is almost necessary for success in the knowledge era, because "people" are sources of information that is needed to accomplish one's tasks, and people can provide a supportive environment for well-being. Having access to people and networks gives a sense of control, as social integration makes the work environment predictable, and allows people to have social-capital resources whenever they need information and support (Ashford & Black, 1996). Hall's (1996) work also suggests that successful employees of the future will be team oriented, collaborative, and willing to share knowledge with and learn from others. Therefore, newcomers who can achieve social integration are at an advantage. Proactive socialization tactics, especially relationship building, has been related to what extent

newcomers will be able to adjust to their work group and achieve social integration (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Having good relationships and supportive treatment at work has been related to both OCB and CWB (Bommer et al., 2003; Spector & Fox, 2002). People who receive support are more likely to engage in helping behaviors towards others (Bommer, Miles & Grover, 2003). Supervisor or leader support has been related to high levels of OCB and low levels of CWB (Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007; Hershcovis et al., 2007). In contrast, negative relationship experiences such as interpersonal conflict and abusive supervision has been negatively related to OCB and positively related to CWB (Detert et al., 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002). Therefore, it is expected that proactive behaviors will be linked to OCB and CWB through social integration.

Hypothesis 11a: Social integration will be positively related to OCB.

Hypothesis 11b: Social integration will be negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 12a: Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.

Hypothesis 12b: Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.

The Moderating Effect of Procedural Justice

Organizational justice concerns the fair treatment of people in organizations (Colquitt, 2001). Fairness perceptions have three main types. Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes (Moorman & Byrne, 2005) received by self and others from an employer. Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the processes that determines organizational outcomes independent of the fairness of the actual outcomes received (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Interactional justice as part of procedural justice refers to

the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment by a supervisor (Bies, 2005). Among the main types of justice, procedural justice has been most strongly associated with OCB and CWB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Furthermore, procedural justice affects people's experiences more frequently, as they need to interact with others and deal with decisions and procedures on a daily basis. Procedural justice has been related to important affective and behavioral outcomes including perceived organizational support, job satisfaction (Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005), organizational commitment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), psychological strain (Judge & Colquitt, 2004), turnover (Tekleab et al., 2005), OCB (Lee & Allen, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and CWB (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Skarlicki, Folger & Tesluk, 1999; Spector & Fox, 1999).

The personal control framework identified some boundary conditions for the common finding that personal control leads to positive outcomes. In some conditions, people may prefer a loss of control or intentionally try to relinquish control (Burger, 1989; Shapiro & Schwartz, 1996). Specifically, personal control is seen as less desirable when it (a) leads to an uncomfortable level of concern for self-preservation, (b) decreases the likelihood that the person will be able to achieve desired outcomes, or (c) leads to an increase in predictability that draws the person's attention to the aversive aspects of the situation (e.g., when the increased controllability leads to an increase in attention to the now-predictable events). The level of procedural justice may qualify for such a condition during the organizational entry, because procedural justice affects to what extent proactive socialization behaviors will be successful and will lead to control perceptions and to newcomer adjustment. Presence of justice may make the attainment of desirable outcomes such role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration as a result of proactive socialization behaviors more likely. In contrast, lack of fairness will make the environment unpredictable and

decreases the likelihood that the newcomer can attain desirable outcomes and maximize positive socialization outcomes by their own initiative. For example, in an unfair environment, newcomer's information seeking may result in discomfoting information (e.g., unethical policies), whereas feedback seeking may not necessarily lead to useful and constructive feedback delivered in a respectful manner. In short, fairness may increase the likelihood that proactive socialization tactics are associated with positive outcomes including role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. On the contrary, in an unfair environment, proactive socialization tactics are less likely to lead to positive outcomes. Therefore, it is expected that different levels of procedural justice will affect to what extent proactive socialization behaviors will be associated with role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration.

Hypothesis 13: Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and role clarity. The positive relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and role clarity will be stronger when procedural justice is high than low.

Hypothesis 14: Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and self-efficacy. The positive relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and self-efficacy will be stronger when procedural justice is high than low.

Hypothesis 15: Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and social integration. The positive relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and social integration will be stronger when procedural justice is high than low.

To summarize, the current study proposed several links and mechanisms regarding how proactive socialization behaviors are related to extra-task performance behaviors (i.e., OCB and CWB). First, the direct relationships between proactive socialization behaviors (i.e., positive framing, sense making and relationship building) and OCB/CWB are investigated. Second, newcomer adjustment variables, which indicate sense of control, are proposed to be related to OCB/CWB and to mediate the relationship between proactive

socialization behaviors and OCB/CWB. Lastly, the moderating role of procedural justice was investigated (See page 31 for the summary of all the hypotheses of this study).

Since the objective of the current study was to capture the socialization experience of newcomers, individuals who have started their jobs within the last year were the focus. According to Bauer et al's meta-analysis (2007), the socialization literature focuses on newcomers with an organizational tenure of 3-13 months. Therefore, the recruitment strategy targeted recent graduates from the undergraduates and graduate programs covering majors such as business, education, engineering, psychology, and public health.

Summary of the Proposed Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1:	Positive framing will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 2:	Sense making will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 3:	Relationship building will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 4:	Positive framing will be negatively related to CWB.
Hypothesis 5:	Sense making will be negatively related to CWB.
Hypothesis 6:	Relationship building will be negatively related to CWB.
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Hypothesis 7a:	Role clarity will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 7b:	Role clarity will be negatively related to CWB.
Hypothesis 8a:	Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.
Hypothesis 8b:	Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.
Hypothesis 9a:	Self-efficacy will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 9b:	Self-efficacy will be negatively related to CWB.
Hypothesis 10a:	Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.
Hypothesis 10b:	Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.
Hypothesis 11a:	Social integration will be positively related to OCB.
Hypothesis 11b:	Social integration will be negatively related to CWB.
Hypothesis 12a:	Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.
Hypothesis 12b:	Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.
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Hypothesis 13:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and role clarity.
Hypothesis 14:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and self-efficacy.
Hypothesis 15:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and social integration.

Chapter Two: Present Study Method

Method

Participants

The sample for the present study included 216 employees recruited from an alumni list at the University of South Florida. Participants were chosen from recent graduates, who completed their degree within the past year. Specifically, the list of graduating class was obtained from the commencement booklets for Spring 2008 and Summer 2008. The demographics of employees were as followed: % 66 were females and %34 were males. Their average age was 22.1 years ($SD = 3.2$). The majority were either Caucasian (58%), African American (21%) or Hispanic, (13%). The average tenure in their current job was 9.2 months ($SD = 2.7$). They worked an average of 37.0 hours per week ($SD = 11.8$). They were employed predominantly in service (e.g., teacher; 31.5%), medical/health care (e.g., nurse; 10.5%), or manufacturing (e.g., consumer goods; 10.5%) industries. Furthermore, 124 supervisors returned their rating for their subordinate's OCB and CWB.

Procedure

Participants were sent an invitation email to the study, which included a link to the employee survey. They were asked to fill out the survey online at their convenience. Since the focus is on proactive socialization behaviors, participants were instructed to complete the survey only if they have been on the current job for a time period between 3 months and 1 year (Kim et al., 2005). After the participants completed their surveys, they were asked to create a 6-digit code and to forward the same code in an email to their supervisors. The

invitation email sent to the supervisors included a link to the supervisor survey. All surveys from both employees and their supervisors were collected at the secure website. Participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that records would be kept confidential.

Measures

A two-source (employee and supervisor) survey design was used for this study. The employee survey included measures of proactive socialization behaviors, role clarity, self-efficacy, social integration, procedural justice, OCB and CWB. The supervisor survey included measures of OCB and CWB (See Appendix).

Proactive Socialization Behaviors. Proactive behaviors at work were assessed with Ashford and Black's (1996) 20-item scale of proactive behaviors (See Appendix A). Participants were asked to indicate on 5-point Likert scale (1=to no extent, 5=to a great extent) the extent to which they engaged in various proactivity behaviors since starting to work at the organization. The proactive behavior scale included items that assessed positive framing (e.g., "I tried to look on the bright side of things"); sense making-information seeking (e.g., "I tried to learn the important policies and procedures in the company"); sense making-feedback seeking (e.g., "I sought feedback on my performance after assignments"); relationship building-general socializing (e.g., "I attended company social gatherings"); relationship building with supervisor (e.g., "I worked hard to get to know my boss"); and relationship building-networking (e.g., "I started conversations with people from different segments of my company"). Coefficient alpha for the proactive socialization scale was .89 with alphas of .74, .83 and .85 for positive framing, sense making and relationship building, respectively.

Role Clarity. Role clarity was measured using a 6-item role ambiguity scale by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) (See Appendix B). Participants reported the extent that they

agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). Higher scores indicated role clarity. A sample item is 'I know exactly what is expected of me'. Coefficient alpha for the role clarity scale was .90.

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy was measured with a 12-item socialization specific self-efficacy scale developed by Gruman et al. (2006) (See Appendix C). Participants were asked to indicate their confidence in the task, role, work group, and organizational domains of the job (Feldman, 1981; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) using a 10-point scale with anchors (1) not at all confident, to (10) totally confident. Sample items for each domain were as follows: "Handle routine work-related problems" (task); "Handle the demands and expectations of my role in the organization" (role); "Be accepted by my coworkers and my workgroup" (group); and "Function according to the organization's values and norms" (organizational). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .90.

Social Integration. Social integration was measured using a 4-item scale developed by Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) (See Appendix D). Participants reported the extent that they agreed with each item on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 7=strongly agree). Higher scores indicated high levels of social integration. A sample item is "My coworkers seem to accept me as one of them". Coefficient alpha for this scale was .92.

Procedural Justice. Procedural justice was measured using a 7-item scale developed by Colquitt (2001) (See Appendix E). Response choices ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree". Higher scores represented greater perceived levels of justice. Sample items included "Decisions at my organization have upheld ethical and moral standard". Coefficient alpha for this scale was .83.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. OCB was measured using Lee and Allen's (2002) scale (See Appendix F). To avoid any overlap with CWB items, Lee and Allen (2002) used a

pool created by previous scales to select the items, which are clearly beneficial to the individuals and the organization. The 16 items, which were summed into a total score, included OCB directed both at coworkers and at the organization. Sample items include “Help others who have been absent” and “Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization“. Participants reported the extent that they engage in specific behaviors on a 5-point scale (1=never, 5=every day). High scores indicated high incidence of OCB. Coefficient alpha for this scale was .91 for self-report and .88 for supervisor report.

Counterproductive Work Behavior. CWB was assessed with 18 items adapted from a behavioral checklist developed by Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler (2006) (See Appendix G). The checklist taps into CWB including sabotage, theft, abuse, production deviance and withdrawal. Sample items are “I purposely wasted your employer’s materials/supplies”, “I started an argument with someone at work”, “I purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done”. Participants were asked to indicate the frequency with which they engaged in specific behaviors on a 5-point scale (1=never, 5=every day). All items were summed into a single CWB score with high values indicating high incidence of CWB.

Chapter Three: Results

Relationships between Proactive Socialization Behaviors and Work Behaviors

Means, standard deviations and correlations are shown in Table 1. Hypothesis 1-3 proposed that proactive socialization behaviors (positive framing, sense making and relationship building) would be positively related to OCB. As hypothesized, people who reported high levels of positive framing, sense making and relationship building also reported more OCB ($r = .20, p < .05$; $r = .36, p < .01$; $r = .39, p < .01$, respectively). Furthermore, when supervisors evaluated employee's OCB, sense making and relationship building was significantly and positively related to OCB ($r = .20, p < .05$; $r = .25, p < .01$, respectively). However, positive framing was not significantly associated with supervisor reports of OCB ($r = .10, p > .05$).

Hypotheses 3-5 proposed that proactive socialization behaviors (positive framing, sense making and relationship building) would be negatively related to CWB. As hypothesized, people who reported high levels of positive framing also reported less CWB ($r = -.20, p < .05$). However, no significant relationship was found between sense making and CWB ($r = .07, p > .05$) as well as between relationship building and CWB ($r = -.06, p > .05$). When supervisors rated employee's CWB, none of the proactive socialization behaviors were significantly related to CWB ($r = -.06, p > .05$ for positive framing; $r = -.07, p > .05$ for sense making and $r = -.12, p > .05$ for relationship building).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Positive Framing	.74										
2 Sense Making	.48**	.83									
3 Relationship Building	.13*	.48**	.85								
4 Role Clarity	.39*	.23**	.09	.90							
5 Self-Efficacy	.41**	.32*	.19*	.45**	.90						
6 Social Integration	.18*	.19**	.21**	.29**	.22**	.92					
7 Procedural Justice	-.04	.12	.35**	.12	.15*	.16*	.83				
8 OCB	.20*	.36**	.39**	.32**	.34**	.28**	.341**	.90			
9 CWB	-.20*	-.07	-.06	-.38**	-.33**	-.28**	-.22**	-.35**	NA		
10 OCB- Supervisor	.10	.20*	.25**	.18*	.24**	.20*	.18*	.28**	-.12	.88	
11 CWB- Supervisor	-.06	-.07	-.12	-.15*	-.16*	-.16*	-.10	-.06	.16*	-.40**	NA
Mean	3.92	3.69	3.58	4.14	4.18	4.29	3.65	3.94	1.47	3.24	1.52
SD	.53	.65	.69	.67	.46	.62	.69	.55	.48	.68	.62

Note. N= 216 for self reports, N= 124 for supervisor reports

* $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed), ** $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed). Reliabilities are in bold.

Mediation through Newcomer Adjustment

The next set of hypotheses concerned the mediation between proactive socialization behaviors (i.e., positive framing, sense making and relationship building) and work behaviors (i.e., OCB and CWB) through role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. Sobel tests (Sobel, 1982) along with procedures developed by Baron and Kenny were used to test for mediation. This test is a direct test for the indirect effect of IV on DV and helps to determine whether a mediator carries the influence of an IV to a DV (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Its utility has been demonstrated frequently (Hayes & Preacher, 2004; MacKinnon, Warsi & Dwyer, 1995). A variable may be considered a mediator to the extent to which it carries the influence of a given independent variable (IV) to a given dependent variable (DV). Generally speaking, mediation can be said to occur when (1) the IV significantly relates to the mediator, (2) the IV significantly relates to the DV in the absence of the mediator, (3) the mediator has a significant unique relationship with the DV, and (4) the relationship of the IV on the DV shrinks upon the addition of the mediator to the analysis (multiple regression). In the case of simple mediation, the Sobel test is conducted by comparing the strength of the indirect effect of IV on DV. If the Sobel value is significant, there is evidence to support mediation.

Hypotheses 7a and 7b proposed that role clarity would be positively related to OCB and negatively related to CWB, respectively. As hypothesized, people who reported high levels of role clarity also reported more OCB ($r = .32, p < .01$) and less CWB ($r = -.38, p < .01$). Furthermore, when supervisors evaluated employee's OCB, role clarity was significantly and positively related to OCB ($r = .18, p < .05$) and negatively related to CWB ($r = -.15, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 8a and 8b concerned the mediating role of role clarity in predicting OCB and CWB (See tables 2 and 3). For Hypothesis 8a, mediation was only tested for positive framing and sense making, because relationship building was not significantly related to role clarity (i.e., the mediator). In line with hypothesis 8a, the results supported that role clarity is a mediator of the relationships between positive framing and OCB as well as between sense making and OCB. Role clarity did not mediate the relationship between relationship building and OCB. For Hypothesis 8b, mediation was only tested for positive framing, because sense making and relationship building were not related to CWB (i.e., the dependent variable). As hypothesized, the results supported role clarity is a mediator of the relationship between positive framing and CWB. Role clarity did not serve as a mediator for the relationship building between sense making and CWB as well as between relationship building and CWB. When supervisor reports of OCB were used for analysis, the mediation was tested only for sense making, because positive framing was not significantly related to supervisor-reported OCB (i.e., the dependent variable), whereas relationship building was not significantly related to role clarity (i.e., the mediator). The results supported the role of role clarity as a mediator between sense making and OCB as well as relationship building and OCB.

Table 2

Analysis of Mediating Role of Role Clarity (Proactive Behaviors- OCB)

	Step 1 Beta	Step 2 Beta	ΔR^2	F	Sobel-z	Mediation
Self-report OCB						
Positive Framing Role clarity	.20*	.09 .28**	.11**	13.17**	4.17**	Yes
Sense Making Role clarity	.36**	.30** .24**	.19**	26.08**	3.01**	Yes
Relationship building Role clarity	.39**	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Supervisor-report OCB						
Positive Framing Role clarity	.10	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Sense Making Role clarity	.20**	.15** .17**	.12**	12.63**	2.36*	Yes
Relationship building Role clarity	.25**	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No

Table 3

Analysis of Mediating Role of Role Clarity (Proactive Behaviors- CWB)

	Step 1 Beta	Step 2 Beta	ΔR^2	F	Sobel-z	Mediation
Self-report CWB						
Positive Framing Role clarity	-.20*	-.05 -.36**	.15**	19.26**	-4.72**	Yes
Sense Making Role clarity	-.07	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Relationship building Role clarity	-.06	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No

Hypotheses 9a and 9b proposed that self-efficacy would be positively related to OCB and negatively related to CWB, respectively. As hypothesized, people who reported high levels of self-efficacy also reported more OCB ($r = .34, p < .01$) and less CWB ($r = -.33, p < .01$). Furthermore, when supervisors evaluated employee's OCB, self-efficacy was significantly and positively related to OCB ($r = .24, p < .05$) and negatively related to CWB ($r = -.16, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 10a and 10b concerned the mediating role of self-efficacy in predicting OCB and CWB (See tables 4 and 5). In line with hypothesis 10a, the results support that self-efficacy is a mediator of the relationships between positive framing and OCB, between sense making and OCB as well as between relationship building and OCB. For Hypothesis 10b, mediation was only tested for positive framing, because sense making and relationship building were not significantly related to CWB (i.e., the dependent variable). As hypothesized, the results support self-efficacy as a mediator of the relationship between positive framing and CWB. Self-efficacy did not mediate the relationship between sense making and CWB as well as between relationship building and CWB. The mediation analysis was not run with supervisor data, because none of the proactive socialization behaviors (i.e., positive framing, sense making and relationship building) were related to supervisor reports of CWB.

Table 4

Analysis of Mediating Role of Self-efficacy (Proactive Behaviors- OCB)

	Step 1 Beta	Step 2 Beta	ΔR^2	F	Sobel-z	Mediation
Self-report OCB						
Positive Framing Self-efficacy	.20*	.06 .31**	.12**	15.60**	3.10**	Yes
Sense Making Self-efficacy	.36**	.28** .26**	.19**	26.62**	3.80**	Yes
Relationship building Self-efficacy	.39**	.34** .28**	.26**	34.44**	2.61**	Yes
Supervisor-report OCB						
Positive Framing Self-efficacy	.10	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Sense Making Self-efficacy	.20*	.17* .21*	.19**	18.08**	3.18**	Yes
Relationship building Self-efficacy	.25**	.20* .22**	.18**	24.20**	2.99**	Yes

Table 5

Analysis of Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy (Proactive Behaviors- CWB)

	Step 1 Beta	Step 2 Beta	ΔR^2	F	Sobel-z	Mediation
Self-report CWB						
Positive Framing Self-efficacy	-.20*	-.06 .31**	.12**	14.78**	3.07**	Yes
Sense Making Self-efficacy	NA	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Relationship building Self-efficacy	NA	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No

Hypotheses 11a and 11b proposed that social integration would be positively related to OCB and negatively related to CWB, respectively. As hypothesized, people who reported high levels of social integration also reported more OCB ($r = .28, p < .01$) and less CWB ($r = -.28, p < .01$). Furthermore, when supervisors evaluated employee's OCB, social integration was significantly and positively related to OCB ($r = .20, p < .05$) and negatively related to CWB ($r = -.16, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 12a and 12b concerned the mediating role of social integration in predicting OCB (See Table 6) and CWB. For Hypothesis 12a, mediation was only tested for sense making and relationship building, because positive framing was not related to social integration (i.e., the mediator). In line with Hypothesis 12a, the results support that social integration is a mediator of the relationships between sense making and OCB as well as between relationship building and OCB. Social integration did not mediate the relationship between positive framing and OCB. The mediation analysis was not tested for CWB, because sense making and relationship building were not related to self- or supervisor-reported CWB (i.e., the dependent variable), whereas positive framing was not significantly associated with social integration (i.e., the mediator). Social integration did not serve as a mediator between proactive socialization behaviors (i.e., positive framing, sense making and relationship building). When supervisor reports of OCB were used for analysis, the mediation was tested only for sense making and relationship building, because positive framing was not related to supervisor-reported OCB. The results supported the role of social integration as a mediator between sense making and OCB as well as relationship building and OCB.

Table 6

Analysis of Mediating Role of Social Integration (Proactive Behaviors- OCB)

	Step 1 Beta	Step 2 Beta	ΔR^2	F	Sobel-z	Mediation
Self-report OCB						
Positive Framing Social integration	NA	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Sense Making Social integration	.36**	.31** .22**	.18**	24.30**	2.47*	Yes
Relationship building Social integration	.39**	.35** .21**	.20**	27.71**	3.11**	Yes
Supervisor-report OCB						
Positive Framing Social integration	.10	NA NA	NA	NA	NA	No
Sense Making Social integration	.20**	.18* .23**	.14*	16.36**	3.41**	Yes
Relationship building Social integration	.25**	.18* .24**	.18**	23.38**	2.88**	Yes

Moderating Role of Procedural Justice

Moderated regression analyses were used to test hypotheses 13-15. In the first step, newcomer adjustment variables were regressed on the predictor (i.e., proactive socialization behaviors) and the moderator (i.e., procedural justice). In the second step, the interaction term was added to the regression equation. If the interaction term was significant, and the form of the interaction was as expected, the results were consistent with the moderation hypotheses. To illustrate the nature of the interaction, the results were graphed (Aiken & West, 1981).

Hypothesis 13 proposed that procedural justice would moderate the relationship

between positive framing and newcomer adjustment variables, so that the relationship will be stronger as procedural justice increases. As shown in Table 7, the proactive socialization behavior by procedural justice interaction was not significant for role clarity, self-efficacy or social integration. Therefore, this hypothesis was not supported for any newcomer adjustment variable.

Table 7

Regression of Procedural Justice by Positive Framing on Role Clarity, Self-efficacy and Social Integration

	Role Clarity		Self-efficacy		Social Integration	
	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>
<i>Step 1- Main Effects</i>						
Positive Framing	.44**	.42	.33**	.19	.14	.00
Procedural Justice	.12*	.00	.00	.00	.15*	.00
R ²	.18**		.20**		.04*	
F	24.21**		28.95**		5.12*	
<i>Step 2- Interaction Term</i>						
Positive Framing * Procedural Justice		.00		.00		.00
ΔR ²	.00		.00		.00	
ΔF ²	.01		.28		.06	
Overall R ²	.18**		.20**		.04*	
Overall F	16.07**		19.34**		3.42*	

Note. N = 216; **p* < 0.05 level (2-tailed), ***p* < 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Hypothesis 14 proposed that procedural justice would moderate the relationship between sense making and newcomer adjustment variables, so that the relationship will be stronger as procedural justice increases. As shown in table 8, the interaction between sense making and procedural justice was significant when predicting self-efficacy ($B = .13$, $SD = .05$, $p < .05$). The positive relationship between sense making and self-efficacy was stronger when procedural justice was high versus low (Figure 5). People reported highest level of self-efficacy, when both procedural justice and sense making was high. There was no moderation of procedural justice when predicting role clarity and social integration. Therefore, Hypothesis 11b was supported, while 11a and c was not supported.

Table 8

Regression of Procedural Justice by Sense Making on Role Clarity, Self-efficacy and Social Integration

	Role Clarity		Self-efficacy		Social Integration	
	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>	<i>B Step1</i>	<i>B Step2</i>
<i>Step 1- Main Effects</i>						
Sense Making	.20**	-.22	.20**	-.24	.16*	-.32
Procedural Justice	.00	-.37	.00	-.40*	.12*	-.39
R ²	.07**		.12**		.06*	
F	8.01**		15.17**		6.78*	
<i>Step 2- Interaction Term</i>						
Sense Making * Procedural Justice		.12		.13*		.14
ΔR ²	.01		.02*		.01	
ΔF ²	2.58		6.01*		2.00	
Overall R ²	.08		.14**		.07*	
Overall F	6.24**		12.34**		5.60*	

Note. N = 216; **p* < 0.05 level (2-tailed), ***p* < 0.01 level (2-tailed)

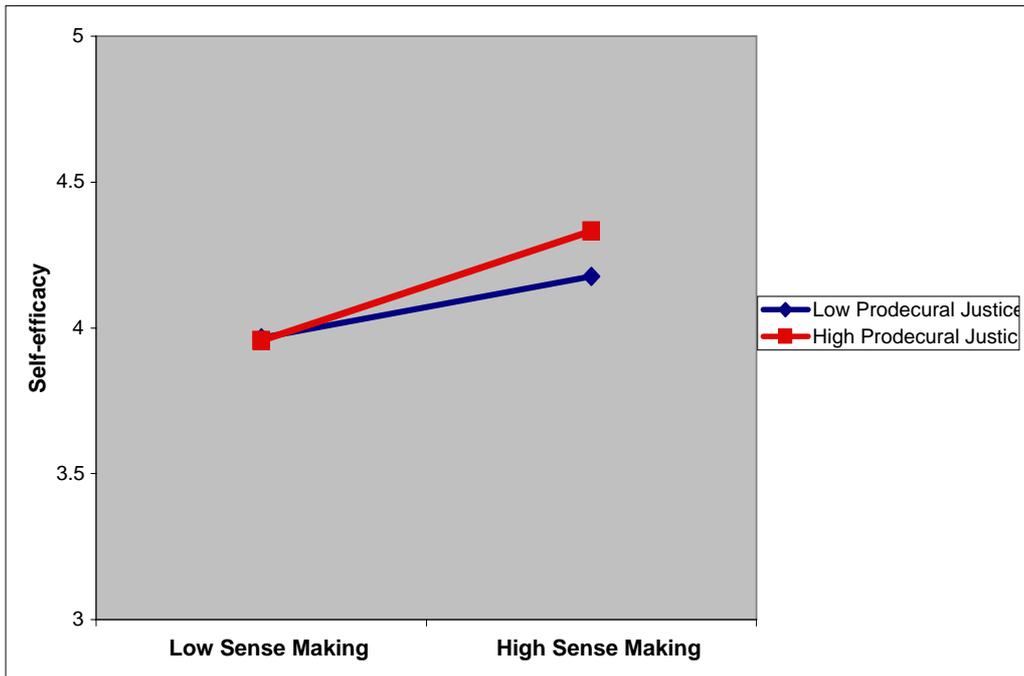


Figure 5. Interaction Between Sense Making and Procedural Justice on Self-efficacy

Hypothesis 15 proposed that procedural justice would moderate the relationship between proactive relationship building and newcomer adjustment variables, so that the relationship will be stronger as procedural justice increases. As shown in table 9, the interaction between relationship building and procedural justice was significant when predicting role clarity ($B = .21, SD = .08, p < .05$), self-efficacy ($B = .12, SD = .06, p < .05$), and social integration ($B = .18, SD = .09, p < .05$). The positive relationship between relationship building and role clarity (Figure 6), between relationship building and self-efficacy (Figure 7) and between relationship building and social integration (Figure 8) was stronger when procedural justice was high versus low. People reported highest level of role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration, when both procedural justice and relationship building were high.

Table 9

Regression of Procedural Justice by Relationship Building on Role Clarity, Self-efficacy and Social Integration

	Role Clarity		β Step1	Self-efficacy		Social Integration	
	B Step1	B Step2		B Step2	B Step1	B Step2	
<i>Step 1- Main Effects</i>							
Relationship Building	.00	-.80	.10*	-.33	.17*		-.46
Procedural Justice	.00	-.62	.00	-.35	.00		-.52
R ²		.01		.04*			.05*
F		1.27		5.25*			6.48*
<i>Step 2- Interaction Term</i>							
Relationship Building*							
Procedural Justice							
ΔR^2							
ΔF^2							
Relationship Building*							
Procedural Justice							
ΔR^2							
ΔF^2							
Overall R ²		.04*		.06*			.07*
Overall F		3.20*		4.89*			5.74*

Note. N = 216; * $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed), ** $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed)

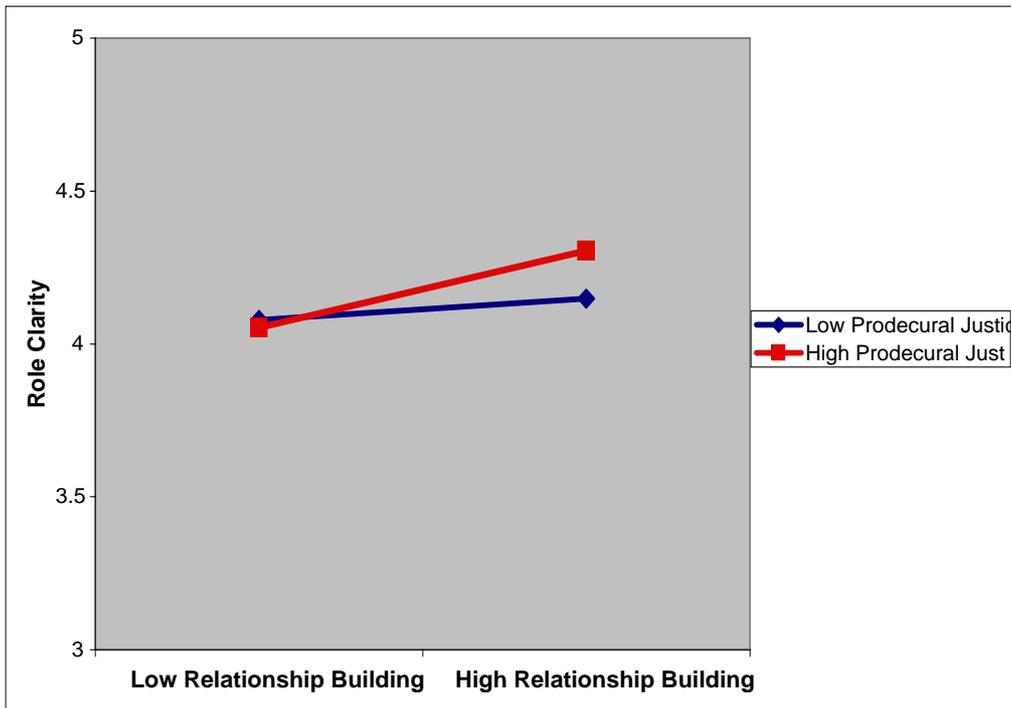


Figure 6. Interaction Between Relationship Building and Procedural Justice on Role Clarity

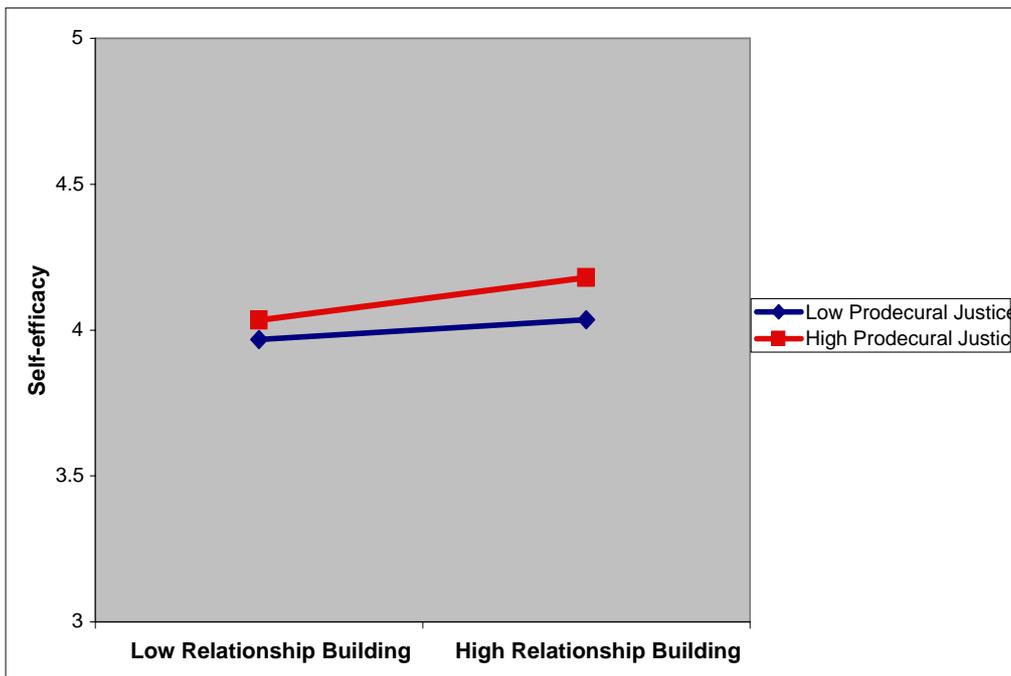


Figure 7. Interaction Between Relationship Building and Procedural Justice on Self-efficacy

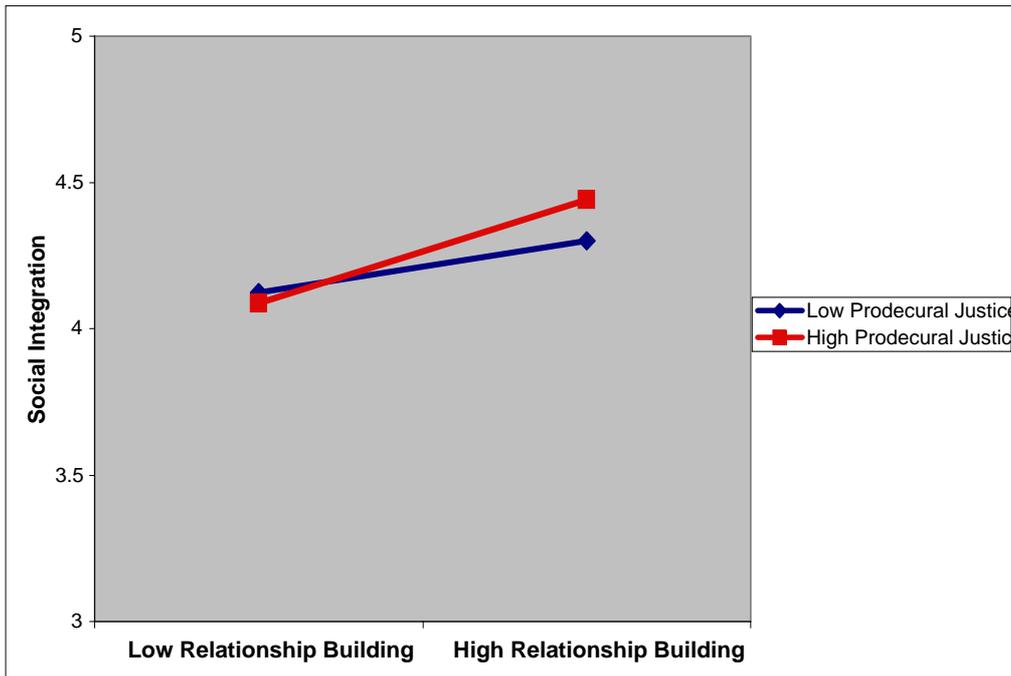


Figure 8. Interaction Between Relationship Building and Procedural Justice on Social Integration

In sum, hypotheses of direct relationships were supported for all proactive socialization behaviors and OCB. In case of CWB, only positive framing was significantly related to CWB, only when self-reports were used. Hypotheses predicting relationships between newcomer adjustment variables and OCB and CWB were also supported with both self-reports and supervisor-reports of work behaviors. Hypotheses regarding the mediating role of newcomer adjustment received some support. Lastly, hypotheses about the role of procedural justice were mostly supported for the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and social integration (See the list of the hypotheses and to what extent they were supported on page 52).

Summary of Results

H 1:	Positive framing will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 2:	Sense making will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 3:	Relationship building will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 4:	Positive framing will be negatively related to CWB.	Fully supported
H 5:	Sense making will be negatively related to CWB.	Not supported
H 6:	Relationship building will be negatively related to CWB.	Not supported
H 7a:	Role clarity will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 7b:	Role clarity will be negatively related to CWB.	Fully supported
H 8a:	Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.	Partially supported For positive framing and sense making
H 8b:	Role clarity will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.	Partially supported For positive framing
H 9a:	Self-efficacy will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 9b:	Self-efficacy will be negatively related to CWB.	Fully supported
H 10a:	Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.	Fully supported
H 10b:	Self-efficacy will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.	Partially supported For positive framing
H 11a:	Social integration will be positively related to OCB.	Fully supported
H 11b:	Social integration will be negatively related to CWB.	Fully supported
H 12a:	Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and OCB.	Partially supported For sense making and relationship building
H 12b:	Social integration will mediate the relationship between proactive socialization tactics (i) positive framing, (ii) sense making (iii) relationship building and CWB.	Not supported
H 13:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and role clarity.	Not supported
H 14:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and self-efficacy.	Partially supported Supported for sense making
H 15:	Procedural justice will moderate the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and social integration.	Fully supported

Chapter Four: Discussion

The objective of the present study was to explore the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors, work adjustment variables and voluntary work behaviors. Specifically, I investigated how positive framing, sense making and relationship building was related to citizenship and counterproductive work behavior. To date, these relationships have not been tested empirically. Furthermore, the study explored the mediating role of role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration and the moderating role of procedural justice. This study is also the first study, which explored the mediation for socialization efforts initiated by the individual and the first study, which tested a contextual variable for its moderating effect on the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and newcomer adjustment variables.

The results indicated that proactive socialization behaviors were related to citizenship behavior. People, who reported engaging in positive framing, sense making (i.e., information seeking and feedback seeking) and relationship building (i.e., general socializing, networking and building relationships with one's boss) also reported high levels of OCB. The positive relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and OCB was also obtained, when supervisors reported on their subordinates' OCB. These findings provide support for the socialization model proposed by Saks and Ashforth (1997). According to them, proactive socialization behaviors trigger a process of information gathering, uncertainty reduction and learning during organizational entry. Eventually, this newcomer socialization leads to positive attitudes and outcomes. Although they suggested citizenship behavior as a potential outcome, the present study provides support in an empirical study.

In the case of CWB, only positive framing was related to CWB. People who reported engaging in more positive framing reported lower levels of CWB than people who reported in less positive framing. However, positive framing was not significantly related to supervisor reports of CWB. Furthermore, sense making and relationship building was not significantly related to CWB. For the most part, proactive socialization behaviors did not predict CWB. One explanation for this finding is that the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and CWB is more distal. Proactive socialization behaviors do not necessarily relate to CWB, but if they improve the functioning of the newcomer within the new organization context by eliminating stressors (e.g., uncertainty), by promoting better adjustment, then they may influence CWB. In fact, proactive socialization behaviors were related to newcomer adjustment. Furthermore, CWB was significantly and negatively related to all newcomer adjustment variables including role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration both when CWB was rated by the employee or by the supervisor.

The overall pattern also indicates that proactive socialization behaviors yield more significant relationships with OCB than CWB. This is in line with the main performance models. Citizenship behaviors are conceptually closer to task performance, such that some OCB may be considered as part of task domain (Organ, 1991) and some people engage in OCB to increase their performance evaluations (Bolino, 1999). Proactive socialization behaviors have been related to task performance (Ashford & Black, 1996), so therefore they may be instrumental in increasing OCB. In the case of CWB, the relationship between proactive socialization and CWB seems to be weak.

The mediation results for OCB indicated that proactive socialization behaviors mostly kept the direct relationship as well as the indirect relationships via role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. The results provide some support for potential mediation,

that is socialization works through newcomer adjustment variables. Specifically, the effects of positive framing, sense making and relationship building were related to OCB via role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. In case of CWB, there was support for mediation of the relationship between positive framing and CWB. No other mediation was detected, because two of the three types of proactive socialization behaviors (i.e., sense making and relationship building) were not significantly related to CWB. Furthermore, in line with the personal control framework, when newcomers succeed in adjustment with role clarity and self-efficacy and increase their control perceptions, they are more likely to engage in OCB and less likely to commit CWB.

The present study is possibly the first study that examines the effects of justice, specifically procedural justice, on the relationship between proactive socialization behaviors and work behaviors. The results suggested a moderating role of procedural justice for some of the relationships. Procedural justice did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between positive framing and the newcomer adjustment variables. As part of the definition, people who engage in positive framing see the environment in a positive light (Ashford & Black, 1996). Framing is internal to the individual and perceiving the environment as 'fair' maybe part of the positive framing process. On the contrary, the sense making and relationship building behaviors are external to the individual and happen within an organizational context. The newcomer may engage in these behaviors, but he/she may not necessarily attain the intended outcomes (e.g., role clarity, self-efficacy or social integration). Procedural justice may determine whether the intended outcomes are achieved, because people are exposed to organizational procedures daily (Colquitt et al., 2001). For example, if the newcomer requests information on a procedure and doesn't get it, he/she may perceive unfairness. Or if certain people have better access to mentors during social gatherings, it may

be perceived as unjust. Among the tested hypotheses, procedural justice mattered for only sense making and only in predicting self-efficacy. Interestingly, procedural justice moderated the relationships between relationship building and all newcomer adjustment variables. In other words, when people engaged in relationship building in a fair environment, they experienced higher levels of role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. One explanation may be that procedural justice is more critical for relationship building than the other proactive socialization behaviors, because only when procedures are fair, newcomers are likely to establish beneficial relationships with others and become an insider within the social networks.

Considering all the results, this study provides some support for the personal control framework and points out that there may be other explanations for the newcomer socialization process. Uncertainty reduction theory and personal control models are among the most commonly utilized frameworks to explain how proactive socialization behaviors lead to outcomes (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007). Saks and Ashforth (1997) proposed that proactive socialization behaviors lead to proximal outcomes that signify decreased uncertainty and increased control perceptions (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In the present study, the proximal outcomes (i.e., newcomer adjustment variables) only partially mediated most of the relationships for OCB. The proactive socialization behaviors were directly related to OCB in addition to their indirect association via role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration. Newcomer adjustment variables mediated only the relationship between positive framing and CWB.

Limitations

The literature on organizational socialization does not specify a time frame for the initial socialization experience, when individuals first start their jobs (Bauer et al., 2007). There is debate as to when it is completed and at which point in time researchers should measure the extent of socialization. Bauer et al (2007) suggested that the most commonly used time frame is 1 year and the range for organizational tenure for this study was between 3 months to 12 months with an average of 9 months.

The sample size for supervisors in this study was less than desired, so the results might have been affected for regression analyses. To get better picture of the true relationship between main variables and behaviors reported by the supervisor, the relationships should be repeated with a bigger sample of supervisor-report of OCB/CWB. Still, most of the direct relationships were significant with the supervisor data.

All data were collected at the same time. However, organizational entry involves a process that unfolds over time (Kim et al., 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Ideally, the variables can be measured at different times both to see how these newcomer adjustment variables develops as well as to establish the consistency of outcomes including OCB and CWB over time. However, this is the first study that investigated the effects of proactive socialization behaviors on extra-task performance behaviors and the findings are important for subsequent cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. The design of this study also does not allow making inferences about causality. It is possible that people who experience high levels of role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration may engage in more proactive socialization behaviors. Similarly, people who report high levels of OCB may engage in more positive framing, sense making and relationship building.

Implications and Future Directions

Although the model of organizational socialization by Saks and Ashforth (1997) posited citizenship behaviors as an outcome, no study I could find investigated this proposition. The present study provided support for this relationship and demonstrated that proactive socialization behaviors are associated with high levels of citizenship behaviors. Saks and Ashforth's (1997) model also proposed lower stress as an outcome variable that was negatively related to socialization behaviors. Most prior studies investigate the positive outcomes of the socialization process. The present study demonstrated that positive framing was associated with low levels of counterproductive work behavior. The models of organizational socialization may benefit by integrating both citizenship and counterproductive work behaviors as addition to task behaviors/performance. The present study also identified new antecedents for OCB and CWB. It also adds to literature on proactivity by investigating outcomes and conditions that affect proactive behaviors. In sum, the findings contribute to our knowledge on newcomer socialization, extra-task performance and proactivity.

Additional antecedents and outcomes of proactive socialization behaviors should be investigated. Research has shown that socialization initiated by the organization encourages proactive socialization behaviors, because it is perceived as a sign for approval of these behaviors (Gruman et al., 2006). Other personality (e.g., proactive personality, achievement orientation and need for approval) and organizational factors (e.g., organizational support) may relate to high levels of proactive socialization behaviors. In terms of newcomer adjustment, additional proximal and distal outcomes may be investigated. For example, in addition to role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration, newcomer adjustment variables

such as person-organization fit and role orientation may be explored for their role in linking proactive socialization behaviors and OCB/CWB (Kim et al., 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Furthermore, among distal outcomes of newcomer socialization, job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been related to OCB and CWB (Podsakoff et al., 2000; Spector & Fox, 2002).

As a next step, the relationship between organizational socialization behaviors and performance outcomes including OCB and CWB should be investigated. Saks and Ashforth's model (1997) include socialization behaviors initiated both by the individual and by the organization. Research has shown that organizational socialization tactics are related to high task performance (Bauer et al., 2007). Therefore, it would be interesting to explore whether organizational socialization tactics will be related to extra-task performance behaviors (i.e., OCB and CWB). Moreover, the inclusion of both organizational and proactive socialization behaviors in the same study would allow to look at all the relationships simultaneously and provide a more comprehensive picture of how socialization efforts factor into the models that explain OCB and CWB.

Lastly, organizational entry can be considered a period that evokes stressful experiences for the newcomer. Above all, the newcomer needs to deal with uncertainty (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997) and make their work environment more predictable and certain. Future studies may investigate stressors that are specific to the process of moving from uncertainty to certainty. For example, anxiety due to failure and lack of feedback may be more relevant to the socialization experience of newcomers. Furthermore, the newcomer makes use of many different ways to deal with stressors in addition to proactive socialization behaviors such as organizational support, coworker support and mentoring, which maybe available to the newcomer without any effort on

his/her part. Such research will also help to clarify the role of personal control in predicting OCB and CWB during organizational entry.

In terms of practical implications, the present study suggests that when organizations and managers encourage proactive socialization behaviors, newcomers may experience better adjustment and engage in more citizenship behaviors. Furthermore, when newcomers experience role clarity, self-efficacy and social integration, they may be more likely to engage in more OCB and less CWB. Therefore, activities and opportunities that increase newcomer adjustment will benefit the organization (Bauer et al., 2007). For example, organizations may offer training sessions and social gatherings for newcomers or promote an open environment, which provides support for proactive socialization behaviors. Also, supervisors may assign newcomers projects, which may increase their self-efficacy. The present study also emphasized fairness perceptions for some proactive socialization tactics in achieving better newcomer adjustment. Therefore, organizations may facilitate newcomer adjustment by providing a fair environment.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Proactive Socialization Tactics Items (Adapted from Ashford & Black, 1996)

Feedback seeking

1. Sought out feedback on my performance after assignments
2. Solicited critiques from my boss
3. Sought out feedback on my performance during assignments
4. Asked your boss's opinion of my work

Positive Framing

5. Tried to see my situation as an opportunity rather than a threat
6. Tried to look on the bright side of things
7. Tried to see my situation as a challenge rather than a problem

Generalized Socializing

8. Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)
9. Attended company social gatherings
10. Attended office parties

Boss-relationships

11. Tried to spend as much time as I could with your boss
12. Tried to form a good relationship with my boss
13. Worked hard to get to know my boss

Networking

14. Started conversations with people from different segments of the company
15. Tried to socialize with people who are not in my department
16. Tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis

Information seeking

17. Tried to learn the (official) organizational structure
18. Tried to learn the important policies and procedures in the organization
19. Tried to learn the politics of the organization
20. Tried to learn the (unofficial) structure

Appendix B: Role Ambiguity Items (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970)

1. I know exactly what is expected of me
2. I know that I have divided my time properly
3. Explanation is clear of what has to be done
4. I feel certain about how much authority I have
5. I know what my responsibilities are
6. Clear, planned goals/objectives exist for my job

Appendix C: Organizational Socialization Self-efficacy Items (Gruman, Saks & Zweig, 2006)

1. Handle routine work-related problems
2. Effectively assume the responsibilities demanded of my role in the organization
3. Function according to the organization's values and norms
4. Perform the required duties of the job
5. Handle the demands and expectations of my role in the organization
6. Behave in accordance with the organization's policies and practices
7. Develop relationships with coworkers and my workgroup
8. Adjust to the organization's culture and way of doing things
9. Be accepted by my coworkers and my workgroup
10. Master the task requirements necessary to perform my job
11. Know how to act and behave in accordance with my role in the organization
12. Behave according to the norms and expectations of my coworkers and my workgroup

Appendix D: Social Integration Items (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000)

1. The people I work with respect me
2. My coworkers seem to accept me as one of them
3. I get along with the people I work with very well
4. I feel comfortable around my coworkers

Appendix E: Procedural Justice Items (Adapted from Colquitt, 1991)

1. I have been able to express my feelings and views concerning decisions made by my organization
2. I have had influence over the decisions arrived at by my organization
3. Decisions at my organization have been consistent
4. Decisions at my organization have been free of bias
5. Decisions at my organization have been based on accurate information
6. I have been able to appeal decisions made at my organization
7. Decisions at my organization have upheld ethical and moral standards

Appendix F: Organizational Citizenship Behavior Items (Lee & Allen, 2002)

1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy towards coworkers, even under the most tiring business and personal situations
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems
7. Assist others with their duties
8. Share personal property with others to help their work
9. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image
10. Keep up with developments in the organization
11. Defend the organization when other employees criticize
12. Show pride when presenting the organization in public
13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization
14. Express loyalty towards the organization
15. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems
16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization

Appendix G: Counterproductive Work Behavior Items (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Gob & Kessler, 2006)

1. Purposely wasted your employer's materials/supplies
2. Purposely did your work incorrectly
3. Came to work late without permission
4. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't
5. Purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property
6. Purposely dirtied or littered your place of work
7. Stolen something belonging to your employer
8. Purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done
9. Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take
10. Purposely failed to follow instructions
11. Left work earlier than you were allowed to
12. Insulted someone about their job performance
13. Took supplies or tools home without permission
14. Put in to be paid for more hours than you worked
15. Ignored someone at work
16. Started an argument with someone at work
17. Did something to make someone at work look bad
18. Insulted or made fun of someone at work

About the Author

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