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„Everybody on Board: Examining the Influence of Various Factors on Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention of Newcomers Using a Mixed-Methods Design."

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to identify a subset of factors that significantly influence newcomers' job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Considering a variety of possible influencing factors, perceived organizational and supervisor support, organizational socialization, and work-related stress were selected as key study variables. Additionally, I tried to provide further evidence for the existence of a honeymoon-hangover effect related to job satisfaction. Although the study was conducted in a longitudinal design with a sample of 91 participants at two measurement points in a three-month interval, the cross-sectional data was also examined (129 and 148 participants). Moreover, five qualitative interviews were conducted with newcomers who voluntarily left the company. The analysis of the data included the intercorrelations of the different factors, a mediation analysis of the associations of POS, PSS, turnover intentions and job satisfaction, an examination of the temporal changes of the selected factors, and a graphical illustration of the temporal pattern of job satisfaction. The results revealed strong correlations among the individual constructs, but the mediation hypotheses could not be confirmed. Regarding the temporal pattern of job satisfaction, the present study provides support for an anticipated honeymoon-hangover effect. However, the findings highlight the complexity and the numerous influences on job satisfaction and turnover intentions of newcomers. Within the context of previous research, the results are critically discussed, methodological limitations are addressed, potential approaches for future research are identified, and practical implications are presented.

Keywords: newcomer, organizational socialization, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, job-related tension, stress, honeymoon-hangover effect, job satisfaction, turnover intention

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1 Introduction

If there is any one secret of success, it lies in the ability to get the other person's point of view and see things from that person's angle as well as from your own.

— Henry Ford, How to Win Friends and Influence People

In the modern world of work, we face a multitude of complex challenges. One of these challenges is the struggle to find and attract qualified personnel or the so-called "war for talent". For this reason, many organizations are increasingly focusing on recruiting and retaining new employees. Retaining employees is becoming more significant, as an above-average number of employment relationships are terminated within the first year of employment (Kieser et al., 1990). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020), employees have an average of eight different jobs by the age of 32 which highlights the importance for organizations to address the issue of employee turnover.

Employee turnover results in many negative consequences, including high costs of reassignment, training of new employees, loss of experience, reduced morale among the remaining organizational members, and a weakening of the position on the market (Brenner, 2014; Katsikea et al., 2015). For illustration, the cost of recruiting and training new employees can range from 90% to 200% of a former employee's annual salary (Allen et al., 2010). The organization faces not only direct costs (i.e., recruiting or training) as a result of employee turnover, but also indirect costs, such as relocating other employees or resources, which are equally high compared to direct costs most of the time (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). But both can be significantly reduced by lowering turnover (Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011).

In that regard, job dissatisfaction is one of the strongest predictors for voluntary turnover. Dissatisfied employees start searching for alternative job opportunities and once they find a job that matches their demands better than their current job, chances are very high that they leave the organization (Lee, 1988).

When a new employee adapts to a new organization, position or group of people, it is equivalent to an "evolutionary journey" (Cebellero, 2019, Organizationsal Socialization defined section, para. 1). On this journey, the new employee learns the culture of the organization which is solidified depending on how the new employee is guided by existing members of the organization. The process of learning about the culture, norms, and values of the organization and the adaption to the organization and its members is combined in the term *organizational socialization*. Through their methods of socialization, organizations are

instrumental in shaping new employees (Cebellero, 2019). During the period of organizational socialization, members of the organization are taught the values, norms, and expected behaviors that the organization anticipates from successful employees. Some organizations have a favorable organizational culture and have adopted effective methods to socialize new employees. In contrast, if organizational socialization is negative, disappointment, disillusionment, and poor employee retention will be the result. Eventually, if an employee is released or resigns voluntarily, a widely used explanation is that the employee did not fit well into the organization, whereas insufficient socialization is most often the cause (Cebellero, 2019). This continuous process of interaction with newcomers further highlights the importance of organizational socialization of employees for organizations in order to be successful and that its research provides both valuable theoretical and practical implications (Bauer et al., 2007).

While voluntary turnover can have positive implications for the organization, such as releasing underperforming employees, empirical studies tend to show a negative impact on organizational effectiveness (Glebbeek & Bax, 2004). Accordingly, it would be beneficial for organizations if turnover could be prevented to a large extent. In order to reduce turnover intentions of employees, external factors as well as organizational factors are pivotal. Whereas external factors, such as alternative job opportunities and the economic or political situation, can hardly be influenced (e.g., Gerhart, 1990), organizational factors are controllable to a large extent and may help reduce the intention to leave (Batt, 2002; J. D. Shaw et al., 1998). Empirical research suggests that controllable organizational factors have significantly more influence on employees' intentions to leave than external factors do and thus are more indicative of expedient Human Resource (HR) management (Khatri et al., 2001).

Most of the time, taking on a new position is accompanied by various challenges and a certain degree of uncertainty which can potentially be experienced as very stressful for employees. However, the support that new employees may receive from the organization or from their supervisor can be essential in order to create a positive organizational climate (Eisenberger et al., 2002). An organizational climate characterized by respectful and valuing interaction among members of the organization has wide-ranging benefits and can lower the stress experienced, increase job satisfaction and reduce the intention to leave (Caesens et al., 2019).

This was a first glance at the importance of successful organizational socialization and the selection of possible factors that can influence job satisfaction and the intention to leave significantly. The terms organizational socialization and newcomer socialization are used interchangeably in this master's thesis, as well as turnover intention and intention to leave. Additionally, the use of the term organizational socialization always implies successful organizational socialization in this master's thesis unless stated otherwise. The objective of the master's thesis is to present empirically supported associations between job satisfaction and the intention to leave and organizational socialization, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support and job-related tension and to bring them into an overall context.

I was given the opportunity to conduct this study during an internship I completed at the development and training department of a globally operating technical company based in Vienna. The aim of the study was to determine the potential factors that cause new employees to leave the company within a short period of time after entering the organization. In order to answer this question, a questionnaire was designed based on the scientific literature. Job satisfaction and the intention to leave were chosen as main dependent variables, as these two factors are important antecedents in the withdrawal process and reliably predict voluntary employee turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). Additionally, the scope of the questionnaire has been kept relatively short to ensure a high participation rate, and to counteract potential fatigue to participate due to a recent large-scale employee survey that preceded the study. Furthermore, the study was designed as a longitudinal study including two times of measurement in order to meet the demand for more longitudinal research, to achieve a higher quality of data, and to be able to take temporal changes into account (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer et al., 1998). In addition, the two samples acquired from the first and second time of measurement were also examined cross-sectionally. The format of this master's thesis is based on the APA 7th edition guidelines.

2 Theoretical Background

2.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most important variables in organizational studies because it is instrumental in a variety of organizational processes, such as employee withdrawal or organizational commitment (Kinicki et al., 2002). Given the high importance, job satisfaction is the most frequently investigated dependent variable in organizational psychology (Staw, 1984). Therefore, a wide range of definitions exist for the concept of job

satisfaction. To put it more simply, job satisfaction describes the "feelings a worker has about his job" (Smith et al., 1969, p. 100) and relates to the extent to which people like their jobs (Hirschfeld, 2000). This master's thesis draws on the conceptualization of Lu et al. (2005) implying that job satisfaction may be perceived as a global feeling about the job. However, job satisfaction is a complex and multi-dimensional construct that every employee defines differently for himself or herself (Mullins, 2016), has varying manifestations, and is not a unitary concept, meaning that an employee can be satisfied with one or more facets of his job, but dissatisfied with one or more other facets of his job (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998).

A variety of motivational theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) or Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) have been utilized to explain the concept of job satisfaction. In this master's thesis, the theory of work adjustment from Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss (1968) served as a basis for illustrating the concept of job satisfaction because it is one of the most robust and best validated theories in vocational psychology (Eggerth, 2008) and it is specifically focusing on predicting employee turnover (Dahling & Librizzi, 2015).

2.1.1 Theory of Work Adjustment

According to the theory of work adjustment (Dawis et al., 1968), job satisfaction is established on the basis of a consonance of an individual and its environment (i.e., correspondence). Although an individual must relate to several and different kinds of environments, the focus in this master's thesis is on work as a major environment that most individuals must relate to. In any case, both the individual and the environment are mutually responsive for creating this correspondence occurring when minimal requirements regarding skills provided by the employee and rewards (e.g., wages, prestige or relationships in the workplace provided by the organization) are mutually met.

Being a basic motive of human behavior, each individual seeks to achieve and maintain correspondence with his or her environment (Dawis et al., 1968). However, both individuals and the environment are subject to a continuous and dynamic process wherein the individual tries to achieve and maintain correspondence (i.e., work adjustment). Staying in an organization allows the individual to achieve stronger correspondence and organizational tenure is achieved by stabilizing this correspondent relationship. In consequence, substantial tenure optimally leads to satisfactoriness (i.e., the employee fulfills the requirements of the

organization) and satisfaction (i.e., the employee's requirements are fulfilled by the organization).

The theory adopts an interactionist perspective, arming individuals with both active and reactive strategies in order to improve the respective work environment (Dawis, 2005). To sum up, the theory of work adjustment has shed light on one of the most influential drivers of job satisfaction and has contributed to a common understanding why employees remain in an organization or withdraw from it (Dahling & Librizzi, 2015).

2.1.2 Association of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Tenure

Considering the increased mobility in the labor market and the increasing volatility of employment relationships in recent years, high levels of employee job satisfaction is becoming more and more important. Organizational tenure (i.e., the period of time an employee has remained within the organization) is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction and has a stronger predictive value than other demographic variables such as age (Bedeian et al., 1992). Nevertheless, an employee's age is also influential and therefore both age and tenure should be measured simultaneously to quantify the effect of time on job satisfaction (Bedeian et al., 1992; Brush et al., 1987; Ng & Feldman, 2010). However, job satisfaction is not a constant factor but changes over time (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rhodes, 1983). At this point, researchers are divided on the question when changes in attitudinal or behavioral patterns of newcomers occur (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Bauer et al., 1998; Boswell et al., 2009). Son and Ok (2019) define a newcomer as an "individual who has been newly hired and has had no prior experience with the hiring organization" (p. 73). Furthermore, there is no indication of how quickly or at what rate the change in job satisfaction occurs over time, but it is important to examine under which circumstances and in which contexts these patterns emerge or change (Son & Ok, 2019).

Scientific findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational tenure remain equivocal. Specifically, different empirical studies suggest that the relationship may be negative (Bedeian et al., 1992; Vandenberghe et al., 2011), positive (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2010), or that there may be no relationship at all (Clark et al., 1996; Hochwarter et al., 2001; Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983). A number of studies promote a curvilinear trend of job satisfaction upon organizational entry (Boswell et al., 2009; Hunt & Saul, 1975), meaning an initial increase followed by a decline of job satisfaction after the adjustment period. Son and Ok (2019) predict an U-shaped curve for the relationship between

tenure and job satisfaction for newcomers, meaning an initial short-term decline followed by a gradual increase in job satisfaction. In contrast, some researchers assume a non-linear pattern (Bamundo & Kopelman, 1980), whereas others assume a cyclical pattern consisting of rises and falls of job satisfaction over time (Shirom & Mazeh, 1988). Mainly, positive (Jones, 1986; Katz, 1980) or negative linear patterns have been observed (Boswell et al., 2005). On the contrary, Boswell et al. (2009) assume a wave pattern.

Organizational tenure is predominantly used as an independent variable in studies and has proven to be a reliable predictor of job satisfaction, work commitment, turnover intention, and workplace climate perception (Teclaw et al., 2014; Trimble, 2006). However, some researchers suggest that job satisfaction may decline in the first year of employment only among employees leaving the organization, but not among those remaining in the organization (e.g., Boswell et al., 2005, 2009; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2005).

This increase in job satisfaction is based on the theories of uncertainty reduction and job embeddedness (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). With increasing tenure, newcomers gain more proficiency (Jones, 1986; Katz, 1980), are better informed, and have greater authority to control their work, collectively reducing uncertainty and positively affecting job satisfaction (Son & Ok, 2019). Particularly in the early phases of organizational socialization, newcomers are exposed to a great amount of uncertainty, because access to information is restricted (Kramer, 1994). In line with the uncertainty theory, individuals seek a substantial amount of information about their organizational environment when they are exposed to cognitive uncertainty (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Simply put, the longer an employee remains in the organization, the more knowledge he or she acquires, which subsequently reduces uncertainty and ultimately increases job satisfaction.

Similarly, the theory of job embeddedness implies that employees stay longer in organizations because of interpersonal relationships, organizational fit, and access to resources necessary to perform their job (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). Additionally, higher levels of organizational tenure increase the likelihood of being promoted or enjoying a higher status or more power (i.e., an essential part of job satisfaction) and thus, experiencing higher job satisfaction (Kalleberg & Mastekaasa, 2001). Furthermore, increasing job satisfaction may also be the result of retrospective rationalization, whereby employees find reasons to justify their employment after a certain period of time entering the organization (London, 1983) or they have managed to reinterpret the negative aspects of the job to make it

more enjoyable (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018). Finally, employees who are already experienced are more likely to search for and accept a job where they are confident the job will meet their requirements compared to less experienced employees (Clark et al., 1996).

According to the attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987), applicants will select those organizations as potential employers where they perceive an adequate fit with the organizational culture and values. However, organizations check for an adequate fit as well and hire those applicants who seem to provide the best organizational fit. After organizational entry, it becomes increasingly salient to newcomers whether they share the organizational culture and values, possess the skills required to successfully perform the new job, and appreciate the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards derived from the job (Weller et al., 2009). If there is a misfit, newcomers with a poor fit quickly leave the organization (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990).

A variety of studies have demonstrated the positive effects of job satisfaction on organizational measures including better performance (e.g., Fu & Deshpande, 2014; Harter et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2001), lower turnover rates, increased organizational tenure (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; Coccia, 2001; Goyal & Joshi, 2012; Griffeth et al., 2000; Hellman, 1997; Hom & Kinicki, 2001; Ismail & Bebenroth, 2016), and less counterproductive work behavior (Bowling, 2010). More generally, dissatisfied employees are more likely to leave the organization than satisfied employees (Naumann, 1993; Sarker et al., 2003; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

Basically, longer tenure offers more opportunities to acquire knowledge about the organization, but this applies to both positive and negative aspects (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991). Despite having mostly positive expectations before or upon organizational entry, newcomers tend to develop negative perceptions when confronted with organizational reality and daily routines (Mäkikangas et al., 2016) and they become more dissatisfied with their job (Ashforth & Kreiner, 2002). In other words, employees gain more knowledge about the organization over the duration of employment (Chatman, 1991; Louis, 1980) and thus learn more about the negative and less favorable aspects of the organization and the job, which leads to less job satisfaction (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991) and ultimately, initial high expectations turn into frustration post organizational entry (Boswell et al., 2005, 2009).

Moreover, longer tenure entails a certain degree of boredom and as a result job satisfaction decreases (Clark et al., 1996). According to the theory of post-decision dissonance in work contexts (Lawler et al., 1975; Vroom & Deci, 1971), the more experience employees

gain, the less attractive the job becomes and the less job satisfaction employees experience. However, scientific literature suggests various methods to counteract this disillusionment - for example, realistic job previews, which can be used to mitigate or limit the decrease in job satisfaction (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987).

Considering the significance, interest in increasing job satisfaction among newcomers is evidently very high (Baker & Feldman, 1990; Jones, 1986; Song et al., 2015). Addressing the job satisfaction of newcomers is critical because satisfied employees are more likely to adapt to the organization and perform well (Son & Ok, 2019).

2.1.3 Examining the Honeymoon-Hangover Effect

Post-organizational entry, newcomers try to reduce uncertainty and therefore engage in sensemaking (Louis, 1980). During this process, multiple reasons have been identified explaining why newcomers experience an "initial high in job satisfaction" (i.e., honeymoon effect) after entering a new work environment (Boswell et al., 2009, p. 845). First, newcomers have initially positive attitudes towards their new job because their perceptions are strongly influenced by a focus on the favorable features of the new job (Louis, 1980). Second, newcomers draw on their own schemas (i.e., what requirements they have for a job so that it qualifies as satisfactory) in their attempt to reduce uncertainty and thereby compensate for the lack of certain information (Rousseau, 2001). Third, during the onboarding phase, newcomers are separated from the rest of the employees to some extent, they are mainly confronted with the positive aspects of the organization, and they are shielded from the negative perceptions of the incumbent employees (van Maanen, 1978). Fourth, newcomers are largely spared from negative outcomes in their new organizational role (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991).

Once new employees have adjusted to their new job and have acquired a growing knowledge of various aspects of the job, job satisfaction decreases (i.e., hangover effect, see Boswell et al., 2009). Leventhal et al. (2007) refer to this process as affective habituation indicating that normality settles into the daily work routine and employees are faced with more mundane tasks within the work context (Boswell et al., 2009). The salience of the unpleasant aspects of work, which can lead to a reality shock or psychological contract violations (i.e., employees' understanding of their social exchange relationship with their organization; see Rousseau, 2001), and subsequently leading to newcomer dissatisfaction and turnover (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Weller et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2017).

Other research findings suggest that newcomers are more likely to expect that agreements with the organization will be fulfilled as opposed to employees having longer organizational tenure (Robinson et al., 1994; Thomas & Anderson, 1998). Therefore, newcomers are more likely to experience a violation of their psychological contracts resulting in less job satisfaction. Furthermore, newcomers may feel a sense of disappointment when discrepancies between anticipated and realistic rewards or experiences occur (Wilson & Gilbert, 2005).

Possibly, newcomers have anticipated the occurrence of certain negative events, but incorrectly assessed them, which can lead to the experience of more distress (Louis, 1980). Nonetheless, organizations can counteract this trend (Boswell et al., 2009). Studies have shown that the extent of socialization (i.e., clarity about their tasks, job role and the organization) and organizational fulfillment of commitments can boost job satisfaction during the hangover cycle (Boswell et al., 2009). However, caution is advised as evidence suggests that higher levels of job satisfaction during the honeymoon cycle may lead to an amplified decline in job satisfaction during the hangover cycle (Boswell et al., 2009).

In conclusion, scientific literature remains equivocal with a variety of evidence on contradicting forms of relationships between job satisfaction and tenure, including multiple causal explanations associated with each form (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018). Thus, no predominant explanation has yet emerged for underlying mechanisms of changing job satisfaction over time. However, applying a longitudinal study design is considered the most effective way to assess the dynamics of job satisfaction (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018).

Even though a number of researchers in the field of turnover theory have already identified the declining tendency of newcomer job satisfaction after organizational entry (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), Boswell et al. (2009) demonstrated the wavering pattern of shifts in job satisfaction (i.e., honeymoon-hangover effect) in a large sample first. Boswell et al. (2009) attribute this pattern to a "predisposition toward a set point…after a shift in job satisfaction level due to a job change" (p.888).

Considering the theoretical derivation, I assume a wave pattern of job satisfaction over time and in the context of this study I attempt to replicate the honeymoon-hangover effect found by Boswell et al. (2009).Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 (H1). After an initial high in job satisfaction (i.e., honeymoon), job satisfaction of newcomers decreases (i.e., hangover) and gradually rises afterwards.

2.2 Turnover Intention

Turnover is defined by the "termination of an individual's employment with a given company" whereas turnover intention is identified by "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1993, p. 262). As the definition already suggests, scientific literature on turnover is almost solely focusing on self-motivated (i.e., voluntary) termination and disregards known cases of involuntary turnover (i.e., termination by the employer). Turnover intentions can be seen as the end of a cognitive and sequential withdrawal process that reliably predict actual turnover including thoughts about a possible resignation or a search for alternative job opportunities (Mobley et al., 1978). Du Plooy & Roodt (2010) identified job satisfaction and turnover intentions as reliable antecedents of voluntary employee turnover.

In order to develop a broader understanding of how and why people leave organizations, a variety of models with different approaches emerged in the literature (Jackofsky, 1984; Jacobs & Roodt, 2007; Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; March & Simon, 1958; Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978; Porter & Steers, 1973; Steers et al., 1979). In sum, all these models embraced similar constructs in order to predict voluntary turnover, namely affect (i.e., job satisfaction or organizational commitment), behavioral intentions (i.e., intention to stay or leave) and job search mechanisms (i.e., perceived employment alternatives or intention to search), despite being rather different in model assumptions and measures (Steel, 2002). It would exceed the scope of this study to elaborate further on all existing models, and therefore this study's concept of turnover intention is drawn from the unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

2.2.1 Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover

Although individuals decide to leave an organization using different, distinct, and systematic psychological processes, the authors of the model assume that individuals follow one of four psychological and behavioral paths when they leave (Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). The model is based on five major components with a shock being the starting point for all four pathways (Lee et al., 1999). A shock is a significant and incisive event, which initiates psychological analyses that are involved in quitting a job and can be "positive,

neutral, or negative; expected or unexpected; and internal or external to the person who experiences it" (Lee et al., 1999, p. 451). The trigger for the first pathway (path 1) is a shock that causes the person who has experienced the shock to leave the organization ignoring his or her levels of job satisfaction, his or her attachment to it, and without considering alternatives. In this context, an alternative refers to an employee prioritizing any other job opportunity over the current job (e.g., to become a self-employed entrepreneur or to become a stay-at-home dad; Lee, Mitchell, Wise, & Fireman, 1996). By following path 1 however, the person draws on a preexisting plan of action (i.e., a script) which can be based on "past experience, observation of others, reading, or social expectations" (Lee et al., 1999, p. 451), requires little deliberation and is automatic (Holtom & Inderrieden, 2006). For example, as soon as an employee receives his or her large inheritance from his or her grandparents, he or she will go on a trip around the world and therefore leaves the organization.

The second pathway (path 2) is identical with path 1 except that the employee reconsiders his or her attachment to the organization based on an image violation that has occurred instead of the automated enactment on a script (Lee et al., 1999). An image violation occurs when an "individual's values, goals, and strategies for goal attainment do not fit with those of the employing organization or those implied by the shock" (Lee et al., 1999, p. 451). Exemplary for path 2, an employee is bypassed for a promotion (i.e., the shock) which causes the employee to evaluate whether an image violation has occurred. If the employee feels that his or her goals and values no longer align with those of the organization, the employee leaves without having a preexisting plan of action or having searched for job alternatives.

The trigger for the third pathway (path 3) is also a shock and usually an unexpected job offer (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). As a result of the shock, the employee analyzes whether an image violation has occurred, and evaluates whether the alternative position has a better organizational fit with the employee's values and goals (Lee et al., 1999). In case of a misfit and simultaneously the presence of low levels of job satisfaction, the employee accepts the job offering and leaves the organization.

Contrary to paths 1-3, incremental job dissatisfaction instead of a shock triggers the fourth pathway (path 4a and 4b; Lee et al., 1999). Both pathways are the result of mounting job dissatisfaction that reaches a certain threshold and subsequently leads to an image violation. The job dissatisfaction becomes salient to the employee that he or she leaves the organization without considering alternatives (path 4a). Being almost congruent with path 4a,

job dissatisfaction in path 4b leads employees to job search and a subsequent evaluation of alternatives before leaving which constitutes a very rational choice process.

In conclusion, the unfolding model of voluntary turnover contributed to the identification of the psychological processes involved in voluntary turnover in a major way (Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994). This process-based approach allows an extensive examination of the turnover decision process and has demonstrated that other variables besides low satisfaction levels can lead to employees leaving their jobs (Donnelly & Quirin, 2006). Traditional models account only for about 5% of the variance in voluntary turnover because they fail to explain some common examples of employee turnover, such as the employee who leaves as soon as he is offered a job, despite having high levels of job satisfaction, or the employee who leaves without having a new job offer lined up (Griffeth et al., 2000). While the unfolding model of voluntary turnover has received mostly empirical support (Donnelly & Quirin, 2006; Kulik et al., 2012; Lee et al., 1996, 1999; Morrell et al., 2008), there has also been criticism, particularly regarding the methodology (Maertz & Campion, 2004). Nonetheless, the unfolding model enhances the understanding of the turnover process (Maertz & Campion, 1998; Morrell et al., 2004) and gives organizations an adequate tool to possibly anticipate turnover and take countermeasures (Donnelly & Quirin, 2006).

2.2.2 Turnover Process of Newcomers

Organizations are constantly striving to reduce turnover of their employees, but particular focus is given to newcomers in this master's thesis. As already described, employee turnover generates high costs for organizations, as new employees have to be recruited and trained (Bothma & Roodt, 2012; Takawira et al., 2014). In addition, employee turnover can result in several negative outcomes, such as the loss of know-how, disruption of processes or organizational workflows (Bothma & Roodt, 2012). This is particularly problematic in the case of newcomers, as the cost-benefit ratio is highly negative at the beginning and only becomes equalized or positive with increasing tenure. Accordingly, organizations should identify the key determinants based on turnover research and address them in a systematic and effective approach (Mitchell, Holtom, & Lee Thomas, 2001; Pienaar et al., 2007). Everything that is done to reduce turnover automatically has positive outcomes for the organization (Bigliardi et al., 2005). This includes all measures that promise long-term employability and create a favorable work environment for newcomers through an adequate work-life balance, career opportunities and attractive fringe benefits (Holt et al., 2007; Muteswa & Ortlepp,

2011). Moreover, the shocks caused by the newcomer socialization process can be reduced through training and development (Muteswa & Ortlepp, 2011).

Research on turnover has demonstrated many associations with a wide range of organizational factors and outcomes. According to Mor Barak et al. (2001), there is no single predominant factor that leads to employee turnover intentions. Instead, there are a variety of factors that positively affect intentions to stay, including age, job satisfaction, years of employment, organizational culture, salary, past turnover behavior and many more (Ding & Lin, 2006; Igbaria et al., 1994; Quan & Cha, 2010). Cotton and Tuttle (1986) divide these factors into work related (e.g., wage or job satisfaction) and non-work related (e.g., alternative job opportunities) factors which significantly influence turnover intentions.

Nevertheless, most authors refer to job satisfaction as the central factor influencing turnover intentions (Pienaar et al., 2007; Tian-Foreman, 2009), although some evidence suggests that job dissatisfaction does not necessarily lead to turnover intentions (Wheeler et al., 2007). Simply put, organizations should ensure that newcomers have a successful newcomer adjustment to encourage them to stay in the organization. In particular, this may be achieved through reducing uncertainty (Wanous, 1992) by ensuring newcomers' successful adjustment to their new roles, sufficient information to carry out their tasks, and effective socialization with their colleagues (Bauer et al., 2007). Based on the theoretical framework presented here, I hypothesize the following:

> *Hypothesis 2 (H2).* For newcomers, higher job satisfaction is associated with lower turnover intentions.

2.3 Organizational Socialization

In order to continue to exist as an organization, it is inevitable to recruit new members and to integrate them successfully into the organization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979, p. 211) define organizational socialization as "the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role". Initially, the organization was held responsible for the organizational socialization of newcomers. However, more recent research described the relationship between the organization and newcomers more from an interactionist perspective where the newcomer is regarded as an active participant in the socialization process (Finkelstein et al., 2003; Reichers, 1987). By being proactive in terms of socialization (e.g., building relationships with supervisors or colleagues or seeking for essential information), evidence for positive impact on individual

and organizational outcomes including job satisfaction, job performance, and role clarity has been provided (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

According to Batistič (2018), the research interest in the socialization process stems from two significant practical implications of effective socialization: Only if employees are socialized effectively it can be ensured that the long-term cost-benefit ratio of recruiting and training new employees is positive and maximized. Secondly, effectively socialized employees can represent a competitive advantage, reflected in the fact that effectively socialized employees may be better trained, more skilled and more loyal (Batistič, 2018). Furthermore, effective socialization can lead to an enhanced person-job and person-organization fit, higher job satisfaction, higher organizational commitment, higher performance of employees and a lower turnover intention (Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashforth, 1996). This advantage is of particular importance as current economic and demographic developments and increasing mobility in the world of work result in a decline of organizational loyalty on the part of employees (Bauer et al., 2007). Conversely, ineffective socialization is one of the primary drivers of premature voluntary and involuntary employee turnover (Fisher, 1986), leading to disrupts in workflow and reduced productivity (Shaw et al., 2005), which in turn results in increased costs and wasted investment in the recruitment and training of newcomers (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

A particular interest of research has been devoted to dividing the newcomer socialization process into stages but yielding equivocal results. According to Bauer et al. (1998), all existing models are not true process models but are rather prescriptive, because they do not fully address which cognitive, affective or organizational processes lead to each stage. Instead, the existing models describe the respective processes during newcomer socialization based on overcoming the challenges of the previous stage. Nevertheless, they serve as a useful heuristic and provide an understanding of the challenges faced by newcomers (Wanous, 1992). Ashforth et al. (2008) present an overview of the existing stage models and try to identify the commonalities. According to the authors, all models have more or less four stages in common: anticipation, encounter, adjustment, and stabilization. Anticipation as the first stage includes all activities undertaken by the newcomer to prepare him or her for entering the organization, including the search for suitable positions and gathering information about the organization (e.g., via the company website or press releases). During this phase, the organization provides a combination of realistic and idealistic information about itself, for example through the recruiting process or the organization's own information material. Second, encounter comprises the phase of actual organizational entry,

during which the newcomer's expectations are confronted with reality. Discrepancies can arise, which can create conflicts and leave newcomers with a sense of shock or surprise but can also initiate learning processes. Adjustment, as the third stage, addresses the challenges inherent in the new reality and the integration into the organization through the creation of interpersonal networks or changes in self-image, as well as the participation in activities originating from the organization or colleagues, which are intended to promote newcomer adaptation. The goal of this phase is to create a sense of mutual commitment. Finally, stabilization describes the termination of the newcomer socialization process and the full transition from being an organizational outsider to being an organizational insider. Signals or actions such as lower stress, expiration of a mentoring program, integration into a group or a promotion serve as indicators for a completed newcomer socialization process. Additionally, it should be stated that consensus on the individual stages is almost only given in the first stages (i.e., anticipation and encounter), where the transitions and demarcations are more apparent, whereas in the later stages (i.e., adjustment and especially stabilization) the transitions are more subtle and gradual. Even if there is a certain degree of disagreement about the individual phases of the socialization process, all models contribute to a deeper understanding of the individual phases of socialization.

As already described, newcomer socialization is an interactive process between the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and the individual (Ashford & Black, 1996) with the understanding and integration of newcomers being a key factor. A newcomers' understanding and integration includes gathering information about their new role and the organization, and establishing relationships with their coworkers, which leads to various positive organizational outcomes such as higher or increased job performance, wellbeing, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance and reduced intentions to leave (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2020). However, there is a plethora of different scales attempting to assess the degree of organizational socialization while no consensus has been found on the central components of successful organizational socialization. Recently, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2020) identified three domains that capture the core content of organizational socialization. The first domain reflects the importance for newcomers to understand their role within the organization including their job responsibilities and what is considered as adequate performance. Secondly, becoming socially integrated (i.e., establishing effective and satisfying relationships with colleagues) is represented within the relationship domain. Lastly, newcomers will learn about the formal (i.e., values, history and structure of the organization) and informal (i.e., typical acronyms that

are used or knowledge about the most influential members of the organization) aspects of their organization which is considered in the organization domain. These three domains are based on evidence in past research and previous measures (Cooper-Thomas et al. 2020). The Newcomer Understanding and Integration Scale (Cooper-Thomas et al. 2020) combines all three domains in a clear and robust revised measure that will be further introduced in the method section. To sum up, the organizational socialization of newcomers is considered as a key aspect and decisive component in the retention of newcomers because upon organization entry the learning and adjustment challenges are most salient to newcomers (Jones, 1983; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Considering the theoretical framework presented so far, I assume the following:

Hypothesis 3 (H3). Newcomers that report higher scores of organizational socialization have lower turnover intentions than newcomers with lower scores of organizational socialization.

Hypothesis 4 (H4). For newcomers, organizational socialization and job satisfaction are positively correlated.

2.4 Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is fairly novel as a subject in scientific research but has emerged as an important construct in understanding organizational behavior besides the organizational outcomes previously presented (e.g., job satisfaction or turnover; Worley et al., 2009). POS describes the particular beliefs of employees towards the organization and their perception that the "organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). Based on this perception, positive employee attitudes are formed which are the motivational basis for favorable behaviors of employees within the organization, such as organizational commitment or making an extra effort in performing required duties (e.g., Levinson, 1965; March & Simon, 1958). The recognition and valuation of employee's contribution can involve tangible resources such as monetary rewards and job promotion as well as other forms of compensation and benefits (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965; Wayne et al., 1997). In terms of expectations, the concept of POS implies the perception that an employee's extra effort towards organizational goals is recognized and rewarded by the organization (Caesens et al., 2019). In addition, employees assume that the organization is concerned about their socio-emotional well-being

(e.g., allowing parental part-time). Eisenberger et al. (1986) suggest that POS draws on the same attributional processes that can be observed in interpersonal relationships.

To shed further light on the construct of POS, the concepts of social exchange (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) serve as theoretical framework in order to describe the psychological processes involved and explain why employees maintain loyalty to an organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). According to Settoon et al. (1996), high-quality exchange relationships may be established by positive and beneficial actions directed at employees by the organization and/or its representatives, which in consequence "create obligations for employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways" (p. 219) and help the organization to reach its goals. A pre-requisite for POS to occur is the individual's confidence that the organization will fulfill its exchange obligations (e.g., rewarding high performance, Settoon et al., 1996).

In detail, individuals being the target of positive actions creates a sense of indebtedness that is highly aversive and elicits a reduction of the indebtedness through reciprocity (Greenberg, 1980). Consequently, individuals select a form of reciprocity that makes this particular behavior salient to the exchange partner (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Research suggests that the target of reciprocity efforts tends to be the source of the benefits that have been obtained (McNeely & Meglino, 1994). According to Greenberg & Westcott (1983), the feeling of indebtedness can only be reduced if the donor benefits from the recipient's efforts. A high level of experienced organizational support creates an obligation on individuals to repay the received benefits (Settoon et al., 1996). In order to return the favorable actions by the organization, employees draw on a range of possible attitudes and behaviors, including increased focus on their job tasks or contributing ideas and recommendations that can help the organization to achieve improved performance and meet its defined goals (Caesens et al., 2019). Settoon et al. (1996) suggest that the feeling of indebtedness keeps an employee in the organization until the debt is repaid.

Prior studies demonstrated that POS is a key factor in creating a positive environment by fulfilling employee's socio-emotional needs, which ultimately leads to favorable attitudes and behaviors toward the organization and greater subjective well-being (Caesens et al., 2019; Kurtessis et al., 2017). Furthermore, POS is associated with a multitude of positive organizational outcomes such as an increased job satisfaction (e.g., Caesens & Stinglhamber, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 1997), better job performance (e.g., Chen et al., 2009; Shoss et al.,

2013), less stress at work (W. S. Shaw et al., 2013) or decreased turnover intentions (e.g., Kurtessis et al., 2017).

2.5 Perceived Supervisor Support

Equivalent to the belief that the organization values employees' contributions and cares about their well-being, employees believe that their supervisors (i.e., member of the organization responsible for directing, coaching and evaluating subordinates) care about them in the same way (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). As perceived by employees, supervisors act as agents of the organization, meaning that any positive or negative actions directed towards them may be seen as a proxy for organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). In addition, the supervisor's evaluation of subordinates is forwarded to the upper management and influences their perceptions of subordinates, illustrating the relationship between POS and perceived supervisor support (PSS; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Both PSS and POS increase employees' affective commitment (i.e., identification and emotional attachment; Clugston et al., 2000) to their supervisor and to their organization, respectively (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). The quality of this exchange relationship (i.e., whether it is positive or negative), subsequently has a positive or negative influence on employee turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997). From the employee's perspective, the extent of the supervisor's identification with the organization influences the strength of the relationship between POS and PSS (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Supervisors who are highly respected and valued by the organization strongly reflect the character and values of the organization in the employees' perception (Eisenberger et al., 2002). This perception of the supervisor's status has a strong influence on POS and leads employees to believe that supervisor support is nearly equivalent to organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Although POS and PSS are highly correlated, they are still two non-redundant constructs (Hutchison, 1997b; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988) because employees typically have an exchange relationship with their supervisor as well as with the organization as a whole (Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). Scientific research classifies supervisors as agents of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986), yet employees can develop exchange relationships with their supervisors that are distinct from those with the organization (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003).

A number of studies suggest a positive relationship between POS and PSS (e.g., Hutchison, 1997a, 1997b; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Rhoades et al., 2001; Yoon & Thye, 2000), but there is still a research gap regarding the direction of causality and the underlying

mechanisms that influence the POS-PSS relationship (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). While most researchers provide evidence that PSS leads to an increase in POS (e.g., Rhoades et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 1996), some indicate that POS leads to an increase in PSS (e.g., Yoon & Thye, 2000). In assumption of POS preceding PSS, employees assume that the supervisor, acting as representative of the organization, directs the favorable or unfavorable actions towards them on behalf of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

While there is evidence supporting a negative correlation between PSS, POS and withdrawal behavior, the relationship has not been studied sufficiently yet (Eisenberger et al., 2002). According to Eisenberger et al. (2002), PSS leads to higher POS and thus to a reduction in voluntary turnover. The authors suggest that PSS influences POS due to a stronger affective organizational commitment which in turn leads to less withdrawal behavior and turnover (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001; Rhoades et al., 2001). However, Malatesta (as cited in Eisenberger et al., 2002) draws on reciprocity theory to argue that PSS increases obligations to the supervisor and subsequently to the organization. In contrast, less organizational as well as less supervisor support is generally perceived as a negative situation by the employee. The employee tries to circumvent the negative implications by either trying to switch to another supervisor or at least minimize the contact with the supervisor by focusing on his or her job responsibilities. Malatesta (as cited in Eisenberger et al., 2002) assumes that POS fully mediates the negative relationship between PSS and voluntary turnover.

To sum up, one aim of this master's thesis is to answer the research question which mechanism is responsible for the negative correlations between POS, PSS and voluntary turnover. For this purpose, a longitudinal study was chosen to investigate this research question. According to Finkel (1995), the change in a variable between two times of measurement can make an approximate causality assessment compared to simultaneously measured variables. Finally, research on the interaction between POS, PSS, voluntary turnover, and newcomers is scarce and this study intends to contribute to the current state of research with testing the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5a (H5a). Higher values of POS lead to a decrease in turnover intentions of newcomers with PSS mediating this relationship.

Hypothesis 5b (H5b). Higher values of PSS lead to a decrease in turnover intentions of newcomers with POS mediating this relationship.

Hypothesis 6a (H6a). Higher values of POS lead to an increase in job satisfaction of newcomers with PSS mediating this relationship.

Hypothesis 6b (H6b). Higher values of PSS lead to an increase in job satisfaction of newcomers with POS mediating this relationship.

2.6 Job-Related Stress

In today's fast-paced world of work, stress has become an inherent component. As a result, job-related stress is receiving more research attention (Dunham, 2000) and is a key issue for organizations and HR departments (Avey et al., 2009). There is a multitude of stress models that examine the origin of stress. The main distinctions are between stimulus-oriented (Oesterreich & Volpert, 1998), reaction-oriented (Selye, 1981), and cognitive stress models (e.g., transactional stress model; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the latter describing the complex and dynamic interaction and transaction processes between the demands of the situation and the acting individual (Nerdinger, 2019). According to the transactional model, stress occurs when the individual fears or perceives that he or she will not be able to cope with the situational demands due to insufficient resources (e.g., not having enough time for training) or insufficient or ineffective coping strategies (e.g., lack of a systematic approach to learning new tasks; Nerdinger, 2019). Stress is a subjectively unpleasant state of tension that arises from the anxiety of a strongly aversive situation which is close in time (or has already occurred; Nerdinger, 2019). By definition, stress also lasts for a long time and is very unlikely to be completely controllable, but the avoidance of stress seems subjectively important. Stress can also be perceived positively (i.e., eustress), but the focus in this thesis lies on the negative interpretation (i.e., distress) which is why distress and stress are used synonymously (Mohr & Semmer, 2002; Selye, 1981).

Specifically related to the work environment, role stress, lack of control and lack of social support act as stressors (i.e., factors that are more likely to induce stress) and have a negative effect on employees' health and organizational outcomes (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Cooper & Marschall (1976) identified additional sources of stress in their model of work-related stress, such as negative relationships with superiors or coworkers and low autonomy. If employees are exposed to high levels of stress within their work environment over a long period of time, it negatively affects their health, motivation and performance (Arshadi & Damiri, 2013).

In summary, a systematic mismatch between job demands (e.g., work overload) and job resources (e.g., insufficient control over the resources needed to perform effectively) leads to job-related stress and subsequently to increased job dissatisfaction, lower performance and ultimately higher turnover intention (Applebaum et al., 2010; Demerouti et al., 2001; Na et al., 2018). Thereby, the higher the stress an employee is exposed to, the higher the employee's motivation to leave the organization (Applebaum et al., 2010; M.-F. Chen et al., 2011). However, the factors inducing high levels of job stress are largely found in the organizational environment which can be influenced directly by the organization (McCreary & Thompson, 2006).

For newcomers in particular, the average stress levels are higher than for employees with longer tenure, or in other words, newcomer adjustment is generally a highly stressful process (Katz, 1985) and can be troublesome for newcomers (Harris & DeSimone, 1994). Organizational entry is often perceived as a shock by newcomers who may have built up unrealistic expectations that do not match organizational reality (Wanous, 1992). Furthermore, newcomers are exposed to a high degree of uncertainty and experience great uncertainty about their ability to meet organizational demands (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Wanous & Reichers, 2000). Therefore, newcomers attempt to reduce the ambiguity related to their organizational role to counteract the stress resulting from the high degrees of uncertainty.

Further explanation for the stressful period of newcomer socialization is offered by the theory of role dynamics (Kahn et al., 1964). Specifically, individuals have different roles within the organization, and the behavior in the different roles stems from a combination of interactions and pressure within the organization and groups (Wooten et al., 2010). The individual characteristics of the group and the organization influence individual behavior, as well as physical and mental health (Kahn et al., 1964). Role conflict occurs when individuals encounter vague, contradictory, or unpredictable expectations in their roles (i.e., role ambiguity) which in turn leads to role pressure (Brief & Aldag, 1976; Kahn et al., 1964; Schuler, 1982). The extent of intra-organizational role conflict varies by individual work roles and personal characteristics (Schuler, 1982). Role conflict is frequently a source of stress but it may also have a negative impact on job performance or attitudes toward the job (Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006).

Additionally, expectations have been found to be of great importance in the context of newcomer socialization and stress theory (Major et al., 1995; Saks, 1994; Wanous, 1992). It

became evident that the underestimation of job stressors results in poorer newcomer adjustment than the overestimation of job stressors (Nelson & Sutton, 1990). Taking a more pessimistic approach was beneficial (i.e., overestimation of job stressors), as newcomers reported fewer stress symptoms, higher job satisfaction, and greater job involvement (Nelson & Sutton, 1990). But if expectations match reality (e.g., through role clarity or acceptance by the organization), the consonance will result in a positive relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and an intention to stay (Major et al., 1995).

Stress levels peak at organizational entry and then decline gradually over organizational tenure (Nelson et al., 1988) or with increasing experience (Wanous, 1992). Presumably, the reasons stem from the features of the environment, such as a gradual reduction in uncertainty and the availability of additional resources (e.g., support from the organization, supervisor, or colleagues; Nerdinger, 2019). Based on this theoretical framework, I formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7 (H7). For newcomers, job-related stress decreases with increasing organizational tenure.

Hypothesis 8a (H8a). Higher levels of POS result in lower levels of stress for newcomers.

Hypothesis 8b (H8b). Higher levels of PSS result in lower levels of stress for newcomers.

Hypothesis 9 (H9). High levels of stress increase the intention to leave for newcomers.

3 Method

3.1 Procedure and Sample

For this longitudinal study, all newly hired employees of a global technical company based in Vienna with almost 7000 employees worldwide were approached. All employees who had been with the company for 15 months or less at the time of the study have been included. A list of the eligible participants was provided by the organization's specialist for global HR master data under maintenance of confidentiality. An invitation to participate in the study, including a link to an online questionnaire, was sent out to the corporate e-mail address of all eligible employees. Only employees from white-collar departments were considered, as employees from blue-collar departments were generally not assigned a corporate e-mail

address and therefore, were very difficult to contact. To increase the participation rate, the Head of the Development & Training Department was asked to send out the invitation to the study and the reminder e-mails. For reasons of comparability, the questionnaire was sent out in English only. A copy of this e-mail is attached in Appendix E.

There was a total of two data collection times. The start of the first survey (t1) was on October 23, 2019 and start of the second time of measurement (t2) was approximately three months later on February 4, 2020. The first time of measurement lasted until December 5, 2019 to give the employees sufficient time to participate and to give me sufficient opportunities to inform the employees about the study. A total of three reminder e-mails were sent out at t1. The first on November 5, 2019, the second on November 13, 2019, and the third on November 20, 2019. The second time of measurement ran for less than a month from February 4, 2020 until February 21, 2020. During t2, only two reminders were sent out as many of the participants were already well informed about the study procedure. The first reminder for participation was sent out on February 10, 2020 and the second reminder was sent out on February 18, 2020.

The questionnaire was specifically designed for this study and included already validated scales to measure the different variables which were presented in chapter 2. The individual scales are presented in chapter 3.2 in more detail. The online questionnaire was created with the online application EFSsurvey (Questback, 2019). At the beginning of the online questionnaire, there was an introduction to the study which informed participants about the motivation for the study and was intended to encourage participation. Subsequently, there was a privacy statement and a consent form which had to be confirmed by the participant to continue (i.e., informed consent). The participants were informed that the study would be anonymous and voluntary, and that they had the right to terminate their participation at any time without giving any reason. Additionally, they were informed that the data provided by them would be handled confidentially and that it would be used for scientific analysis only. On the next page, participants were asked to create their own individual participant code. The personal code had to be created consisting of the first three letters of the participant's mother's first name, the day of the participant's birthday, and the first three letters of the participant's father's first name. The participants were given the following example: "If my mother's name was Claudia, my birthday was on May 7, 1991, and my father's name was Alex, then my code would be: cla07ale". By introducing this system, it was possible to assign the participants' different results to each other and simultaneously guaranteeing participants' anonymity because it would not be possible to backtrack these results and relate them directly

to the participants. This was followed by a questionnaire including the different scales and several questions to gather demographic data. Finally, the participants were thanked for their participation and debriefed by informing them about the purpose of the study at t2. The average completion time of the questionnaire was approximately 15 minutes. The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix B.

Initially at t1, the questionnaire was sent out to 256 employees who were hired by the organization between July 1, 2018 and July 30, 2019. At t2, the questionnaire was sent out to all participants at t1 plus all employees who were hired between August 1, 2019 and December 31, 2019. Therefore, the total number of employees contacted at t2 was 325. The response rates of eligible participants were 50% (n = 130) for t1 and 46% (n = 149) for t2 which is only a moderate participation rate. One possible reason for this moderate participation rate is that a major global employee survey took place about a month before the study which may have made some employees less willing to participate in an additional survey. A second reason may have been the somewhat complex procedure for generating the own individual code. Overall, 26% of the participants aborted the survey after opening the link to the questionnaire, with most participants (i.e., 14%) aborting at the code creation page. Furthermore, the questionnaire was designed so that participants had to respond to every item, otherwise it was not possible to continue to the next page in the questionnaire. This also applied to the demographic data, but the participants were given the opportunity to select the option "prefer not to say". Only those questionnaires were used for the evaluation where the participants completed and submitted the questionnaire. Since the study was pseudo-anonymous, no reliable statement on a potential non-response bias can be made. However, the demographic characteristics of the samples do not differ significantly from the internal organizational statistics and therefore, it is assumed that the non-response does not lead to any confounding of the effects (Oppenheim, 1992). The final sample was 279 participants, of which two data sets were excluded due to extreme values.

Respondents had between one and 15 months of organizational tenure, with an average of 7.31 months (SD = 6.18) at t1 for the longitudinal sample. For the cross-sectional samples, respondents had between five and 15 months of organizational tenure with an average of 10.93 months (SD = 2.63) at t1, and respondents had between one and 17 months of organizational tenure with an average of 5.51 months (SD = 4.27) at t2. Respondents were predominantly male both in the longitudinal sample (68%) as well as in the cross-sectional samples (t1: 71%; t2: 63%) with an age range of 23 to 66 years, and an average of 38.26 years (SD = 9.78) in the longitudinal sample at t1. For the cross-sectional samples, the age ranged

from 26 to 60 years with an average of 40.31 years (*SD* = 10.52) at t1, and the age ranged from 20 to 56 years with an average of 34.82 years (*SD* = 9.27) at t2. A detailed overview of the demographic characteristics of the sample at the different times of measurement can be found in Table 1 and an illustration of the newcomers' employment regions can be found in Table 2.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Total Sample by the Different Points of Measurement

Characteristics	t1	t2	All
n			
Total	129	148	277
Longitudinal	91	91	91
Cross-Sectional	38	57	95
Age			
Total	38.83 (9.99)	37.13 (9.70)	37.94 (9.85)
Longitudinal	38.26 (9.78)	38.35 (9.75)	38.30 (9.73)
Cross-Sectional	40.31 (10.52)	34.82 (9.27)	37.16 (10.12)
Proportion male [a]			
Total	.69	.65	.67
Longitudinal	.68	.68	.68
Cross-Sectional	.71	.63	.66
Tenure			
Total	7.31 (3.88)	8.07 (4.24)	7.72 (4.09)
Longitudinal	6.18 (3.51)	9.52 (3.50)	7.85 (3.87)
Cross-Sectional	10.93 (2.63)	5.51 (4.27)	7.43 (4.57)

Note. A small portion of participants did not provide information on certain demographics, so the averages and percentages are based on the valid information provided. For age and tenure, the values represent the mean and the values in parentheses indicate the standard deviation. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.

[a] Despite having three possible responses for gender (1 = *female*; 2 = *male*; 3 = *prefer not to say*; 4 = *prefer to self-describe*), only 1 = *female*, 2 = *male*, and 3 = *prefer not to say* were found as answers.

The basis for further analysis is longitudinal data from participants who participated at both t1 and t2 (i.e., 91 participants). This assignment could be made while maintaining anonymity because the participant's self-created codes at t1 and at t2 matched. In addition, there were two different cross-sectional datasets of 38 participants at t1 and 57 participants at t2. A review of the demographic characteristics showed that, apart from organizational tenure,

there were no significant differences between the longitudinal sample and the two cross-sectional samples. Moreover, the demographic characteristics of all datasets were representative of the organization after comparison with internal organizational statistics. The only exception was the mean age but reasonable considering that new hires tend to be younger employees.

Table 2

Overview of the Respondents Grouped by the Regions of Their Employment

Note. EMEA = Europe, Middle East, and Africa; NAM = North America; LATAM = Latin America; Not specified = respondents who did not provide information regarding the country in which they work. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.

3.1.1 Qualitative Interviews with Leavers

To gain further insight into the various factors that cause newcomers to leave, a few qualitative interviews were conducted with newcomers who voluntarily decided to leave the organization shortly after joining. The selection criteria for eligible employees were the same as for the quantitative study described above. I was informed by the respective HR department when a newcomer announced his or her resignation, then I contacted him or her, and attempted to arrange a qualitative interview with him or her. The response rate was relatively low, resulting in only five employees agreeing to participate in a qualitative interview.

Moreover, only one participant agreed that the conversation may be recorded. Prior to the qualitative interview, participants were asked if they would agree to the interview being recorded and sign a consent form. Four of the five interviewees did not agree to the interview being recorded. Therefore, four out of five interviews involved three subjects: An interviewer, an interviewee, and another intern from the global HR team who protocolled the qualitative interview as precisely as possible. The interviewees were asked to speak at a moderate pace to minimize leakage of information. The qualitative interviews were conducted using the video chat software BlueJeans (Blue Jeans Network Inc., 2019) which is commonly used within the company and every employee has access to it. One interview was audio-recorded after obtaining informed consent in advance, and the qualitative interview was conducted between interviewer and interviewee. Immediately following the qualitative interviews, the interview transcript or audio recording was transcribed and supplemented from recollections as necessary to ensure comprehensibility. The duration of the interviews ranged from 24 to 42 minutes. The aim of these exploratory interviews was to find out more about the reasons for the resignations, especially those reasons that were not covered by the questionnaire used as framework for this empirical study. Ideally, there is an audio recording of all five interviews. But for this exploratory research question, the focus lies on the reasons for resigning given by the interviewees, so verbatim transcription is not essential. An exemplary interview in full length can be found in Appendix D.

3.1.2 Evaluation of the Qualitative Interviews

After the interviews were fully transcribed, the five interviews were analyzed based on a qualitative content analysis according to Mayring (2000). First, a reduction of the material's complexity was intended by developing categories. For that matter, an inductive approach was chosen which means that the categories were not formed prior to reviewing the material but were derived directly from the material. The objective was to minimize the text elements and simultaneously maintaining the basic form of the material. Mayring (2000) refers to this approach as summarizing content analysis. Regarding the research question, a summarizing content analysis was most suitable as only the content level of the material (i.e., reasons for leaving the organization) was relevant.

In the summarizing content analysis according to Mayring (2000), only the content-bearing components were retained and rhetorical "flourish" was removed. Specifically, all the reasons given for leaving the organization formed a separate category. Applicable statements were assigned to this new category (i.e., coded). If any statements in the data material did not

fit the previously formed categories, a new category was formed. This procedure was applied to the complete data set. After an exhaustive set of categories had been formed, the set of categories was verified by a second review of the material. A detailed overview of the derived categories can be found in chapter 4.5.

3.2 Measures

3.2.1 Perceived Organizational Support

The perceived support of employees by the organization was measured using the *Survey of Perceived Organizational Support* (SPOS) by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The original scale includes 36 items, but for practical reasons the 8-item scale was used. This 8-item scale is based on the recommendation of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) that "because the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of shorter versions does not appear problematic. Prudence nevertheless dictates that both facets of the definition of POS (valuation of employees' contribution and care about employees' well-being) be represented in short versions of the questionnaire" (p.699). The extent to which the organization values the employees' contribution and cares about the employees' well-being were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *I strongly disagree* to 7 = *I strongly agree.* An example item is: "[Name of the organization] really cares about my wellbeing." At the request of the organization where the study was conducted, the term organization was replaced by the name of the organization which has been removed here for reasons of confidentiality. An average value was calculated from the eight items. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) have reviewed more than 70 independent studies examining POS in various industries and testing for different study characteristics, including internal consistency. The internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) for studies using the 8-item version ranged from $\alpha = .89$ to $\alpha = .94$. In the present study, the internal consistency reliability was excellent with $\alpha = .90$.

3.2.2 Perceived Supervisor Support

In order to assess the degree of perceived support employees receive from their supervisor, the same items as in the SPOS were used but have been adapted in the same manner as previous studies measuring PSS (Hutchison, 1997a, 1997b; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Rhoades et al., 2001). Accordingly, the scale also comprised eight items and the only change was the replacement of the word organization (or particularly in this study the name of

the organization) by the term supervisor. The extent to which the supervisor values the employees' contribution and cares about the employees' well-being was assessed on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *I strongly disagree* to 7 = *I strongly agree.* An example item for the adapted version of the SPOS is: "The supervisor really cares about my wellbeing." The order of the individual items was randomized to eliminate a potential order bias. In the present study, the internal consistency reliability was excellent with $\alpha = .92$.

3.2.3 Organizational Socialization

The Newcomer Understanding and Integration Scale (NUIS; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2020) was used to measure the extent of organizational socialization of newcomers. The scale was established based on critique of previous measures of newcomer socialization content. The evidence regarding factor analysis and internal reliability (i.e., Cronbach's alpha between .80 and .91) supports the robustness of the NUIS (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2020). The scale consists of three subscales covering the relationship domain, the role domain, and the organization domain. Each of the three subscales comprises five items and participants were asked to respond to the measure on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *I strongly disagree* to 7 = *I strongly agree*. An example item for the relationship domain is: "Other employees have helped me on the job in various ways". An example item for the role domain is: "I understand what all the duties of my job entail". An example item for the organization domain is: "I am familiar with the unwritten rules of how things are done at [name of the organization]". The order of the individual items was randomized to eliminate a potential order bias. In the present study, the reliability of the relationship domain was found to be good with $\alpha = .85$, the reliability of the role domain was found to be excellent with $\alpha = .90$, and the reliability of the organizational domain was found to be good with $\alpha = .86$ also underlining the robustness of the NUIS.

3.2.4 Job-Related Tension

This variable was assessed by using the Job-Related Tension Index (JRTI) based on the theory of role dynamics (Kahn et al., 1964). This measure was chosen because it is a comparatively short scale and is an established and robust measure with high reliability (Wooten et al., 2010). Studies using the JRTI reported Cronbach's alphas ranging from .80 to .92 (Abush & Burkhead, 1984; Brookings et al., 1985; Lau & Tan, 2006; Rogers et al., 1994; Wooten et al., 2010). The JRTI is composed of 15 items asking respondents to indicate how frequently they were bothered by job-related factors on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1

= n*ever bothered* to 5 = *bothered nearly all the time* and 6 = *does not apply*. A mean value was calculated including all responses, excluding 6 = *does not apply*, and only with more than two responses between 1 = n*ever bothered* to 5 = *bothered nearly all the time*. If only one or zero responses between 1 = n*ever bothered* to 5 = *bothered nearly all the time* were given, no average score was calculated for the JRTI and it was defined as missing value. This was given for four respondents at t1 and for five respondents at t2. A higher score indicates greater job-related stress. An example item is: "Not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for you". The order of the individual items was randomized to eliminate a potential order bias. In the present study, an excellent Cronbach's alpha of .93 was found for this measure.

3.2.5 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by using the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale (MOAQ-JSS; Cammann et al., 1983). The MOAQ-JSS has several advantages compared to other established job satisfaction scales (Bowling & Hammond, 2008). First, the MOAQ-JSS consists of only three items, making it very practical in use. Second, it is a face-valid measure assessing the affective component of job satisfaction. Third, in a large meta-study conducted by Bowling & Hammond (2008), the MOAQ-JSS yielded acceptable levels of reliability with an internal consistency reliability of α = .84. Participants had to indicate on a 7-point Likert scale the extent to which they agreed with the statements from 1 = *I strongly disagree* to 7 = *I strongly agree.* A mean of the three values was calculated and a higher score indicating greater job satisfaction. An example item is: "All in all, I am satisfied with my job". The order of the individual items was randomized to eliminate a potential order bias. In the present study, the internal consistency was excellent with a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

3.2.6 Turnover Intention

Turnover intentions of newcomers were assessed by using the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS; Roodt, 2004). The original scale includes 15 items but in research on turnover intentions, different version of the TIS have been used ranging from six to 15 items. The lack of a consistent scale hinders the comparability of the reliabilities but according to Bothma & Roodt (2013), the TIS-6 (i.e., the TIS with six items) validly and reliably assesses turnover intentions or predicts actual turnover with an internal consistency reliability of α = 0.80. For this study, an 8-item version was used. This 8-item version adapted the TIS-6 version by

Bothma & Roodt (2013) and two additional items from the original 15-item scale (Roodt, 2004). These two additional items were chosen because they reflect important aspects in the formation of turnover intentions as it has been derived in chapter 2.2. The first additional item added to the TIS-6 is: "How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?". The second additional item is: "To what extent do the benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job?". Participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale indicating how often they had done this recently, to what extent, or how likely it would be. Therefore, the response alternatives varied from 1 = *always* to 5 = *never*, from 1 = *to no extent* to 5 = *to a very large extent*, and from 1 = *highly unlikely* to 5 = *highly likely*. The order of the individual items was randomized to eliminate a potential order bias. Statistical analyses demonstrated a good internal consistency reliability with α = .82.

3.2.7 Control Variables

In the present study, variables which potentially can influence job satisfaction or the intention to leave have been controlled for. Specifically, gender, age, organizational tenure, and the respective regions of newcomers' employment have been assessed. Upon on request of the organization, a possible response option for every control variable was *prefer not to say*. Apart from that, age and organizational tenure were assessed as continuous variables and gender as a nominal scaled variable (1 = *female*; 2 = *male*; 3 = *prefer not to say*; 4 = *prefer to self-describe*). The respective country where the employees work was assessed by a self-statement which later was assigned to one of four regions with subsidiaries of the organization (1 = *Europe, Middle East, and Africa (EMEA)*; 2 = *Asia*; 3 = *North America (NAM)*; 4 = *Latin America (LATAM).*

3.2.8 Recoding of Variables

In total, three items of the SPOS, three items of the SPOS, one item of the MOAQ-JSS, and one item of the TIS were reverse coded and were therefore recoded prior to further analysis. As already mentioned, the respondents were asked to indicate the country in which they work. Subsequently, this information was manually assigned to one of four regions (i.e., EMEA, NAM, LATAM, and Asia).

4 Results

4.1 Statistical Analyses

Descriptive statistics and correlations were estimated using IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 23), as well as for the paired-samples *t*-test. The intercorrelations of the respective variables were tested for one-tailed significance as the directions of the respective correlations were derived from the literature.

As shown in Table 3 and Table 4, all variables correlated strongly with each other except for job-related tension and all intercorrelations showed very high levels of significance. The correlations with job-related tension showed only a moderate correlation but also at very high significance levels. The related hypotheses could all be confirmed (*H2, H3, H4, H8a, H8b, H9*).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations between Study Variables at t1

Variable	n	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. POS	129	5.34	1.13	—					
2. PSS	129	5.88	1.06	.62***	—				
3. Newcomer socialization	129	5.58	0.85	.60***	.50***	—			
4. Job-related tension	125[a]	2.40	0.81	−.45***	−.42***	−.46***	—		
5. Job satisfaction	129	6.11	1.11	.64***	.60***	.61***	−.34***	—	
6. Turnover intention	129	2.32	0.78	−.70***	−.60***	−.57***	.45***	−.78***	—

Note. ***$p < .001$. POS = perceived organizational support; PSS = perceived supervisor support; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

[a] If the participant answered "Does not apply" to more than 13 out of 15 items, no mean was calculated and thus there were four missing values.

For mediation analysis of the longitudinal sample, I used a path analysis which is a type of structural equation modeling (SEM) estimating parameters of simultaneous linear relationships among a set of observed variables (Kline, 2016). The longitudinal data was translated into a cross-lagged model and the path analysis was performed using StataSE (Version 16; StataCorp, 2019) examining the underlying processes of reciprocal causality among POS, PSS and job satisfaction (Napper et al., 2014; Pearl, 2000).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations between Study Variables at t2

Variable	n	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. POS	148	5.24	1.16	—					
2. PSS	148	5.75	1.10	.66***	—				
3. Newcomer socialization	148	5.67	0.87	.67***	.57***	—			
4. Job-related tension	143[a]	2.39	0.90	−.31***	−.30***	−.36***	—		
5. Job satisfaction	148	6.09	1.06	.65***	.57***	.64***	−.28**	—	
6. Turnover intention	148	2.27	0.71	−.64***	−.44***	−.64***	.34***	−.73***	—

Note. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. POS = perceived organizational support; PSS = perceived supervisor support; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

[a] If the participant answered "Does not apply" to more than 13 out of 15 items, no mean was calculated and thus there were five missing values.

According to Shadish et al. (2002), cross-lagged models contain three types of relations. First, autoregression, which assumes that the value of a variable at a previous measurement occasion is reliably predicting the value at subsequent measurement occasions (e.g., POS at t1 to POS at t2), while statistically controlling for all other lagged antecedents (Napper et al., 2014). Second, non-directional associations (i.e., synchronous correlations) between two different constructs assessed at the same measurement occasion (e.g., POS at t1 and PSS at t1). Third, cross-lagged paths of two conceptually different constructs, which were measured at different times of measurement (e.g., POS at t1 and job satisfaction at t2), are essential for testing for a mediation effect. An analysis of these paths allows a conclusion about a causal relationship of the constructs after controlling for the temporal development of the respective constructs. Additionally, the relationship of all variables involved in the mediation analysis was approximately linear, as assessed by visual inspection of the scatterplots after LOESS smoothing.

4.2 Assessing the Influence of Control Variables

After examining the correlations with the demographic variables, the measured variables of the samples at t1 and t2 showed several significant effects. Participants' age correlated significantly with POS at t1 ($r = .21$, $p = .03$). Additionally, participants' age significantly correlated with job-related tension at t1 ($r = -.25$, $p = .01$), as well as at t2 ($r = -$
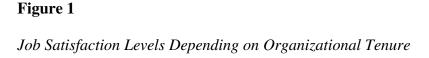
.21, $p = .03$). For tenure, only a significant correlation with POS at t1 could been obtained ($r = -.20$, $p = .03$). For participants' sex or their region of employment, no significant correlations with the observed variables were found. In conclusion, none of the control variables influenced the relevant variables at both times of measurement. Therefore, the relationships between the individual variables in the mediation model were not significantly influenced which is why the control variables were not included in the mediation analysis.
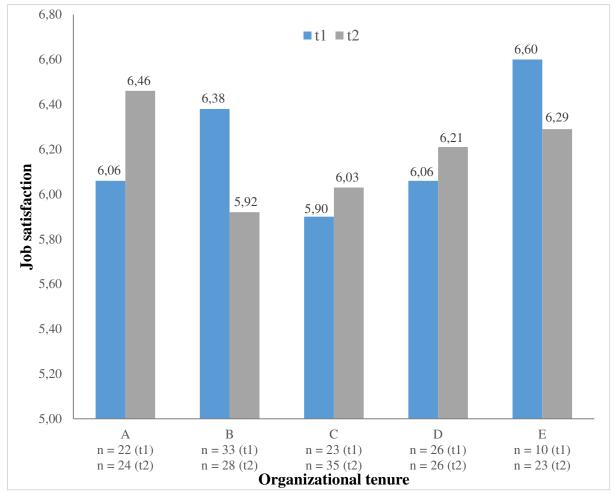
4.3 Pattern of Job Satisfaction Depending on Organizational Tenure

In the analysis of the two cross-sectional samples regarding job satisfaction, two different patterns of newcomer job satisfaction emerged. At t1, job satisfaction was lower in the first three months ($M = 6.06$; $SD = 1.41$) than at t2 ($M = 6.46$; $SD = 0.46$) but increased afterwards for employees with tenure between four and six months ($M = 6.38$; $SD = 0.75$). Following at t1, job satisfaction decreased after seven to nine months of tenure ($M = 5.90$; $SD = 1.23$) but subsequently increased continuously to a maximum value after thirteen months of tenure ($M = 6.60$; $SD = 0.73$). In contrast, job satisfaction in t2 dropped from an initial high to a low ($M = 5.92$; $SD = 1.23$) but then increased continuously until reaching a tenure of 13 months or more ($M = 6.29$; $SD = 0.77$). The graphical illustration of the pattern of job satisfaction depending on organizational tenure is shown in Figure 1.

4.4 Analysis of the Relationship between POS, PSS, Turnover Intention and Job Satisfaction

The overall fit of the four estimated models was evaluated based on various fit indices. First, a non-significant chi-square ($\chi 2$) test indicates that the model approximates the underlying data and therefore should not be rejected (Bollen, 1989). Second, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) with possible values ranging from 0.00 to 1.00 and higher values indicates a better fit of the estimated model (Ullman & Bentler, 2003). Third, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) indicates that a model is sufficiently specified if the value of the SRMR is below .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Based on the satisfactory model fit indices and the maximum-likelihood equation, the individual paths of the two models were examined.

Figure 1

Job Satisfaction Levels Depending on Organizational Tenure

Note. A = 1 to 3 months of tenure; B = 4 to 6 months of tenure; C = 7 to 9 months of tenure; D = 10 to 12 months of tenure; E = 13 or more months of tenure; t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement. Number of participants with information that has not been specified: n = 12 at t1 and n = 15 at t2.

The cross-lagged model for the influence of POS on turnover intention revealed strong fit indices, $\chi 2 = 7.54$, df = 3, $p = .06$, CFI = .99, SRMR = .04. Detailed results can be found in Figure 2. After controlling for all other variables, only turnover intention at t1 significantly predicted turnover intention at t2 ($\beta = .83$, $p < .001$). Except for POS at t1 significantly predicting PSS at t2 ($\beta = .23$, $p = .04$), none of the other cross-lagged paths were significant. Therefore, a mediation of the relationship between POS and turnover intention via PSS could not be confirmed and thus, hypothesis *H5a* was rejected.
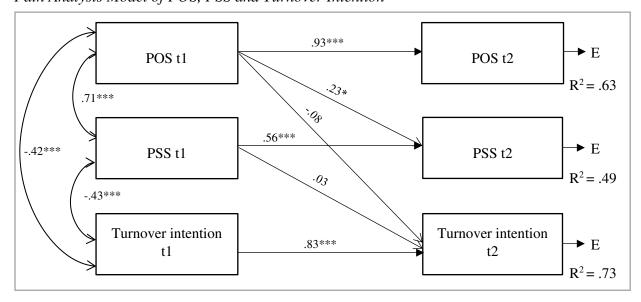
The cross-lagged model for the influence of PSS on turnover intention revealed strong fit indices, $\chi 2 = 6.95$, df = 3, $p = .07$, CFI = .99, SRMR = .03 and can be found in Figure 3.

After controlling for all other variables, only turnover intention at t1 significantly predicted turnover intention at t2 ($\beta = .83$, $p < .001$). Except for PSS at t1 significantly predicting POS at t2 ($\beta = .21$, $p = .02$), none of the other cross-lagged paths were significant. Therefore, a mediation of the relationship between PSS and turnover intention via POS could not be confirmed and thus, hypothesis *H5b* was rejected.

Figure 2

Path Analysis Model of POS, PSS and Turnover Intention

Note. $^*p < .05$. $^{***}p < .001$. The path analysis shows associations between perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), and turnover intention. Coefficients presented are standardized linear regression coefficients. Bidirectional arrows represent correlations between two constructs. Directional arrows show predictive relations in the direction of the arrow. E = error associated with the prediction model. Error correlations have been omitted due to clarity. R^2 = total variance explained on the outcome. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.
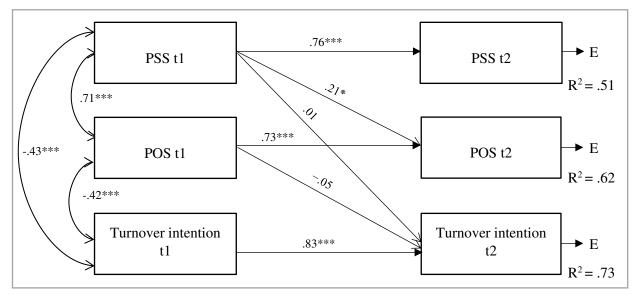
Figure 3

Path Analysis Model of PSS, POS and Turnover Intention

Note. $^{*}p < .05.$ $^{***}p < .001.$ The path analysis shows associations between perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), and turnover intention. Coefficients presented are standardized linear regression coefficients. Bidirectional arrows represent correlations between two constructs. Directional arrows show predictive relations in the direction of the arrow. E = error associated with the prediction model. Error correlations have been omitted due to clarity. R^2 = total variance explained on the outcome. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.

The cross-lagged model for the influence of POS on job satisfaction that can be found in Figure 4, revealed strong fit indices, $\chi2 = 7.43$, df = 3, $p = .06$, CFI = .99, SRMR = .03. After controlling for all other variables, only job satisfaction at t1 significantly predicted job satisfaction at t2 ($\beta = .66$, $p < .001$). Except for POS at t1 significantly predicting PSS at t2 ($\beta = .23$, $p = .04$), none of the other cross-lagged paths were significant. Therefore, a mediation of the relationship between POS and job satisfaction via PSS could not be confirmed and thus, hypothesis *H6a* was rejected.

Figure 4

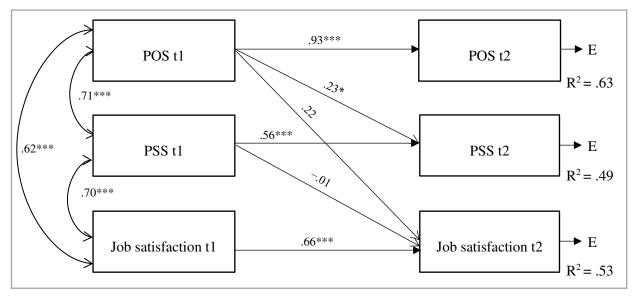*Path Analysis Model of POS, PSS and Job Satisfaction*

Note. $^{*}p < .05.$ $^{***}p < .001.$ The path analysis shows associations between perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), and job satisfaction. Coefficients presented are standardized linear regression coefficients. Bidirectional arrows represent correlations between two constructs. Directional arrows show predictive relations in the direction of the arrow. E = error associated with the prediction model. Error correlations have been omitted due to clarity. R^2 = total variance explained on the outcome. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.

The cross-lagged model for the influence of PSS on job satisfaction that can be found in Figure 5, revealed strong fit indices, $\chi2 = 6.83$, df = 3, $p = .08$, CFI = .99, SRMR = .03. After controlling for all other variables, only job satisfaction at t1 significantly predicted job satisfaction at t2 ($\beta = .66$, $p < .001$). Except for PSS at t1 significantly predicting POS at t2 ($\beta = .21$, $p = .02$), none of the other cross-lagged paths were significant. Therefore, a mediation of the relationship between PSS and job satisfaction via POS could not be confirmed and thus, hypothesis *H6b* was rejected.

Figure 5

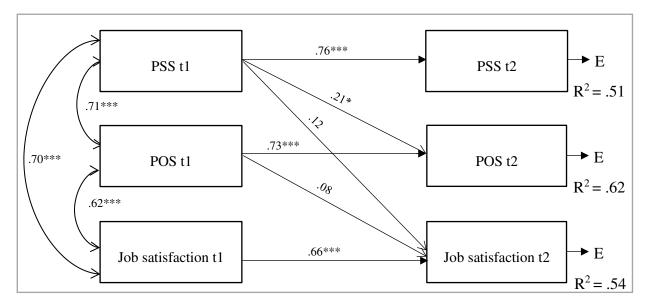*Path Analysis Model of PSS, POS and Job Satisfaction*

Note. $^{*}p < .05.$ $^{***}p < .001.$ The path analysis shows associations between perceived organizational support (POS), perceived supervisor support (PSS), and job satisfaction. Coefficients presented are standardized linear regression coefficients. Bidirectional arrows represent correlations between two constructs. Directional arrows show predictive relations in the direction of the arrow. E = error associated with the prediction model. Error correlations have been omitted due to clarity. R^2 = total variance explained on the outcome. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.

4.5 Analysis of the Temporal Changes in the Respective Variables

Prior to conducting the analysis, the assumptions of the paired-samples *t*-test have been examined. First, all dependent variables (i.e., POS, PSS, organizational socialization, job-related tension, job satisfaction, and turnover intention) are measured on a continuous scale. Second, the independent variables (i.e., t1 and t2) are nominally scaled and the respondents have been measured on both t1 and t2 on the same dependent variables. Third, by visual inspection of the box plots of the differences between t1 and t2, nine outliers have been identified and excluded from further analysis due to extreme values (i.e., values that are more than three times the interquartile range). Fourth, the difference scores of all dependent variables have violated the normal distribution assumption as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test ($p < .01$ for all variables). However, recent studies have demonstrated that regression

models are robust to a violation of the normal distribution (e.g., Lix et al., 1996; Salkind, 2010). In conclusion, all the criteria to perform a paired samples *t*-test have been met.

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the two different times of measurement and to investigate whether a temporal change in the variables occurred. Results indicate that POS is significantly lower at t2 than at t1, $t(90) = -2.44$, $p = .02$, $d = 0.26$, signifying a decrease of POS over time. However, none of the other variables showed a significant difference in the respective scores. Detailed results of the paired-samples *t*-test can be found in Table 5.

Table 5

Results of the Paired-Samples t-*Test (Two-Tailed)*

Difference of the variables	n	*M*	*SD*	Paired samples *t*-test		
				t(df)	*p*	Cohen's *d*
POS t2 – POS t1	91	-0.27	1.05	-2.44(90)	.02*	0.26
PSS t2 – PSS t1	91	-0.08	1.18	-0.62(90)	.54	
OS t2 – OS t1	90[a]	0.08	0.75	0.96(89)	.34	
JRT t2 – JRT t1	81[b]	0.16	0.56	0.25(80)	.81	
JS t2 – JS t1	87[c]	-0.20	0.98	-1.89(86)	.06	
TI t2 – TI t1	91	0.04	0.66	0.64(90)	.53	

Note. *$p < .05$. Effect sizes have only been computed for significant results. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; df = degrees of freedom. POS = perceived organizational support; PSS = perceived supervisor support; OS = organizational socialization; JRT = job-related tension; JS = job satisfaction; TI = turnover intention. t1 = first time of measurement; t2 = second time of measurement.
[a] One outlier has been excluded from further analysis due to extreme values. [b] Four outliers have been excluded from further analysis due to extreme values and six values were missing. [c] Four outliers have been excluded from further analysis due to extreme values.

4.6 Results Derived from the Qualitative Interviews

The focus of the qualitative interviews was to find out why newcomers decided to leave the organization. Basically, all five employees who were interviewed stated different reasons for their resignation. In summary, two main categories emerged: On one hand, a lack of transparency within the company and, on the other hand, external factors that resulted in

the departure of the employees. A detailed list of the specific reasons and exemplary quotes can be found in Table 6.

Table 6

Reasons for Leaving Based on the Conducted Qualitative Interviews

Derived categories	Example quote
Intransparency	
Job misfit	"Another thing would be that the field I am covering right now differs a lot from my field of profession. I want to work more as a psychologist – my actual profession." (Participant A)
Career opportunities	"I did not see any career opportunities for me in [my location] and this is the main reason for leaving." (Participant A)
Different job expectations	"On the other hand, the dimensions were also simply too small for me and did not match my vision." (Participant B)
Insufficient compensation and benefits	"On the one hand the salary, I get 10, 20 or up to 30% more for the same job at other companies, no matter how great the working atmosphere here is. You simply leave as a young person." (Participant B)
External factors	
Alternative job opportunities	"And I have no I have no hard feelings or anything towards [the organization], but it's an opportunity for me and my career and that's why I've chosen to exit." (Participant E)
Gaining more experience	"I think that the reason I'm leaving, it's entirely focused on gaining more experience in my career." (Participant C)

5 Discussion

The central focus of this study was on various organizational factors and their influence on job satisfaction and turnover intentions of newcomers. First, it was assumed that after an initial high in job satisfaction (i.e., honeymoon), job satisfaction of newcomers decreases (i.e., hangover) and gradually rises afterwards (*H1*). Second, job satisfaction (*H2*) and organizational socialization (*H3*) were presumed to be negatively correlated with turnover

intentions. Third, the positive correlation of organizational socialization with job satisfaction was examined (*H4*). Fourth, it was evaluated whether job stress was negatively correlated with organizational tenure (*H7*), POS (*H8a*), and PSS (*H8b*) and positively correlated with turnover intentions (*H9*). Fifth, it was examined whether POS is positively associated with job satisfaction via PSS (*H6a*) and negatively associated with turnover intentions via PSS (*H5a*). Last, it was also examined whether PSS is positively associated with job satisfaction via POS (*H6b*) and negatively associated with turnover intentions via POS (*H5b*). The correlations showed hypothesis-compliant significant results except *H7*, whereas the mediation hypotheses could not be confirmed. Inspection of the approximate illustration of the temporal pattern of job satisfaction reflected the dissensus that can be found in the scientific literature. Following, the results will be discussed in more detail and contextualized within the existing literature. In addition, the practical relevance and implications of the study as well as its limitations will be outlined. Finally, ideas for future studies will be provided and concludes with a summary.

5.1 Patterns of Job Satisfaction

The participants' job satisfaction values at the first (t1) and second (t2) time of measurement were categorized into five groups according to their respective tenure. The purpose of this was to illustrate an approximation of the temporal trend of job satisfaction among newcomers. However, this is only an approximation because there are two main reasons why it was not possible to provide an accurate picture of the pattern of job satisfaction during the first year within the organization. First, due to the limited number of participants, groups of tenure had to be formed, each combining three months of tenure (e.g., group A consists of newcomers with tenure between one and three months). Due to the first 30 to 60 days being critical periods in organizational socialization (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011), potential trends in job satisfaction may have been ignored. Second, the same newcomers were not surveyed over a one-year period, and their levels of job satisfaction were not surveyed at regular intervals. In this case, pre-existing systematic differences in job satisfaction cannot be eliminated which may have resulted in different levels of job satisfaction that may not correctly reflect the variation in job satisfaction over time.

Nevertheless, the two patterns of job satisfaction provide preliminary indications of possible trends. Job satisfaction at t1 was lower than job satisfaction at t2 in the first three months but still relatively high ($M = 6.06$ on a scale with a maximum value of 7). After that, job satisfaction increased for employees with tenure of four to six months, decreased again for employees with tenure of seven to nine months, and subsequently increased gradually. This is

consistent with the findings of previous studies that job satisfaction is not constant but changes over time (Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rhodes, 1983). By illustrating the trend of job satisfaction graphically, a wave pattern emerges which is consistent with the assumption of Boswell et al. (2009). It is unclear how the curve of job satisfaction changes in the following years, but the focus was specifically on newcomers.

The reasons for the wave-like pattern of job satisfaction can only be presumed. In the initial phase, newcomers are primarily confronted with the positive aspects of the job and the organization (Louis, 1980). In addition, newcomers are treated more benevolently during their early days to allow for a smooth transition (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991). Furthermore, in their early days newcomers are often confident of an almost optimal organizational fit (Schneider, 1987).

The decrease in job satisfaction for employees with tenure of seven to nine months may be due to the adjustment and increasing familiarity with all the aspects associated with the job (Boswell et al., 2009). At this point, affective habituation sets in as employees are increasingly exposed to mundane work tasks and routines have been formed (Leventhal et al., 2007). Furthermore, the organization may have failed to meet specific agreements with the newcomers (Robinson et al., 1994; Thomas & Anderson, 1998).

For employees with a tenure of ten months or more, job satisfaction gradually increases thereafter. According to job embeddedness theory, the employee may be forming more interpersonal relationships or gaining more access to resources needed to perform the job successfully (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). In addition, newcomers may have reinterpreted the negative aspects of the job and made them more enjoyable (Dobrow Riza et al., 2018). According to retrospective rationalization, employees may find reasons that justify them staying in the organization after ten months of tenure (London, 1983).

The trend in job satisfaction at t2 is equivalent to the curve at t1 after a tenure of four months. This u-shaped curve of job satisfaction is consistent with the assumption of Son and Ok (2019), indicating that the curve shows an initial short-term decline followed by a continuous and gradual increase. The reasons for the decline of job satisfaction levels are the same as stated for the pattern of the curve at t1. Another possible explanation for the decline soon after organizational entry is that newcomers may have anticipated negative events but undervalued them, leading to disillusionment and an early decline in job satisfaction (Louis, 1980).

Although it was possible to show approximately how quickly job satisfaction changes and to what extent, within the scope of this study it was not possible to identify the reasons and contexts in which these different patterns occur, and still represents a research gap (Son & Ok, 2019).

5.2 Positive and Negative Associations with Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intention

As already mentioned, no single predominant factor is responsible for causing turnover intentions (Mor Barak et al., 2001). Job satisfaction can be a significant factor in the formation of turnover intentions (Pienaar et al., 2007; Tian-Foreman, 2009), but job dissatisfaction does not necessarily lead to turnover intentions (Wheeler et al., 2007). However, the present study revealed a strong negative correlation between job satisfaction and turnover intentions ($r = -.78$ at t1 and $r = -.73$ at t2).

Evidently, the organizational context and the job itself create a climate that makes turnover less likely for newcomers. For example, if intrinsic and extrinsic rewards provided by the organization are congruent with the newcomer's expectations, the newcomer will be less inclined to leave the organization (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991). A meta-analysis by Cotton and Tuttle (1986) refers to job satisfaction as a work-related factor which significantly influences turnover intentions. According to the unfolding model of turnover (Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994), non-work related factors, such as unexpected opportunities (e.g., alternative job opportunities), also result in turnover intentions while ignoring current levels of job satisfaction. However, even if low levels of job satisfaction are not a necessity for the formation of turnover intentions, job satisfaction seems to reliably predict voluntary employee turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010; Pienaar et al., 2007; Tian-Foreman, 2009).

Organizational socialization of new employees is one of the key aspects of successful HR management and effective organizational socialization leads to a variety of positive organizational outcomes such as lower turnover intentions and higher job satisfaction (Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashforth, 1996). The present study demonstrated a strong positive correlation between organizational socialization of newcomers and job satisfaction ($r = .61$ at t1 and $r = .64$ at t2) and a strong negative correlation between organizational socialization of newcomers and turnover intentions ($r = .57$ at t1 and $r = .64$ at t2).

These findings further underline the importance of organizational socialization for organizations. Because effective organizational socialization leads to lower turnover intentions and higher job satisfaction (Morrison, 1993; Saks & Ashforth, 1996), employees

are more likely to be retained even in times of increased mobility on the labor market (Bauer et al., 2007). Moreover, effective organizational socialization results in a more positive long-term cost-benefit ratio of recruiting and training new employees, and reduces disruptions in workflow and lower productivity (J. D. Shaw et al., 2005). Additionally, effective organizational socialization positively influences the employees as they become better trained and more skilled (Batistič, 2018). In particular, the early phases of organizational socialization are crucial because unpleasant aspects of work become salient to the newcomer for the first time which can lead to reality shocks and result in job dissatisfaction and increased turnover intentions (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Weller et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2017). Therefore, it is important to ensure an adequate person-organization fit (Fichman & Levinthal, 1991) and to present the job realistically to avoid illusory expectations from newcomers (Ganzach et al., 2002; Perrot et al., 2014).

The study also contributed to a broader understanding of stress in an organizational context. I was able to demonstrate that job stress was negatively correlated with POS and PSS, and positively correlated with turnover intentions. Contrary to *H7*, no negative correlation has been found between job stress and organizational tenure. According to prior research, job stress for newcomers is by the time of organizational entry at its peak and gradually decreases with longer organizational tenure (Nelson et al., 1988). As the uncertainty associated with the job is progressively reduced and additional resources become available (e.g., support from the organization or colleagues), the job stress is reduced. Therefore, newcomers may be provided with a high level of support by the organization, supervisors, and colleagues from the beginning, maintaining a stable level of stress. However, the question remains how stress levels change after the early phases of organizational socialization. Stress levels may continue to decrease over time as experience increases, or they may increase as a result of greater responsibility (Wanous, 1992).

In line with this reasoning, POS and PSS have been shown to result in lower stress levels. It is not solely the support that newcomers receive from different members of the organization or from the organization itself, but also the minimization of potential role conflicts (Kahn et al., 1964; Örtqvist & Wincent, 2006). Moreover, this organizational support ensures less uncertainty about organizational demands and newcomers' organizational role which may also minimize job-related stress (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Wanous & Reichers, 2000). POS may also be equivalent to emotional support during stressful times, ensuring that stressful times are perceived as less severe (Armeli et al., 1998; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Finally, the findings of the present study suggest that turnover intentions increase with higher levels of job stress. This is consistent with findings from stress research in an organizational context (Applebaum et al., 2010; M.-F. Chen et al., 2011). Accordingly, the more stress newcomers are exposed to, the greater their motivation to leave the organization. Based on the transactional stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), stress occurs if newcomers do not have sufficient resources to cope with situational demands. If newcomers are exposed to such situations over an extended period, the tendency to leave the organization increases and as a result, turnover intentions are formed (Nerdinger, 2019).

5.3 Longitudinal changes in the independent and dependent variables

Analyzing the temporal changes in the variables revealed only one significant change with POS decreasing between the two times of measurement. This may be caused by newcomers' initial experience of high levels of organizational support which decrease with increasing tenure. However, according to the organizational support theory, high-POS employees assume that if they demonstrate high performance and support the organization in reaching its goals and objectives, they will be rewarded accordingly (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Thus, one reason for the decrease of POS could be that the organization does not recognize the increased performance and does not provide adequate rewards (Caesens et al., 2019). Furthermore, newcomers initially receive more support from the organization to form interpersonal relationships (e.g., onboarding events) or access to resources necessary to perform their job (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). Thus, the organizational support decreases with increasing tenure. Yet, the results show that PSS appears to be not affected by temporal changes. Accordingly, the findings suggest that employees experience a constant level of support by their supervisor and increased performance seems to be also rewarded.

Interestingly, organizational socialization does not increase over time. Because effective socialization is defined by a newcomer gathering information about his or her role and the organization, and establishing relationships with colleagues (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2020), I would expect organizational socialization to increase with tenure. If organizational socialization does not increase over time, newcomers may find it very difficult to acquire the required information about their own job or the organization. Furthermore, teams may not be very inclusive. In other words, the existing teams may not be welcoming to newcomers and it may be very difficult for newcomers to integrate and establish relationships in the workplace (Ellis et al., 2015).

Moreover, turnover intention was found to remain stable over time. In case turnover intentions increase, it is highly likely that the respective newcomers will leave the organization rather quickly (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2010). According to the unfolding model of turnover (Lee et al., 1999; Lee & Mitchell, 1994), this may happen as soon as an adequate job alternative is offered. In addition, employees receive more and more non-transferable benefits over time which reduce the intention to leave (Weller et al., 2009). In addition, some of the facilities of the organization where the study was conducted are in rural areas. Consequently, some employees may want to leave the organization but are unable to find an adequate alternative and therefore remain with the organization. Considering the study design, it was not possible to examine this further as the survey was pseudo-anonymous, and the resignations of newcomers could not be assigned to the data of the participants.

5.4 Reasons for Resigning

During this study, supplementary qualitative interviews were conducted to identify additional reasons for turnover that were not covered by the questionnaire. Two main causes were identified, namely external factors and the lack of transparency. Although organizations are always facing external factors which are beyond their control, the lack of transparency is within the organization's sphere of influence. This is consistent with the findings that organizational socialization does not increase during the observation period. Accordingly, there seems to be a considerable amount of uncertainty which may be difficult to reduce, and the organization may not provide the support needed to reduce this uncertainty.

The findings from the interviews should be considered critically, as only a small number of the employees contacted agreed to take part in the interview. Possibly, only those employees participated in the interview who had no problem with the organization and the work environment, resulting in a non-response bias. In addition, the participants in the interviews may not have revealed the genuine reason for their resignation because, despite assurances of confidentiality, they may have been unsure of the extent to which this could be traced back to them and may potentially have a negative impact on their final evaluation.

5.5 Associations of the Study Variables with the Control Variables

Unfortunately, the study failed to find a mediation of the relationship between POS, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction via PSS and the relationship between PSS, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction via POS. POS at t1 could reliably predict PSS at t2 and vice

versa, but the other cross lagged paths could not reliably predict job satisfaction or turnover intentions. Thus, the only reliable predictors of turnover intention and job satisfaction at t2 were the preceding values in turnover intention and job satisfaction. I expected that PSS would lead to stronger POS and thus to higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intentions. Furthermore, it was assumed that POS precedes PSS and that the supervisor subsequently acts as an agent of the organization which mediates the favorable or unfavorable actions toward the employees on behalf of the organization (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Therefore. these mediations were expected to increase job satisfaction and decrease turnover intentions.

Although strong intercorrelations were found among the different variables in the cross-sectional sample, the changes over time may be a possible reason for not identifying any mediation in the longitudinal sample. It may be that POS and PSS are essential components of job satisfaction and turnover intentions so that changes in POS and PSS immediately affect turnover intentions and job satisfaction. Therefore, the present study failed to observe any temporal change.

Considering the mediated relationship between POS, PSS, turnover intentions and job satisfaction has scarcely been investigated to date, the identification of theoretical reasons is rather difficult (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Therefore, the following section will focus on methodological limitations.

5.6 Limitations

5.6.1 Methodological Limitations

A possible reason for the non-significance of the results could be due to a common method bias (CMB) that is discussed as a substantial issue in organizational research. According to Edwards (2008), a CMB occurs through "response tendencies that raters apply across measures, similarities in item structure or wording that induce similar responses, the proximity of items in an instrument, and similarities in the medium, timing, or location in which measures are collected" (p. 476). In other words, a CMB leads to differences in responses being generated rather by the measurement instrument than by actual differences in the measured variables. According to Richardson et al. (2009), the potential for measurement error because of common method variance (CMV) ranges from almost negligible to disastrous. For this purpose, the Harman's single-factor test was applied which is the most commonly used technique for detecting CMB. However, the Harman's single-factor test is only a preliminary indication of whether a CMB is present, but it does not control for CMB

(Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this test, all variables relevant to the study are loaded into one common factor using an exploratory factor analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Subsequently, the results of the unrotated solution are analyzed to derive the number of factors explaining the variance of the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). A CMB exists when either a general factor emerges from the data or a single factor explains most of the covariance among the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the present study, a single factor was extracted which explained 36.18% of the variance in the data. Although there are no clearly defined cutoff values, the CMB does not seem to pose an issue in the study as the single factor does not explain most of the variance as defined by Podsakoff et al. (2012). Although no evidence of CMB could be identified in the study, consideration should be taken in future studies to minimize the risk of CMB. In the present study, the same measurement tool was used to collect both the independent and dependent variable. If possible, these should be collected independently of each other, preferably through alternative sources of information, such as internal key figures or employee surveys (Chang et al., 2010). Lastly, all independent as well as dependent variables relied on self-reported data which may also cause a CMB and therefore, should be complemented by other forms of data collection where applicable.

Furthermore, attention should be paid to the order of items and scales. In this study, POS was assessed first, directly followed by the SPSS. This is problematic because the scales are identical except for the term "organization" being replaced by the term "supervisor". Although the constructs are evidently very similar, they are non-redundant constructs (Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). However, a strong correlation may be either due to a high representativeness of the supervisor for the organization or simply due to the proximity to the other scale (Weijters et al., 2009). In case of the study, the order of items was randomized but to minimize response bias, the order of the scales could also be randomized as the order is not relevant to the assessment of the constructs and additional randomization could possibly minimize CMB further.

Regarding the necessary size of a sample, there are no definite rules as it always must be adjusted individually to the respective study design and methodology. However, there are different suggestions regarding an appropriate sample size. When comparing the two longitudinal samples, only a decline in POS from t1 to t2 was found to be significant but a small effect ($d = 0.26$). Assuming that the effects of the other associations are similarly small and that a statistical power of .80 is desired, at least 119 participants would be needed to obtain a significant result with a two-tailed paired t-test ($\alpha = .05$), according to a power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009).

In terms of mediation analysis, the sample should be substantially larger. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is based on the maximum likelihood (ML) equation which provides reliable parameter estimates only in larger samples and hardly allows reliable statements for samples below 100 (Psutka & Psutka, 2015). According to Long (1997), a sample size of at least 500 is necessary and adequate. In addition, due to the low significance of ML estimates in small samples, smaller p-values should be assumed. As a consequence, results should only be interpreted at a significance level of $p < .01$ instead of $p < .05$ (Long, 1997).

Furthermore, ceiling effects may have been a factor in this study. For example, the levels of job satisfaction were at a high level for several participants at t1. Thus, the job satisfaction scale could not measure any additional increase in job satisfaction at t2. Similarly, high scores of POS and PSS have been reported.

All the scales used demonstrated good to excellent reliability without an overabundance of items. Only for the TIS the omission of one item (i.e., 11R) would have increased Cronbach's alpha from .82 to .88. For all other scales, omitting one item would have worsened the reliability, indicating an adequate scope of the scales used.

5.6.2 Limitations of the Study Design

The study was pseudo-anonymous, making it only possible to assess turnover intentions and not being able to investigate whether high values in turnover intentions lead to actual turnover. According to Bothma & Roodt (2013), turnover intentions do not necessarily lead to actual turnover because the decision to leave an organization depends on many factors that lie outside the job and the organization. For example, the current labor market situation, employability or alternative job opportunities are significant factors that can lead to actual turnover (e.g., Agarwal et al., 2007; Bellou, 2008; Carmeli & Gefen, 2005; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Wheeler et al., 2007).

While the sample of the study was representative for the organization, it has limited applicability to other organizations. First, most participants were male and comparatively young. Second, only white-collar employees were surveyed, and blue-collar employees were not included. Third, the work systems of the examined organization are more traditional and therefore not necessarily transferable to other work systems such as project teams (Van Knippenberg & Schippers, 2007).

The questionnaire was formulated exclusively in English and sent out worldwide to all locations of the organization. Even though it is a necessity for white-collar employees to have a basic knowledge of the English language, it may well be that employees from Asia, for example, have a relatively limited knowledge of the English language and therefore had difficulties understanding some of the questions. Considering the sample of the Asia region, participants from India were over-represented as English is spoken more frequently in India and the participation may have been easier in this study.

By explicitly stating that the survey is anonymous, and that the data will be kept strictly confidential, it was attempted to reduce responses due to social desirability. However, participants had to create their own individual code and as a result, this statement may have been seen critically and the assurance of anonymity may have been considered skeptically.

5.7 Ideas for Future Research

The present study served as a preliminary study because the research question could only be examined in approximate terms. There were only two times of measurement, approaching all employees who had a maximum tenure of 17 months at the time. Notably, the observation period should be only twelve months from organizational entry. Despite the extension of the observation period, the sample size only amounted to 91 participants. In accordance with the recommendations on optimal sample sizes, the sample should ideally comprise 500 participants.

Assuming that 500 newcomers were required, the study would need to be carried out over a period of three years. According to the business figures, the organization recruits around 250 new employees worldwide every year. In this case, all newcomers over a period of two years would need to be included in the sample and surveyed over a period of 12 months. Therefore, the observation period amounts to a total of three years, since newcomers who are interviewed in the last month of the two years still must be interviewed over a 12-month period.

Four times of measurement are recommended, covering the first day and three, six, and nine months after organizational entry. These intervals were also commonly used in previous studies and are based on empirical research on newcomer socialization and transitions (e.g., Bauer et al., 2007; DeVos et al., 2003). These intervals can precisely model the expected changes in job satisfaction over time.

In addition, the response rate should be kept as high as possible. First, the global HR team needs to oversee the conception and implementation of the survey and integrate it into the newcomer orientation program. Thereby, a transparent approach should be adopted, the confidentiality needs to be highlighted, and any questions and concerns should be discussed. Furthermore, the positive outcomes for the participants and their work situation should be pointed out in order to increase their willingness to participate.

Finally, qualitative interviews revealed that a lack of transparency in the organization was a primary reason for newcomers to leave the organization. Therefore, items should be integrated into the questionnaires that evaluate the extent to which career perspectives, person-job-fit or person-organization-fit are provided.

5.8 Practical Relevance and Implications

One way to prevent possible unrealistic expectations and ambiguity are realistic job previews (RJP; Bashir & Bashir, 2016). Thereby, the job applicants are provided with an accurate and clear picture of the organization, including both positive and negative aspects (Baur et al., 2014; Ganzach et al., 2002). Conversely, organizations often present themselves as positively as possible in order to attract as many qualified applicants as possible (Baur et al., 2014). The result is often the formation of unrealistic expectations which can lead to a shock in case of a mismatch between expectations and reality (Wanous, 1992). These shocks make organizational socialization more difficult which in turn leads to lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). RJP can therefore be an effective instrument to reduce turnover costs in order to find applicants with the best possible fit and establish a stable and satisfied workforce (Baur et al., 2014; Buckley et al., 2002). However, the focus should not lie too strongly on the negative aspects, as studies have shown that this may possibly discourage qualified applicants (Baur et al., 2014).

Although the purpose of this study was to identify the reasons why a high proportion of newcomers leave the organization after a short period of time, some evidence suggests that a moderate level of turnover is in fact optimal for organizations. Siebert and Zubanov (2009) propose that an average turnover rate of 10 to 12% is optimal. But most HR management systems are very simplistic and do not differentiate between "core" and "secondary" groups (Siebert & Zubanov, 2009). The former involve high tangible and intangible costs when they leave the organization, whereas the latter involve few costs in case of voluntary turnover. It may even be beneficial for organizations when low-performing or poor-fitting employees

leave the company. However, even if not all employees are equally unique and valuable to an organization, newcomers should be given sufficient time for organizational socialization and adaptation. In conclusion, early departure of newcomers due to poor organizational fit may in fact be not as detrimental to the organization's business as widely anticipated (Weller et al., 2009).

5.9 Conclusion

The primary focus of this study was on the identification of the factors that significantly influence job satisfaction and turnover intention. POS, PSS, organizational socialization and job-related tension were all significantly correlated with job satisfaction and turnover intention, but causality cannot be inferred from correlation. Therefore, approximate causality was attempted to be demonstrated in a longitudinal design through the associations of POS, PSS, turnover intention, and job satisfaction, but the results were non-significant. This non-significance of the results is primarily due to methodological deficiencies that should be considered and resolved in a further study.

The illustration of the pattern of job satisfaction matched the different patterns reported in the literature and this confirmed a honeymoon-hangover effect (Boswell et al., 2005) which should be considered by the organization regarding newcomer socialization. A realistic presentation of the job and the organization, as well as an awareness of the occurrence of a hangover effect, can provide newcomers with a necessary understanding that levels of job satisfaction changes naturally and furthermore, minimize unrealistic expectations.

Although individual interviews with voluntary leavers were carried out to shed more light on the reasons for their departure, an insufficient number of interviews were undertaken. Therefore, the study was not able to obtain a comprehensive overview of the actual reasons for newcomers leaving the organization. In a future study, researchers are encouraged to interview as many newcomers as possible leaving the company to be able to specifically target potential sources of job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions.

Even though this master's thesis was carried out as a field study, the results are not generalizable. The present study was carried out in one specific organization with a sample involving only white-collar workers and therefore, is not easily transferable to other organizations. However, for the organization that has been investigated, I was able to provide an initial assessment of the current situation of the newcomers, highlight important factors

influencing job satisfaction and turnover intention, identify potential areas of improvement, and make recommendations for potential measures. In conclusion, by creating an organizational environment for employees that has a strong pull effect through interpersonal relationships, appreciation and benefits, employees are more satisfied and less inclined to leave the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001).

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List of Abbreviations

CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMB	Common method bias
CMV	Common method variance
E	Error associated with the prediction model
EMEA	Europe, Middle East, and Africa
H	Hypothesis
HR	Human Resource
JRTI	Job-related Tension Inventory
LATAM	Latin America
M	Mean
ML	Maximum Likelihood
MOAQ-JSS	Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale
NAM	North America
NUIS	Newcomer Understanding and Integration Scale
POS	Perceived organizational support
PSS	Perceived supervisor support
R^2	Total variance explained on the outcome
RJP	Realistic job previews
SD	Standard deviation
SEM	Structural equation modeling
SPOS	Survey of perceived organizational support
SPSS	Survey of perceived supervisor support
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
t1	First time of measurement
t2	Second time of measurement
TIS	Turnover Intention Scale

Appendix A. Abstracts

Appendix A1. Abstract in English

The purpose of this study was to identify a subset of factors that significantly influence newcomers' job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Considering a variety of possible influencing factors, perceived organizational and supervisor support, organizational socialization, and work-related stress were selected as key study variables. Additionally, I tried to provide further evidence for the existence of a honeymoon-hangover effect related to job satisfaction. Although the study was conducted in a longitudinal design with a sample of 91 participants at two measurement points in a three-month interval, the cross-sectional data was also examined (129 and 148 participants). Moreover, five qualitative interviews were conducted with newcomers who voluntarily left the company. The analysis of the data included the intercorrelations of the different factors, a mediation analysis of the associations of POS, PSS, turnover intentions and job satisfaction, an examination of the temporal changes of the selected factors, and a graphical illustration of the temporal pattern of job satisfaction. The results revealed strong correlations among the individual constructs, but the mediation hypotheses could not be confirmed. Regarding the temporal pattern of job satisfaction, the present study provides support for an anticipated honeymoon-hangover effect. However, the findings highlight the complexity and the numerous influences on job satisfaction and turnover intentions of newcomers. Within the context of previous research, the results are critically discussed, methodological limitations are addressed, potential approaches for future research are identified, and practical implications are presented.

Appendix A2. Abstract in German

Ziel dieser Studie war es einen Teil der Faktoren zu identifizieren, die die Arbeits-
zufriedenheit und die Kündigungsabsichten von neuen Mitarbeiter*innen signifikant
beeinflussen. Unter Berücksichtigung einer Vielzahl von möglichen Einflussfaktoren wurden
die wahrgenommene Unterstützung durch die Organisation und durch die Führungskraft,
organisationale Sozialisation und arbeitsbezogener Stress als zentrale Variablen für diese
Studie ausgewählt. Zudem habe ich versucht den Honeymoon-Hangover-Effekt in Bezug auf
die Arbeitszufriedenheit nachzuweisen. Obwohl die Studie in einem Längsschnittdesign mit
einer Stichprobe von 91 Teilnehmern zu zwei Messzeitpunkten in einem dreimonatigen
Intervall durchgeführt wurde, wurden auch Querschnittsdaten untersucht (129 und 148
Teilnehmer*innen). Darüber hinaus wurden fünf qualitative Interviews mit neuen
Mitarbeiter*innen geführt, die das Unternehmen freiwillig verlassen haben. Die Analyse der
Daten umfasste die Interkorrelationen der verschiedenen Faktoren, eine Mediationsanalyse
der Zusammenhänge von POS, PSS, die Kündigungsabsichten und die Arbeitszufriedenheit,
eine Untersuchung der Veränderungen der ausgewählten Faktoren über die Zeit hinweg sowie
eine grafische Darstellung des zeitlichen Verlaufs der Arbeitszufriedenheit. Die Ergebnisse
zeigten starke Korrelationen zwischen den einzelnen Konstrukten aber die
Mediationshypothesen konnten nicht angenommen werden. Hinsichtlich des zeitlichen
Verlaufs der Arbeitszufriedenheit konnte die vorliegende Studie den erwarteten Honeymoon-
Hangover-Effekt nachweisen. Die Ergebnisse verdeutlichen in jedem Fall die Komplexität
und die zahlreichen Einflüsse auf die Arbeitszufriedenheit und die Kündigungsabsichten von
neuen Mitarbeiter*innen. Die Ergebnisse werden im Kontext der bisherigen Forschung
kritisch diskutiert, methodische Schwächen genannt, mögliche Ansatzpunkte für zukünftige
Forschung identifiziert und praktische Implikationen dargestellt.

Appendix B. Online Questionnaire

Appendix B1. Disclaimer First Survey

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study! This study is carried out in the framework of a master's thesis at the Department of Work and Organizational Psychology at the faculty of Psychology of the University of Vienna. The purpose of this project is to understand the integration process of newcomers and their experiences at [name of the organization]. The ultimate goal of this study is to improve the working conditions for everyone and ease the integration process of new employees.

This is the first of a total of two surveys. You will receive the invitation to the second survey in about three months in a separate e-mail.

We ask you to fill out the questionnaire which will take approximately 15 minutes time. It is important for us that you answer all questions. If you are not sure about a question, simply select the option that best reflects your opinion. There are neither right nor wrong answers, it is only about your personal assessment.

On the next page you will be asked to generate a personal code. This code enables us to assign your participation at the individual survey dates and at the same time guarantee your anonymity.

Why do we collect and use your data

All identifying information, such as name will not be recorded, stored, or shared to third parties. Participants will be kept anonymous and all the data will be treated strictly confidential. All responses will be compiled together and analyzed as a group. The results of this study will only be shared within [name of the organization] in an anonymized and aggregated way.

Participation in this study is voluntary and may be terminated at any time without providing reasons and without any disadvantages to its participants.

If you want to know the results of the final report, please contact me via the e-mail address provided below. The research team will send you the report as a token of gratitude for your participation, as soon as the results have been evaluated.

How to contact us

Tobias Friedl, University of Vienna, a01203550@unet.univie.ac.at

If you would like to obtain more information about the processing of your personal data, please click here.

☐ I agree to the processing of my personal data in accordance with the information provided herein

Appendix B2. Disclaimer Second Survey

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study! This study is carried out in the framework of a master's thesis at the Department of Work and Organizational Psychology at the faculty of Psychology of the University of Vienna. The purpose of this project is to understand the integration process of newcomers and their experiences at [name of the organization]. The ultimate goal of this study is to improve the working conditions for everyone and ease the integration process of new employees.

This is the final survey. If this is the first time you have been invited to participate in this study, we simply ask you to participate by following the instructions.

We ask you to fill out the questionnaire which will take approximately 15 minutes time. It is important for us that you answer all questions. If you are not sure about a question, simply select the option that best reflects your opinion. There are neither right nor wrong answers, it is only about your personal assessment.

On the next page you will be asked to generate a personal code. This code enables us to assign your participation at the individual survey dates and at the same time guarantee your anonymity. If this is the first time you have been invited to participate in this study, simply use the code of the example on the next page.

Why do we collect and use your data

All identifying information, such as name will not be recorded, stored, or shared to third parties. Participants will be kept anonymous and all the data will be treated strictly confidential. All responses will be compiled together and analyzed as a group. The results of

this study will only be shared within [name of the organization] in an anonymized and aggregated way.

Participation in this study is voluntary and may be terminated at any time without providing reasons and without any disadvantages to its participants. Because this study conducts surveys at two times, you will have to use your personal code that you have created in the first survey (if applicable). If you don't remember your personal code, we have added the instruction on how to generate your personal code again.

If you want to know the results of the final report, please contact me via the e-mail address provided below. The research team will send you the report as a token of gratitude for your participation, as soon as the results have been evaluated.

How to contact us

Tobias Friedl, University of Vienna, a01203550@unet.univie.ac.at

If you would like to obtain more information about the processing of your personal data, please click here.

☐ I agree to the processing of my personal data in accordance with the information

provided herein

Appendix B3. Informed Consent

Information about data processing

How long will your personal data be processed

The data will be deleted as soon as the purpose of the processing has been achieved and if no other legal retention period is opposed. Generally, the collected data may be stored for an unlimited period of time in accordance with Art. 89 (1) DSGVO

What personal data will be collected and used

Age, gender, tenure and country of work

Legal basis for processing your data

The legal basis of the processing is the consent of the participant

Who will have access to your personal data

The researcher (Tobias Friedl)

The master's thesis supervisor of the respective university (University of Vienna)

Statutory or contractual requirement

Participation in this study is voluntary and may be terminated at any time without providing reasons and without any disadvantages to its participants

Your individual rights

In accordance with data protection regulations, you have the right to:

- access and correct the data you have entered

- have your personal data deleted

- request a restriction or objection to the processing of your data

In any case, please submit a request to the research team providing your individual code

Your right to withdraw consent

You can withdraw your declaration of consent at any time. The processing of data prior to the withdrawal of consent remains lawful.

Supervisory authority

Österreichische Datenschutzbehörde (Austrian Data Protection Authority)

dsb@dsb.gv.at

+43 1 52 152-0

Appendix B4. Instruction for Creating the Individual Code at the First Survey

As already mentioned in the disclaimer, you will have to create your own personal code. This code makes it possible for us to assign your different results from this survey and the second survey to each other, but still guarantees your anonymity because we cannot assign the results to you.

Your personal code consists of the **first three letters of your mother's first name**, **the day of your birthday,** and the **first three letters of your father's first name**. If my mother's

name was Claudia, my birthday was on May 07, 1991, and my father's name was Alex, then my code would be: cla07ale

Please enter your code here: [   ]

Appendix B5. Instruction for Creating the Individual Code at the Second Survey

As already mentioned in the disclaimer, you will have to use your personal code that you have created in the first survey. This code makes it possible for us to assign your different results from the first survey and this survey to each other, but still guarantees your anonymity because we cannot assign the results to you.

If you have not participated in the first survey, please use the code from the example (meaning "cla07ale").

If you do not remember your personal code, we provide you again with the example of how your personal code was generated:

Your personal code consists of the **first three letters of your mother's first name**, **the day of your birthday,** and the **first three letters of your father's first name**. If my mother's name was Claudia, my birthday was on May 07, 1991, and my father's name was Alex, then my code would be: cla07ale

Please enter your code here: [   ]

Appendix B6. Questionnaire in Chronological Order

Listed below and on the next several pages are questions worded as statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at [name of the organization].

There are seven different options to choose from when answering each question (from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). Please indicate the degree of your disagreement or agreement with each of the following statements by marking the option that most closely matches your opinion about [name of the organization]:

   [Name of the organization] values my contribution to its well-being

[Name of the organization] fails to appreciate any extra effort from me

[Name of the organization] would ignore any issues brought up by me

[Name of the organization] really cares about my well-being

Even if I did the best job possible, [name of the organization] would fail to notice

[Name of the organization] cares about my general satisfaction at work

[Name of the organization] shows very little concern for me

[Name of the organization] values my accomplishments at work

After asking you about your opinion on [name of the organization], the following statements focus on your opinion about your supervisor at [name of the organization].

My supervisor values my contribution to the team's well-being

My supervisor fails to appreciate any extra effort from me

My supervisor would ignore any issues brought up by me

My supervisor really cares about my well-being

Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would fail to notice

My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work

My supervisor shows very little concern for me

My supervisor values my accomplishments at work

Please think about your daily working life at [name of the organization].

Please answer the following questions by visualising the relationships with your coworkers at [name of the organization]:

Other employees have helped me on the job in various ways

My coworkers are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice

Most of my coworkers have accepted me as a member of [name of the organization]

My relationships with other employees at [name of the organization] are very good

I believe most of my coworkers like me

The following questions relate to your job role at [name of the organization]:

I understand how to perform the tasks that make up my job

I understand which job tasks and responsibilities have priority

I know what my supervisor considers as good performance

I know what it takes to do well

I understand what all the duties of my job entail

Next, the focus is on the organization [name of the organization]:

I am familiar with the history of [name of the organization]

I know the internal structure of [name of the organization]

I am familiar with the unwritten rules of how things are done at [name of the organization]

I understand [name of the organization]'s objectives and goals

I know who the most influential people are at [name of the organization]

For the following questions, please think about your job at [name of the organization] and how much you are bothered by different aspects of your daily work.

Choose from six different options when answering each question (from "Never bothered" to "Bothered almost always" and "Does not apply"):

Feeling that you have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you

Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job are

Not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for you

Feeling that you have too heavy a workload, one that you can't possibly finish during an ordinary workday

Thinking that you'll not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over you

Feeling that you're not fully qualified to handle your job

Not knowing what your supervisor thinks of you, how s/he evaluates your performance

The fact that you can't get information needed to carry out your job

Having to decide things that affect the lives of individuals, people that you know

Feeling that you may not be liked and accepted by the people you work with

Feeling unable to influence your immediate supervisor's decisions and actions that affect you

Not knowing what the people you work with expect of you

Thinking that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it gets done

Feeling that you have to do things on the job that are against your better judgment

Feeling that your job tends to interfere with your family life

For the following questions, please think about how you are currently feeling about your job at [name of the organization]:

In general, I like working here

In general, I don't like my job

All in all, I am satisfied with my job

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation. Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

How often have you considered leaving your job?

How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?

How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity to achieve your individual work-related goals?

How often do you think about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?

How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be

offered to you?

How often do you look forward to the next day at work?

To what extent do the benefits associated with your current job prevent you from quitting your job?

How frequently do you scan the internet in search of alternative job opportunities?

What best describes your gender?

Female

Male

Prefer not to say

Prefer to self-describe [   ]

What is your age?

[ ] years

Prefer not to say

How long are you currently employed by [name of the organization]?

[ ] months

Prefer not to say

What country do you work in?

[   ]

Prefer not to say

Appendix B7. End Screen First Survey

The first study is now complete.

Thank you very much for your participation and we sincerely hope that you will also participate in the second survey. You will receive the invitation to participate and the link to the questionnaire in about three months. Please understand that we cannot reveal the purpose of this study until the second questionnaire has been successfully completed.

If you have any further questions about the study or are interested in the study results, please contact our researcher:

Tobias Friedl (a01203550@unet.univie.ac.at)

You can now close this window.

Appendix B8. Debriefing Second Survey

The study is now complete.

Thank you very much for your participation!

The purpose of this project is to understand the integration process of newcomers and their experiences at [name of the organization]. In particular, we investigate the influence of organizational socialization, perceived organizational/supervisor support, and work-related stress on job satisfaction and turnover intention. Basically, we want to find out if…

- the support employees get from their supervisor or the organization itself
- the extent of how well employees are integrated and
- the amount of stress they are facing

have an impact on their satisfaction with their job and if that could result in the desire to leave the organization.

If you have any further questions about the study or are interested in the study results, please contact our researcher:

Tobias Friedl (a01203550@unet.univie.ac.at)

You can now close this window.

Appendix C. Interview Guide

Question regarding turnover:

What was the reason or the reasons why you left the company? (Turnover intention)

Question regarding organizational socialization:

To what extent would you say that you were integrated in your team?

And did you feel integrated in the organization?

Question regarding work-related stress:

How did you perceive the general workload?

If necessary: On an average working day: How stressful would you rate the day?

Questions regarding perceived supervisor support:

Could you please describe your experience with your managers/ supervisors?

If necessary: What would you say, how much support did you receive from your supervisor?

Questions regarding perceived organizational support:

Based on your personal experiences: How much support did you get from [the organization]?

Questions regarding job satisfaction:

How satisfied were you overall with your work at [the organization]?

Appendix D. Exemplary Interview in Full Detail

What was the reason or the reasons why you left the company?

I certainly don't have any problem with the organization or with the position. I think that the reason I'm leaving, it's entirely focused on gaining more experience in my career. It's not that I have a problem with some in my team or I have a problem with my salary, or I have a problem with the work life balance that the company offers me. No, I mean, everything was really good, my manager was great, and my team was great. I think that I made some really good friends in these few months. So, the work environment was really good when everybody was really helpful and it was really easy to do and everything was going with them. So, I think it's a really good team. Mainly, the reason I say you can't see me as a petroleum engineer. I'm a production engineer. And the position the company is offering me is chief production engineer. And I wanted to gain some experience. I think I'm young, so I wanted to gain some experience now. And that's the main reason I'm leaving, because this is an operating company, the one I'm leaving to. And so, it's an opportunity to gain more experience for my career. It's more aligned to what I wanted to do.

To what extent would you say that you were integrated in your team?

Well, the position is not completely integrated yet because it wasn't very well defined from the beginning. It took some time for us to see how we can match this position with the rest of the team. And so, it is yet to be integrated, I guess, because there are many aspects that the team has to work with. And I think that the platform that you need in order to build this position on top of that is not yet built. I think I would say so. The company has a lot of experience working with equipment and motors and everything that has to do with that. But I would like to tell you that the position is completely integrated with the team is not something that I think that the manager, the management and the team has to work in order to see how we can better engage the position with the team.

And did you feel integrated in the organization?

So, the position was completely in line with the tasks and duties but were not completely defined yet when I started because it was in that position then it was kind of an ongoing development for the tasks and position definition. So maybe this is kind of different from all the other positions that we have at [name of the organization]. Good, because, I mean, if you hire, I guess I think you hire, for example, shop assistant or mechanical engineer, then everything is already defined. For this kind of position, it was kind of different because it was

not completely clear what were my tasks and duties. Yes, the responsibilities we're clear, but they were not completely defined because my manager was not completely sure on what path they wanted to follow with the decision - there were so many projects ongoing and it was kind of a task to do to try to fit this position within the rest of the team. OK, so maybe if I was to give you an advice on how to improve the position for the future, then I definitely recommend that we should define what the engineer is going to do. That improved a lot in these ten months I'm with the company, because this was a new position and they went with working with a petroleum engineer and it was kind of a learning process on both sides.

I always felt useful. I felt and I was I was contributing to the team. But I think that the contribution could have been more. I don't know, we could have had some better results from my work. And but I understand that this is something that has to happen because it's a process, as I said, it's different. For example, maybe if you go to an oil company, then everything is defined. And what every engineer has to do - that happens with all the other positions. But since this was new then, it was kind of a learning process, as I said.

How did you perceive the general workload?

I think that something that I would always be thankful for is that it was a really good balance between work and life at [name of the organization]. Yeah, that's something that I think that I will miss, definitely, because it was very well balanced. I had my time to work on my projects and I felt free to work as I wanted. To take some decisions at least in some aspects of the project, of course I always was in direct contact with my supervisor, but I felt flexible. So, it was really good. And from the work and life balance, it was definitely very flexible. You have some problems at home, they were always telling me: OK, you can work on them and you can do some home office today. Don't worry, we will fix the schedule. And that was really good and really helpful for me.

Could you please describe your experience with your managers/ supervisors?

That's something that can be improved as well. I mean, on the personnel side, it was good because the work environment was really good. My direct manager was always helpful, and he was great. I mean, he's a friend. I don't see him as a boss, I see him as a friend. And so, he was really good. But as I said, since they weren't sure of what they wanted from me, the leadership part could have been improved because they don't have a path defined, they find it really hard to know what they expect. But I don't see that the lack of leadership was a mistake from my manager. It was something that happened because things were not clearly defined. I

guess it's different for other positions in the company where everything's already set and defined. For this one, it was more kind of an experiment of what we can do with the position and how this guy can help us and what are we going to do from now on with a petroleum engineer in the company. So, I think that I wouldn't say the leadership was bad. No, they did everything they could to engage the position with the rest of the team, but it could have been done better.

I mean, I know who I am going to report to. My manager is my functional and my direct manager, but they weren't clear on what they wanted or what they expected. So, I think that the managers learned a lot about what the position can bring to the team. And I also learned a lot what I could do for the team. OK, so it was kind of a two sides learning process.

Based on your personal experiences: How much support did you get from the organization, especially from the beginning?

When I when I first joined the company, they weren't sure what to offer me in the future, for example, because this is a position they weren't sure what's going next, what's going to happen next year, do we move him into business development. We're going to open some other technical position for him in the company, because I was in a bubble there in the middle of the company. So that's something that I think needs to be improved because the HR team were not clear on what kind of profile they were hiring and the engineering team weren't sure of what these profiles could really bring to the team because the expectations were met. I think that that's something that we agreed when I talked with my managers, the expectations were met, definitely. But the expectations from the employee side may be the that needs to be improved because I was expecting a clearly defined path of how my career was going to develop in every year, for example, where I'm going to be in five years, where I'm going to be in 10 years. And that was not something that was defined. The work environment really good. The work life balance was really good, but something that has to be improved. I felt great about the beginning with the team and all this time as well. As I said, it's how these positions specifically is arranged with the rest of the team.

How satisfied were you overall with your work at the organization?

No, it was definitely good. I'm coming from working in oil and service companies in the oil business, and they were really demanding. The work life balance was really bad. And it was tough. Here, you can have a life besides work as well. That's really important. The team was really good. At the beginning, it was hard because I had to leave [his home country] and I had

to move to [new location]. So, I was new in the city. I was new in the team. Everything was new. Of course, that's something that is kind of scary at the beginning. But I felt that everybody was really warm with me and I felt great in the team from the first day. So, I definitely say that it's one of the best jobs that I had, how I get along with my team right now.

Appendix E. Invitation for Participating in the Study

Dear colleagues,

we are contacting you in the context of an ongoing master's thesis about your experience as a newcomer at [Name of the organization]. For that reason, we would like to ask you a couple of questions.

We would enormously appreciate your valuable input in order to improve the work environment and ease the integration process of new employees.

We fully assure you that all responses are voluntary and will be confidential. Responses will not be identified as individual. All responses will be compiled together and analyzed as a group.

The results of this study will only be shared within [name of the organization] anonymously. This survey takes about 15 minutes.

Please click on the following link for the questionnaire:

https://ww2.unipark.de/uc/NewJoiners[Name of the organization]/

If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher to discuss them (e-mail address: tobias.friedl2@[Name of the organization].com).

If you are interested, we are more than happy to share the results with you after the report is finished.

Your help is highly appreciated and we thank you very much in advance!

Best regards,

[Head of People & Culture Development & Training]

Appendix F. Declaration of Authorship

I hereby declare that this master's thesis is my own work and that I have not used any sources other than those indicated, and that the thesis has not been submitted in the same or a similar form to any other examination board. All statements in this thesis that have been taken from other authors are marked as such.

Date: 02-21-2021   Signature: _____

                                                    Tobias Friedl