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Coping with Newcomer "Hangover": How Socialization Tactics Affect Declining Job Satisfaction during Early Employment

Abstract

New entrants to a job often experience a "hangover effect," whereby their job satisfaction declines as they become familiar with the job. Socialization scholars thus have sought to identify ways to forestall or ameliorate such declines. Recently, Boswell, Shipp, Payne, and Culbertson (2009) found that the extent of socialization can *exacerbate* the hangover effect. Following up this provocative finding, this study investigated whether *socialization tactics* worsen or dampen the hangover effect and by so doing, affect newcomer attrition. We monitored how newcomers᾽ job satisfaction changed over time by surveying them on four occasions during the first six months of employment. We observed that socialization tactics (especially context and social tactics) *increase* the rate of declining job satisfaction during early employment. Yet all three tactics *decrease* this descent rate when enacted at high levels. Moreover, the present research established that declining job satisfaction translates into a trajectory of increasing turnover intentions and thus higher quits. Further, we found that *extremely high* social tactics can actually suppress the hangover effect and thereby reduce newcomer attrition. Our dynamic research offered a more nuanced understanding of how socialization tactics influence the hangover effect and newcomer attrition.

*Keywords***:** Socialization tactics; hangover effect; job satisfaction; change trajectory; turnover

Coping with Newcomer "Hangover":

How Socialization Tactics Affect Declining Job Satisfaction during Early Employment

A seminal study by Boswell, Boudreau, and Tichy (2005) uncovered the "honeymoon-hangover" effect, whereby employees exhibit upward swings in job attitudes when changing jobs that later decline over time. Though turnover theory and work have long noted how newcomers' job satisfaction falls during initial employment (especially among prospective leavers; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), Boswell and colleagues (2005) offered striking evidence that job attitudes change before and *after* a turnover event, implicating psychological processes long overlooked by turnover theorists (cf. Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Mobley, 1977; Price & Mueller, 1981). Various theoretical mechanisms account for this phenomenon. Engaging in sense-making during organizational entry to reduce uncertainty (Louis, 1980), new entrants to a job initially form positive attitudes toward this job when contrasting its superior qualities—prime reasons for its selection—to those of past jobs (which represent a frame of reference for appraising the current job; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985). The new job's favorable features emerge as "figural" in newcomers' perceptual field (Louis, 1980), enhancing job attitudes. Moreover, they may infer attractive qualities about the new job by "filling in the blanks related to missing information" in their mental schema about good jobs (Zhu, Tatachari, & Chattopadhyay, 2015, p. 8). Further inflating initial attitudes, incoming employees likely minimize or downplay the new job's negative attributes to rationalize their job choice, while overestimating their future hedonic state on this job by simulating pleasurable work events (e.g., learning new skills) in their minds (Gilbert & Wilson, 2007). Additionally, new hires may feel an "initial high in job satisfaction" when encountering novel circumstances (Boswell et al., 2009, p. 845).

A "hangover effect"—or declining job attitudes—often ensues as entering incumbents increasingly become familiar with the job as they "learn the ropes" (Boswell et al., 2005; Louis, 1980). *Affective habituation* (Leventhal, Martin, Seals, Tapia, & Rehm, 2007) later sets in as the "initial high of a new job is likely to wear off as employees engage in more mundane job activities and normalization occurs" (Boswell et al., 2009, p. 845). Additionally, they may feel disappointed when finding expected job rewards or experiences to be less pleasurable than they had imagined (Louis, 1980; Wilson & Gilbert, 2005). Beyond this, job entrants begin confronting the job's salient disagreeable features (including interacting with cynical veterans upon leaving the sheltered confines of formal socialization), experiencing reality shock or psychological contract violations (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Zhu et al., 2015). Indeed, they might feel more distress when encountering even anticipated negative events if they misjudge how these events would "actually feel" (Louis, 1980; p. 238). That said, Boswell et al.'s (2005) discovery of a cyclical pattern of attitudinal shifts suggests that individual newcomers' "predisposition toward a set point…after a shift in job satisfaction level due to a job change" (p. 888) primarily underlie the honeymoon-hangover effect. Their remarkable finding disputes prevailing accounts emphasizing how post-entry reality shocks drive beginning employees' disaffection and departure (Hom, Roberson, & Ellis, 2008; Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Porter & Steers, 1973; Weller, Holtom, Matiaske, & Mellewigt, 2009), while casting doubt on employers' ability to arrest the hangover effect during early employment.

While beginning and ending at hedonic equilibrium levels (or "set points"; Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005), the honeymoon-hangover effect nonetheless can be modulated (Boswell et al., 2009). In particular, Boswell et al. (2009) documented that the extent of socialization (aka, newcomers' accumulated stock of knowledge about the firm, department,

and job role) and organizational fulfillment of commitments boost job satisfaction during the hangover cycle. Yet they found that elevating job satisfaction gave way to *steeper* rates of declining job satisfaction. Surprisingly, "the stronger the honeymoon [i.e., higher the initial satisfaction], the stronger the …hangover will be," conclude Boswell et al. (2009, p. 853).

Toward A Dynamic Model of Socialization Tactics

Building on Boswell et al.'s (2005, 2009) pioneering work, we test a dynamic model of how socialization tactics—or means by which employers assimilate newcomers by structuring *how* they learn (e.g., collectively or formally) rather than *what* they learn (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979)—affect the hangover effect during the *encounter* stage of socialization (see Figure 1; Feldman, 1976). Boswell et al. (2009) investigated what knowledge entering employees learn rather than what organizations do to assimilate them (i.e., *socialization content vs. structure*). Yet socialization tactics explain unique—often larger—variance in socialization outcomes (e.g., job attitudes, quit intentions, turnover) than does knowledge learned according to a meta-analytic path analysis (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). To further explore Boswell et al.'s (2009) remarkable finding that socialization efforts can *exacerbate* the honeymoon-hangover effect, we thus consider socialization tactics, which can enhance incoming employees' job satisfaction much like "newcomer information-seeking" (Bauer et al., 2007). Given that they may heighten (if not prolong) the honeymoon period (Allen & Shanock, 2013), socialization tactics—if Boswell et al.'s findings hold true—may worsen the hangover effect and thereby quicken the pace of attitudinal deterioration. Given their prominence in socialization theory and research, it is thus imperative to scrutinize how socialization tactics shape the trajectory of job satisfaction over time. After all, such heretofore overlooked dynamic effects may challenge accepted wisdom of the beneficial effects of such tactics given longstanding

cross-sectional evidence for their positive impact on *static* job-satisfaction scores (Bauer et al., 2007) (cf. Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch & Hulin, 2009).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Our research further extends the honeymoon-hangover literature by investigating whether novice employees enduring acute hangover effects end up more quit-prone. Although Boswell al. (2005) observed that "job satisfaction was lower among those who would ultimately change jobs in the following year" (p. 887), they did not demonstrate that those changing jobs had been *increasingly* dissatisfied with the job they were abandoning. Testing an autoregressive model, they assessed satisfaction with the previous job on *one occasion* to predict satisfaction in the next job. By comparison, turnover scholars have long documented that job satisfaction falls more swiftly over time for leavers than stayers (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Rusbult & Farrell, 1982; Youngblood, Meglino, & Mobley, 1983), though their statistical methods for gauging attitudinal change have been discredited (e.g., change scores, repeated measures analysis of variance [ANOVA]; Hom & Haynes, 2007). Recent applications of random coefficient modeling (RCM) or latent growth modeling (LGM) nevertheless validly establish that attitudinal shifts do predate leaving (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012). Going beyond Boswell et al.'s (2005) finding that low (static) job satisfaction initiates quits (and the honeymoon-hangover cycle), we capitalize on modern statistical advances to ascertain whether newcomers experiencing hangover effects over time are truly more likely to quit.

Finally, we seek stronger evidence for two key intervening mechanisms purported to mediate how socialization tactics influence newcomer departures. Past tests attempting to assess mediation (e.g., Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013) failed to assess *temporal shifts* in mediators and their dynamic relationships (Mobley, 1982; Ng & Feldman, 2013; Pitariu & Ployhart, 2010). Following Ployhart and Vandenberg (2010), we thus more validly determine how socialization tactics affect newcomers' turnover by assessing how mediators' trajectories of change—notably, changing job satisfaction and turnover intentions—translate socialization effects. While socialization theorists often construe those variables as outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007), prevailing turnover theory and research (especially in the wake of recent findings on attitudinal trajectories; Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012) posit them as proximal antecedents to turnover transmitting the impact of distal determinants, such as socialization tactics and their direct consequents (e.g., role clarity, job fit; Saks et al., 2007) (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Griffeth & Hom, 2001).

How Socialization Tactics Affect the Hangover Effect and Newcomer Attrition

Because the hangover effect plagues new hires (Boswell et al., 2009) and can ultimately drive their departure (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), additional research on what conditions can mute this trend is especially warranted. After all, attitudinal decline is a prime driver of voluntary quits (Liu et al., 2012), which most occur when new incumbents begin employment (Hom et al., 2008). Because novices often experience anxiety, uncertainty, and reality shock (Jones, 1986; Louis, 1980; Sparacino, 2015), understanding how they adapt during their transition into unfamiliar workplaces may reveal means for enhancing their job survival (Allen & Shanock, 2013). In particular, we scrutinize socialization tactics—notably, a taxonomy of "people-processing" approaches first conceptualized by Van Mannen and Schein (1979) and

later refined by Jones (1986). Briefly, socialization tactics comprise three prime dimensions: (1) content (explicit timetable and sequence of learning activities and experiences); (2) social (available role models and identity-affirming feedback); and (3) context (learning collectively and formally). Empirical studies often documented how such tactics promote job attitudes and retention among beginning incumbents (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Bauer et al., 2007; Cable, Gino, & Staats, 2013; Saks et al., 2007).

Our study extends this longstanding line of inquiry by examining how socialization tactics affect newcomers' hangover experience. As noted earlier, Boswell and colleagues (2009) found that job satisfaction among newcomers knowledgeable about new organizational and job requirements (presumably, better socialized) rapidly *fall* during the first year. To account for this unexpected finding, they speculated that greater learning among new entrants boost job attitudes momentarily by raising awareness of positive job features or their saliency (Louis, 1980). Inflated attitudes however fall more drastically when they later uncover unpleasant job aspects, especially those they had not known beforehand. Boswell et al. (2009) thus concluded that *stronger honeymoons invoke stronger hangovers*.

In consonant with this *aggravated hangover* thesis, the opponent process theory of job satisfaction maintains that a pleasant stimulus (e.g., orientation) elicits an emotionally positive "primary process" (Bowling et al., 2005). Once this process reaches a certain threshold, a *hedonic opposite* "opponent process" is activated that eventually neutralizes the primary process. Because the opponent process decays more slowly, it remains active for some time after the original stimulus has ended and the primary process has decayed. Entering employees thus feel *negative* hedonic states before returning to equilibrium. While provocative, Boswell et al.'s finding—that more "socialization content" temporarily helps newcomers but ultimately impairs

their adaptation—warrants replication as they examined what knowledge newcomers acquired, overlooking socialization tactics whose impact on socialization outcomes are neither redundant nor identical (Ashforth, Saks, & Sluss, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007). Our research thus proposes and tests the relative validity of two competing effects by socialization tactics: *attenuated* hangover effects (consistent with established theory and research and what Boswell et al. [2009] originally envisioned) versus *aggravated* hangover effects (what Boswell et al. [2009] actually uncovered).

Attenuated Hangover Effects

Generally speaking, prevailing socialization theory and research imply that socialization tactics should lessen the oft-documented descent in job satisfaction during the encounter stage (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983), *slowing* the hangover effect. Specifically, content tactics notifying incoming employees about the timing and sequence of socialization activities and steps should foster person-job fit (Allen & Shanock, 2013). As Allen and Shanock (2013) explain,

> "Because newcomers tend to be uncertain and anxious about their place in the organization, specific knowledge concerning when they will complete official socialization activities and perhaps be considered insiders should speed the development of a sense of fit with the organization" (p. 355).

As a result, newcomers develop greater role clarity and person-job fit, which not only enhance their level of job satisfaction but also may reduce the rate by which satisfaction declines during the assimilation period (Bauer et al., 2007; Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

Context tactics offering common socialization experiences with an incoming cohort and formal socialization activities may also attenuate the hangover effect. For one, shared learning

experiences with other recruits expands the number of relationships, their interconnectedness, and their quality (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Such densely knit networks in turn yield more expressive and instrumental resources that facilitate newcomer adaptation (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Morrison, 2002). Formal training in a group setting also may "promote a sense of community and shared values as well as perceptions of it" (Allen & Shanock, 2013, p. 355), reinforcing person-group fit (Kristof, Brown, Sims, & Smith, 1995) and social acceptance (Bauer et al., 2007). Furthermore, formal training enhances newcomers' skill and knowledge, enhance their self-efficacy (Bauer et al., 2007) and positive affect (by reducing uncertainty and anxiety (Ashforth et al., 2007). Given the varied ways they uplift job satisfaction, context tactic may thus weaken the rate by which newcomers' job satisfaction fall.

Finally, social tactics may dampen the hangover effect because they furnish role models and affirming incoming identities (investiture) during newcomer assimilation. Formal mentors foster favorable job attitudes among newcomers by helping them cope with uncertainty (lending social support), cultivating their job proficiency (including "learning the ropes"), and facilitating social acceptance with insiders (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth et al., 2007; Morrison, 2002). By valuing incoming identities, investiture fosters authentic self-expression among beginning employees. They feel happier in a job that allows them to express their unique perspectives and capitalizes on their signature strengths (Cable et al., 2013). According to Cable et al. (2013), encouraging newcomers to display their true inner selves can enhance self-fulfillment as authentic human beings and prevent self-alienation. Put differently, person-job fit improves by accommodating an individual's idiosyncratic traits (*self-socialization*; Ashforth et al., 2007) rather than molding that individual to fit a preexisting job. Owing to socialization studies finding that mentoring and investiture boost job attitudes (Ashforth et al., 2007; Cable et al., 2013;

Singh, Ragins, & Tharenou, 2009), we deduce that social tactics can also inhibit the hangover effect, slowing down attitudinal descent. Given such rationale and findings, we posit:

Hypothesis 1a: High levels of context socialization tactics weaken the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, content tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are positively related.

Hypothesis 1b: High levels of content socialization tactics weaken the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, context tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are positively related.

Hypothesis 1c: High levels of social socialization tactics weaken the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, social tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are positively related.

Apart from dampening the hangover effect, different socialization tactics might differentially shape the trajectory by which job satisfaction change. Generally speaking, socialization investigations conclude that context and social socialization tactics facilitate higher newcomer adjustment (e.g., role clarity, social acceptance) and better socialization outcomes (e.g., job attitudes, retention) than do content tactics (Bauer et al., 2007). Conceivably, context and social tactics yield resources that advance not only newcomers' early adjustment but also long-term career prospects by clarifying career paths in the firm (strengthening their expectations about future promotional opportunities) and supplying veteran incumbents as mentors (lending social capital for assimilation and career progress; Morrison, 2002), whereas content tactics narrowly focus on instructing them to perform entry-level jobs and building camaraderie with neophytes (Jones, 1986) lacking social capital (Siebert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Because the former tactics exert more sway over job satisfaction (Bauer et al., 2007), we deduce:

Hypothesis 1d: Context tactics weaken the decline in job satisfaction *more* than do content tactics. That is, context tactics are more positively related to the job-satisfaction trajectory than are content tactics.

Hypothesis 1e: Social tactics weaken the decline in job satisfaction *more* than do content tactics. That is, social tactics are more positively related to the job-satisfaction trajectory than are content tactics.

Aggravated Hangover Thesis

Challenging accepted wisdom, Boswell et al. (2009) reported that socialization experiences or interventions that boost initial job satisfaction (honeymoon effect) can in turn boomerang and prompt more pronounced satisfaction declines (hangover effect). Several theories sustain their findings. Specifically, met expectation theory maintains that newcomers whose entry job expectations are inflated face greater disillusionment as they endure a greater clash between expectations and reality (Meglino & DeNisi, 1987; Porter & Steers, 1973). Similarly, the opponent process theory implies that newcomers whose hedonic states are elevated by socialization tactics may experience opposite (more extreme) hedonic states as they return back to their equilibrium state.

Conceivably, content tactics clarifying an orderly timetable of training and learning experiences may elevate newcomers' expectations about personal growth and development that are more difficult to fulfill. Along these lines, what entering cohorts learn and experience (e.g., shared plight and social support among cohort members) during collective and formal orientation (context tactics) may sharply contrast to what they do—or can do (as new skills are perfected through trial and error)—on the job and experience with established incumbents (e.g., experienced nurses who "eat their young"; Sparacino, 2015; p. 41) (Kramer & Schmalenberg,

1977). Similarly, social tactics may engender unmet expectations if they furnish role models or mentors harboring overly favorable job attitudes (promoting positive job affect as "firm representatives"; Sluss & Ashforth, 2008), while recruiters and orientation trainers may overstate how much the company values new recruits' incoming qualities (to recruit them and arouse enthusiasm for their new job). Given these theories and findings, we posit alternative hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: Content tactics strengthen the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, content tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are negatively related.

Hypothesis 2b: High levels of context tactics expedite the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, context tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are negatively related.

Hypothesis 2c: High levels of social tactics increase the decline in job satisfaction during early employment. That is, social tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory are negatively related.

Curvilinear Effects by Socialization Tactics

Besides comparing two opposing linear effects, our research examines whether or not socialization tactics can exert *curvilinear* effects on newcomer demoralization. Closer inspection of Boswell et al.'s (2009; Figure 3, p. 853) finding that intensive socialization quickens the pace of satisfaction declines reveals that well-socialized newcomers maintain their elevated job satisfaction throughout the first year of employment. Apparently, high socialization content can help buffer newcomers against the hangover effect. Extending this intriguing finding, we investigate whether socialization tactics exert buffering effects at higher rather than lower levels of execution. That is, while lower levels of socialization tactics may increase the descent rate for

job satisfaction, much higher levels may actually slow down this rate, as Boswell et al. (2009) initially envisioned. Although curvilinearity has yet to be tested (to our knowledge), its assessment can help reconcile the aggravated hangover and attenuated hangover effects as the former may emerge when tactics are low, while the latter may emerge when tactics are high.

In essence, we propose that while offering some (low to moderate) socialization tactics could aggravate hangover as described above, offering very high levels of socialization tactics may attenuate hangover for two reasons. One is that it may take a certain threshold of organizational efforts to overcome the natural tendency for newcomer attitudes to come down from an initial high point. Offering low to moderate socialization tactics may simply raise expectations regarding organizational concern for the newcomer, without actually going sufficiently far in helping the newcomer reduce uncertainty, form relationships, master tasks, and adjust to the new environment. Extensive socialization tactics, on the other hand, may raise expectations, but may also deliver on those promises and provide the adjustment resources necessary to slow the rate of hangover.

The other is that very high levels of socialization may signal something qualitatively different about the organizational context necessary to slow the rate of hangover. Offering low to moderate socialization tactics likely represents common organizational practice. Extensive socialization tactics, on the other hand, may signal that the organization and/or managers care a great deal about newcomers and about helping newcomers adjust. We think it is likely that signaling this type of support could be associated in newcomers' minds with a higher likelihood that the organization will follow through on promised obligations and be more likely to offer a whole range of supportive human resource practices that facilitate newcomer adjustment (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). For example, employers implementing high socialization tactics may

truly implement a fixed timetable of training and developmental experiences such that what

newcomers have been foretold during orientation (content tactic) will come to fruition.

Supportive employers may also insure that formal training and orientation with hiring cohorts

(context tactic) better prepare them to assume their new job duties and integrate with their new

colleagues. Further, benevolent organizations may assign higher-quality mentors (i.e., qualified

experienced incumbents; Ragins, Ehrhardt, Lyness, Murphy & Capman, 2017) who can most

assist newcomers during their adaptation and insure that organizational members will value or

respect their unique identity. Based on this reasoning, we test:

> *Hypothesis 2d*: High rather than low levels of content tactics reduce the rate of declining
>
> job satisfaction during early employment. That is, there are curvilinear relationships
>
> between content tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory.
>
> *Hypothesis 2e*: High rather than low levels of context tactics reduce the rate of decline in
>
> job satisfaction during early employment. That is, there are curvilinear relationships
>
> between context tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory.
>
> *Hypothesis 2f*: High rather than low levels of social tactics reduce the rate of declining in
>
> job satisfaction during early employment. That is, there are curvilinear relationships
>
> between social tactics and the job satisfaction trajectory.

Relationship between Job Satisfaction Trajectory and Turnover Intention Trajectory

Following emerging dynamic models postulating that the trajectory of quit intentions

mediates how attitudinal shifts prompt leaving (Bentein et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011), we

additionally contend that a decreasing trajectory of job satisfaction is inversely related to an

escalating trend of quit intentions. Based on sense-making and conservation-of-resource (COR)

theories, Chen and colleagues (2011) argued that steep declines in job satisfaction arouse more

stress because employee form expectations that such decreases will persist into the foreseeable future and engender greater resource losses. Consequently, newcomers develop more extreme decisions to leave such circumstances as their satisfaction plummets over time. In support, Chen et al. (2011) documented that quit intentions climb when job satisfaction falls. We thus propose:

> *Hypothesis 3*: The greater the rate of declining job satisfaction, the greater the rate of increasing turnover intention. That is, the job-satisfaction and turnover-intention trajectories are inversely related.

Relationship between Turnover Intention Trajectory and Quit

In keeping with recent turnover models of affect dynamics, we further hold that intensifying quit intentions over time foreshadows actual turnover (Bentein et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011). Quite likely, progressively extreme intentions to quit may develop a momentum of their own ("proceeding without any further causal impetus") that eventually culminates into leaving (Hom & Griffeth, 1991, p. 360). That is, turnover decisions crystallize as prospective leavers publicly announce plans to quit (e.g., notifying friends or family; Klotz & Bolino, 2016) and undertake costly or time-consuming steps to leave (e.g., job interviews, putting home up for sale; Steel, 2002). By so doing, they commit themselves to this course of action (Salencik, 1977), making reversal of this decision evermore difficult (due to face saving and sunk costs). As Ashforth (2001) put it, "Once an individual is psychologically committed to exiting, he or she becomes adept at interpreting and reinterpreting circumstances in a way that supports the decision" (p. 118). Such momentum toward leaving is consonant with the progression-of-withdrawal phenomenon that prospective leavers engage in more extreme withdrawal actions before leaving (Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Given these converging lines of reasoning (Hom & Griffeth, 1991) and findings (Bentein et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011), we put forth:

Hypothesis 4: An increasing trajectory of turnover intention trajectory is positively

related to voluntary turnover behavior.

Because our hypotheses jointly imply *indirect effects* for socialization tactics, we also

articulate and test mediating hypotheses. We assert that job satisfaction and turnover intention

trajectories are prime mediating mechanisms for several reasons. First, prevailing turnover

theory and research on attitudinal trajectories (e.g., Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012) have

identified them as important proximal antecedents to turnover (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman,

2010; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Second, socialization meta-analyses

show that job satisfaction predicts quit intentions and turnover more strongly than do

socialization tactics and that socialization tactics predict job satisfaction more strongly than do

quit intentions (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). Further, job satisfaction predicts turnover

intentions more accurately than do socialization tactics, while turnover intentions predicts

turnover more accurately than do socialization tactics (Bauer et al., 2007).

More precisely, we put forth two competing indirect effects based on the foregoing

evidence and theory. That is, extant theories and findings on socialization tactics and turnover

imply dampening hangover effects whereby tactics would diminish the rate of deteriorating job

satisfaction, which in turn would lower the rate of rising quit intentions and thus quits.

Alternatively, Boswell et al.'s (2009) "stronger honeymoon, stronger hangover" thesis implies

exacerbating hangover effects such that socialization tactics would increase the rate of job-

satisfaction descent, thereby increasing an ascending rate of quit intentions and quit likelihood.

We thus evaluate the competing hypotheses about indirect effects below:

Hypothesis 5a: Job-satisfaction trajectory mediates the positive effects of socialization

tactics on the turnover intention trajectory and turnover.

Hypothesis 5b: Job-satisfaction trajectory mediates the negative effects of socialization tactics on the turnover intention trajectory and turnover.

Method

All newcomers of a large entertainment and gaming organization hired over a three-month period were invited to participate in panel surveys. They entered various jobs in the casino, restaurant, hotel, and engineering divisions across 27 different locations. We administered surveys during the second week of employment (Survey 1), the sixth week of work (Survey 2), the third month (Survey 3), and the sixth month (Survey 4). Socialization tactics were measured during Survey 1, while job satisfaction and turnover intentions were measured on all four surveys. Turnover information was collected from personnel records. Survey administrations were dictated by practical considerations and decisions by organizational authorities that deemed certain periods during newcomers' initial employment as warranting periodic checks of their progress (e.g., completed orientation within first two weeks of hire). Our measurement timing was similar to socialization research (which typically collect data 1 week post entry and six months later, Bauer et al., 2007) and best captured the hangover effect that transpires during the first six months of employment (cf. Boswell et al., 2009). Zhu et al. (2015) similarly timed their panel surveys to assess newcomers at crucial milestones during their early employment.

The organization hired 2,412 new employees during the first three months of our study. Omitting 131 who quit or were fired during the first two weeks of work, we mailed Survey 1 to the home addresses of the remaining 2,281 employees, of whom 645 responded (28.3% response rate). Later, 550 employees completed and returned Survey 2, 431 completed and returned Survey 3, and 283 completed and returned Survey 4. Statistical analyses focused on newcomers

who remain employed during their first three months as they were eligible respondents for

Surveys 1-3. We compared those completing at least one survey to those who did not complete

any surveys and found no significant age or gender differences (demographic data were obtained

from personnel records). We also detected no significant demographic differences between

respondents completing one survey and those completing two or more surveys. Among our study

participants, 52.4% were female, and mean age was 34.83 years.

Measures

Socialization tactics. Socialization tactics were assessed with Allen's (2006) abbreviated

version of Jones' (1986) scale with Likert-type response (1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly

agree). Content tactics were measured with six items, such as "I have been very involved with

other new hires in similar job-related training activities" (α = .78). Context tactics were measured

with five items, such as "There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another" and "one

job assignment leads to another in this organization" (α = .64). Social tactics were measured with

six items, such as "From observing my senior co-workers, I am gaining a clear understanding of

my role" (α = .72).

Job satisfaction trajectory. We measured job satisfaction with three items from

Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesch (1983). A sample item (paired with a Likert rating

ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree) is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job."

Reliability coefficients for this scale for all four periods were .82, .82, .84, and .88. Like Bliese

and Ployhart (2002), Chen et al. (2011) and Liu et al. (2012), we assessed job satisfaction

trajectory from Time 1 to Time 4 using Bayes slope estimate from Raudenberg and Bryk's

(2002) Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) program (which maximize *N*s when computing

growth parameters; Singer & Willett, 2003):

Level 1:   (1) Job satisfaction = α + β$_1$(Time) + r;

Level 2:   (2) α = γ$_{00}$ + u$_0$;

(3) β$_1$ = γ$_{10}$ + u$_1$;

Level-1 equation specifies job satisfaction as a linear function of time, whereas Level 2 equations estimate individual differences in slope and intercept parameters.

Turnover intention trajectory. Turnover intentions were measured with three questions from Hom and Griffeth (1991) and often used in turnover research (e.g. Vardaman, Taylor, Allen, Gondo, & Amis, 2015): *What are the chances that you will leave [organization name] in the near future?* (1-5, no chance, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 100%); *I intend to leave my organization in the near future?* (1-5, definitely not – definitely yes); *I intend to quit my present job* (1-5, definitely not – definitely yes). Reliability coefficients are .69, .85, .86, and .88 for the four measurement occasions. The trajectory of change in turnover intentions was measured using the same HLM method to assess the job satisfaction trajectory.

Voluntary turnover. Turnover data were collected from organizational records 16 months after we began data collection. After identifying which turnover cases were voluntary (via exit interviews with supervisors and human resources managers), our criterion was coded as 1s for voluntary quits and 0s for stayers.

Control variables. As mentioned earlier, we sampled newcomers who had remained employed for at least three months. To check potential bias, we compared socialization tactics and work complexity between our sample and newcomers leaving before three months of tenure. Work complexity was derived from the US Department of Labor's Occupational Information Network (O*NET) (Peterson et al., 2001) for a holistic way to analyze job characteristics (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). While finding no significant group differences for

socialization tactics, ANOVAs found work complexity to vary across samples. Thus, we controlled work complexity in subsequent analyses. We also controlled gender (0 = male, 1= female) and local unemployment rate in predicting voluntary turnover behaviors given their impact on leaving (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Based on workplace zip codes, we derived unemployment rates for the 27 different work locales from the U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics. Following past RCM research on job satisfaction trajectories, we also controlled average levels of job satisfaction and turnover intentions when predicting turnover intention trajectory and turnover (cf. Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012). By so doing, we can estimate the unique contributions by predictors' trajectories toward explaining outcome variance (e.g., voluntary turnover) beyond predictors' static scores.

Analysis Strategy

We used Mplus 7 (Muthens & Muthens, 2012) to test measurement and structural models. Because job satisfaction and turnover intentions were tracked over time, we used longitudinal confirmatory factor analysis (CFA; Vandenberg & Lance, 2000) to assess their indicators' measurement invariance (cf. Lance et al., 2000) (using robust maximum likelihood estimation). Such tests are crucial because observed changes in these variables may reflect artifactual shifts in the meaning or measurement of our variables (Zhu et al., 2015). On the whole, job-satisfaction items exhibited configural and metric invariance, while exhibiting minor partial scalar invariance (i.e., one item's intercept was stable across two occasions but differed on the third occasion). The "final" measurement model imposing configural and metric invariance (and partial scalar invariance) for job satisfaction fit data: RMSEA = .01; CFI = .99; and SRMR = .028. CFAs also showed that turnover intention items displayed configural, metric and scalar invariance as the final measurement model specifying complete measurement

invariance fit data well: RMSEA = .00, CFI = .99, SRMR = .033.

After deriving trajectory parameters from HLM, we tested an overall path model specifying that socialization tactics affect the job-satisfaction trajectory, which in turn influences the turnover-intention trajectory and thus turnover (see Figure 1). Because the dependent variable, turnover, is a categorical variable, we used weighted least squares means and variance adjusted estimation (WLSMV) in Mplus (Finney & DiStefano, 2006). To handle missing data, we used pairwise deletion of missing data for testing structural models in Mplus. According to Muthens and Muthens (2012), WLSMV estimation when data are missing at random with respect to X (i.e., MARX) generates unbiased estimates but also *more efficient* estimates than WLSMV estimation based on listwise deletion. We used the DIFF test in Mplus to compare nested structural models because conventional comparisons based on χ^2 differences are inappropriate for models estimated with WLSMV (Muthens & Muthens, 2012). Going beyond Baron-Kenny causal steps or Sobel test, we used bootstrapping analysis to construct corrected 95% confidence intervals for indirect effects to verify mediation (Hayes & Preacher, 2010).

Insert Figure 1 about here

Results

Hypothesis Testing

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1. The overall model in Figure 1 fit data well (Hu, & Bentler, 1998) with χ^2 (12) = 67.76, $p < .01$, RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) = .09, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .98, and Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .95. To further verify our hypothesized *full-mediation* path model (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman,

West, & Sheets, 2002), we also estimated alternative models positing partial mediation. These models specify direct effects from the three socialization tactics to the turnover intention trajectory and turnover behavior as well as a direct effect from the job-satisfaction trajectory to turnover behavior. These alternative models did not significantly improve model fit according to DIFF tests and their additional direct paths were not statistically significant.

Affirming the hangover effect generally, the average job satisfaction trajectory is negative (-.004). The average turnover intention trajectory is positive (.03), suggesting synchronous change for job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Hypotheses 1a-1c and 2a-2c represent competing hypotheses about how the three dimensions of socialization tactics influence the job satisfaction trajectory. As shown in Table 2, after controlling for average job-satisfaction levels and work complexity, content tactics were not significantly related to job satisfaction trajectory ($b = -.001$, $p = .24$). Yet context tactics were marginally significantly negatively related to job satisfaction trajectory ($b = -.001$, $p = .06$), while social tactics were significantly negatively related to job satisfaction trajectory ($b = -.003$, $p = .004$). In accord with Boswell et al.'s (2009) aggravated hangover thesis, social—and to a lesser degree—context socialization tactics *increased* the rate of declining job satisfaction. These results support Hypotheses 2b (marginally) and 2c. By contrast, these findings dispute Hypothesis 1a-1c positing that socialization tactics ameliorate the hangover effect.

Insert Table 1 & 2 about here

To check the differential effects of socialization tactics specified in Hypotheses 1d and 1e, we compared nested models, comparing a baseline model, which allows tactics to

dissimilarly affect the job-satisfaction trajectory, to a constrained model specifying two tactics to identically influence this trajectory. The DIFFTEST in Mplus comparing WLSMV-estimated models revealed no significant difference between the unconstrained baseline model and a model specifying content and context tactics to have equal effects: $\chi^2 = .027$ (1), $p > .05$ (disputing Hypothesis 1d). What is more, this test also rejected Hypothesis 1e, finding no significant difference between the baseline model and a model constraining content and social tactics to have identical effects: $\chi^2 = 1.251(1)$, $p > .05$. Contrary to our expectation and past cross-sectional research (Bauer et al., 2007), social and context socialization tactics do not shape the trajectory by which job satisfaction descends over time *more* than do content socialization tactics.

We further tested curvilinear effects by socialization tactics proposed by Hypotheses 2d-2f. All squared terms of content, context and social were entered into the analysis separately (to lessen multicollinearity) and all of them are significant ($b = .001, .001$ and $.003$ respectively, all the *p values* $< .01$). Figure 2 plots these curvilinear effects. Curvilinear tests indicate that socialization tactics are inversely related to the job-satisfaction trajectory when tactic levels are low to moderate levels. In other words, the rate of declining job satisfaction *increases* (or hangover effect worsens) as socialization tactics increase from low to moderate levels. After a certain (moderate) level however, high socialization tactics start to lessen satisfaction declines, dampening the hangover effect. Therefore, Hypotheses 2d-2f received support.

Hypothesis 3 posits that the job satisfaction trajectory is negatively related to the turnover intention trajectory. As shown in Path *b* in Table 3, job satisfaction trajectory was inversely related to the turnover intention trajectory ($b = -.1.11$, $p < .05$), corroborating Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 asserts that an increasing turnover intention trajectory is positively related to voluntary turnover behavior. In support, turnover intention trajectory was positively related to

newcomers' voluntary turnover behavior ($b = 4.69$, $p < .01$; Table 3). Hypothesis 5 proposes that

satisfaction and quit-intention trajectories mediate how socialization tactics affect turnover.

Table 3 presents estimated indirect effects from the three socialization tactics to turnover

behavior and their bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs). According to Table 3, the

indirect effect for the social socialization tactics → job satisfaction trajectory→ turnover

intention trajectory → voluntary turnover paths was .014 ($p < .05$, 95% CI = .004 to 0.046). The

95% confidence interval for this indirect effect omits zero. By contrast, confidence intervals for

indirect effects by context and content tactics *include* zero (see Table 3). Thus, Hypothesis 5b

received partial support, whereas Hypothesis 5a was disconfirmed. All told, the job-satisfaction

and quit-intention trajectories translate how social socialization tactics *increase* actual turnover,

indicative of aggravated hangover effects. To further validate our results, we retested our

hypotheses using only newcomers who stayed long enough to participate in the fourth survey

(i.e., sixth month of employment) and uncovered similar results.

Insert Table 3 & Figure 2 about here

Post Hoc Analysis

    Instantaneous indirect effects. Curvilinear effects of socialization tactics on the job-

satisfaction trajectory in Table 2 suggest "instantaneous indirect effects," whereby causal agents

manifest nonlinear effects on mediators (Hayes & Preacher, 2010). We thus estimated how the

indirect effects on turnover behavior vary across three levels of each socialization tactic with

Hayes and Preacher's (2010) method. Estimated indirect effects in Table 4 indicate that none of

the indirect effects by low, medium, and high levels of content socialization tactics were

statistically significant. That is, all three confidence intervals included zero. The only significant indirect effect for context socialization tactics appeared at low levels of these tactics. Low context tactics exhibited a significant positive relationship with turnover through job-satisfaction and turnover-intention trajectories ($b = .009$, 95% CI is .001 to .059). At higher or medium levels, context socialization tactics did not influence turnover indirectly.

Table 4 reports a different pattern for social socialization tactics. At low levels, social socialization tactics exerted a significant positive indirect effect on turnover through job satisfaction and turnover intention trajectories ($b = .045$, 95% CI is .007 to .584). At high levels however, social socialization tactics displayed a significant *negative* indirect effect on turnover ($b = -.033$, 95% CI is -.133 to -.004). By contrast, medium levels of social tactics manifested no statistically significant indirect effects on turnover. Remarkably, social socialization tactics can actually *reverse* the impact of the hangover effect and thereby lessen the likelihood of newcomer departures if they are implemented at sufficiently high levels.

Insert Table 4 about here

Possible other mediators. To determine whether the change trajectories of job satisfaction and turnover intentions can still translate the effects of socialization tactics when other mediators are controlled, we carried out a supplementary analysis that includes variables in our path model that Allen and Shanock (2013) had identified as translating the influence of socialization tactics. That is, our expanded path model controlled perceived organizational support (measured at Time 2 using an 9-item scale from Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), on-the-job embeddedness (measured at Time 2, using 9-item embeddedness scale

from Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001), and affective commitment (measured at Time 3 with 9 items from Organizational Commitment Questionnaire that omit questions about turnover intentions; Bozeman & Perrewe, 2001; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Inclusion of these additional mediators into the path model did not alter our original findings.

Discussion

Our investigation of the hangover effect corroborates Boswell et al.'s (2009) aggravated hangover finding that socialization can exacerbate the hangover effect. Extending their preliminary test, we found that social socialization tactics (and context socialization for some extent) boost a declining trajectory of job satisfaction among new hires (Table 2). Refining this thesis, we further demonstrated that all three socialization tactics are curvilinearly related to the declining attitudinal trajectory such they dampen the rate of decline at high levels (attenuating the hangover effect; see Figure 2). Indeed, statistical tests of "instantaneous indirect effects" further revealed that *high* social socialization tactics can reduce the likelihood of newcomer attrition via an increasing job-satisfaction trajectory and a decreasing quit-intention trajectory (Table 4).

Our findings extend socialization and turnover research in several ways. First, our study is the first to show—to our knowledge—that socialization tactics can affect the hangover effect, though in ways not anticipated by prevailing theory and cross-sectional research on socialization tactics (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). Sustaining Boswell et al.'s (2009) aggravated hangover thesis, we demonstrated that socialization tactics can bolster the rate of job satisfaction decline among newcomers. Beginning employees may form higher attitudes upon learning new knowledge and skills during orientation (context tactics), receiving supportive mentoring (social tactic), and understanding identifiable steps in the training process and career paths (content

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tactic). Yet this euphoria sets the stage for a greater ensuing hangover as newcomer attitudes may fall more drastically as normalization sets in (while the job's novelty wears off) and they confront disagreeable features of the job (Boswell et al., 2009; Sparacino, 2015). All the same, other findings qualify Boswell et al.'s (2009) thesis by establishing that socialization tactics actually manifest (heretofore overlooked) curvilinear effects on the job satisfaction trajectory. *High* levels of socialization tactics reduce the hangover effect for newcomers (see Figure 2). Indeed, our analysis of instantaneous indirect effects showed that firms furnishing high-quality mentoring and encouraging authentic self-expression among newcomers (high social tactics) can diminish newcomer quits (see Table 4).

Although our tests did not detect differential effects by the three socialization tactics on the job satisfaction trajectory (refuting Hypotheses 1d and 1e), supplemental analyses did uncover their dissimilar curvilinear effects on this trajectory. We compared a nested model constraining two tactics to have identical quadratic effects on the job-satisfaction trajectory to a less constrained model permitting tactics to exert dissimilar effects. The DIFFTEST disclosed that both the model imposing equality constraints on quadratic effects for social and content tactics ($\chi^2 = 6.845[1]$, $p < .05$) and the model imposing equality constraints on quadratic effects for social and context tactics ($\chi^2 = 9.366 [1]$, $p < .05$) fit *worse* than the baseline model. Put differently, high social tactics slowed the rate of falling job satisfaction more than did high content and context tactics (see Figure 3). Perhaps, content and context tactics engender fewer and more ephemeral resources for newcomers than do social tactics. After all, they are knowledge-based, whereas social tactics can deliver additional benefits, such as social capital and sense of belonging, beyond informational gain.

Besides this, our inquiry revealed that the job satisfaction trajectory mediates how socialization tactics affect turnover. Previous research on intervening mechanisms underlying socialization tactics assessed mediators on one occasion (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Bauer et al., 2007). By contrast, we monitored how a mediator changes over time and showed that its trajectory can translate the impact of socialization tactics on leaving. Exploring how socialization tactics mobilize change in intervening variables lends more insight into the psychological process by which they work as well as strengthen causal inference based on dynamic mediation (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007; Mobley, 1982; Pitariu & Polyhart, 2010; Zhu et al., 2015).

Further, this study demonstrated how the trajectory of change in job attitudes can mediate how distal antecedents influence turnover. Investigations into temporal fluctuations in job attitudes--whether "displacement" (Hsee & Abelson, 1991) (Porter et al., 1976; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983) or change trajectory (Bentein et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011; Vandenberg, Lance, & Self, 2000)—primarily assess their ability to foreshadow quit propensity. By linking attitudinal changes both to distal causes (e.g., socialization tactics) and quit propensity, we corroborate a basic assumption behind prevailing turnover perspectives specifying job satisfaction—and by implication, its temporal change—as a central mediator translating the effects of distal causes (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Mobley et al., 1979; Price & Mueller, 1981). In addition, our research adds to the sparse but mounting evidence that a decreasing trajectory in job satisfaction can reinforce leaving (Chen et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012). Such emerging findings challenge present-day conclusions that critical events prompting mental deliberations about leaving ("shocks"; Lee & Mitchell, 1994) are responsible for most turnover (Holtom et al.,

2008). Rather, dynamic studies suggest that prevailing evidence based on static levels of job satisfaction understate its impact by overlooking its trajectory effects (Liu et al., 2012).

Further, we demonstrated that *individual variation* in the hangover effect can culminate into differential quit propensities. Our approach extends earlier work on the honeymoon-hangover effect, which showed that for job changers, their average level of satisfaction with their current job exceeds their average satisfaction with a past job they had left (Boswell et al., 2005) or that newcomers' average levels of satisfaction steadily decline during their first year (Boswell et al., 2009). Going beyond prior comparisons of static (mean) job-satisfaction scores, our findings revealed that individual differences in newcomers' decreasing trajectory of change for job satisfaction (i.e., within-person variation) can predict variability in their quit behaviors (Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Glomb, & Ahlburg, 2005; Liu et al., 2012).

Finally, we furnish additional generalization to the hangover literature (Boswell et al., 2005; 2009). We examined the hangover effect and an intervening mechanism translating its impact onto turnover in multiple settings and multiple jobs in another industry. Such broad sampling of jobs and communities help to generalize the hangover effect.

Study Limitations and Future Research

Our study has several limitations. First, we assessed trajectories for job satisfaction and quit intentions on the same occasions, assessing their dynamic relationship contemporaneously. Though not uncommon (Bentein et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2011), future panel research might assess trajectories on different (multiple) occasions. Introducing a time lag between their assessments would strengthen evidence for their causal order. Moreover, socialization studies have aggregated socialization tactics in different ways. Some authors used three dimensions (Jones, 1986), some used six sub-dimensions (Allen, 2006), while others have combined all

socialization tactics into one composite (Jones, 1986). While CFA corroborated a three-factor structure in our data, future study might consider alternative dimensional structures for socialization tactics (Cable et al., 2013). Further, we tested only one mediating mechanism but others have been envisioned as well (e.g., role clarity; Saks et al., 2007). More research is warranted to test the relative validity of different (or additional) intervening mechanisms. For example, more proximal mediators (that emerge after experiencing socialization tactics) may translate the effects of socialization tactics onto job satisfaction (e.g., self-efficacy, social acceptance; Bauer et al., 2007). Future investigations might consider personality moderators of socialization tactics, such as newcomers' proactive personality (Cable et al., 2013).

Lastly, our statistical analyses did not account for nonindependent observations as our sample was drawn from 27 different locations. To address this limitation, we retested our path model by including dummy variables to represent locales. Controlling for locations however uncovered similar results. We also tested a multilevel path model with location as a level-2 clustering variable with and represented our model with level 1 variables (though using robust maximum likelihood [ML], specifying turnover as a categorical variable). Our results remained the same. Therefore, our results appear robust despite non-independence of observations. We thus report our original unilevel model estimated by WLSMV (given its ability to handle dichotomous outcomes and missing data; Byrne, 2013; Muthens & Muthens, 2012) rather than the multilevel ML-estimated model based on a level-2 N less than prescribed (e.g., 30-50; Kreft & De Leeuw, 1998; Mass & Hox, 2005).

Our study yields several practical implications. First, we suggest that organizations cautiously implement socialization tactics as they might exacerbate the hangover effect. Perhaps they might combine socialization tactics with realistic job previews or expectation-lowering

procedures to preempt or inoculate against reality shock (Buckley, Mobbs, Mendoza, Novicevic, Carraher, & Bleu, 2002; Griffeth & Hom, 2001). Moreover, the current investigation revealed social socialization tactics to represent the most effective approach, especially if implemented at high levels. Organizations can help newcomers adapt best by strongly affirming their incoming identities (Cable et al., 2013) and furnishing high-quality mentors, especially during their early employment (Ragins et al., 2017). Further, we suggest closely monitoring newcomers' job attitudes during the encounter stage of socialization when the hangover effect transpires. As noted above, a declining trajectory of job satisfaction portends eventual departures. Although most firms that periodically track employee attitudes do so at aggregate levels (such as departments because their surveys are completed anonymously; Hom, 2011), managers might gauge whether or not individual subordinates are experiencing the hangover effect indirectly by monitoring emotional, verbal, or behavioral expressions. Just as exiting employees emit behavioral cues signaling future turnover (e.g., exhibit less effort; leave early from work more often; Gardner, Van Iddekinge, & Hom, 2016), newcomers afflicted by the hangover effect may display similar cues, such as complaining frequently about working conditions or showing less enthusiasm for their work.

Conclusion

Our study advances earlier research by exploring how socialization tactics can impact the hangover effect, a common plight plaguing newcomers. We established that socialization tactics boost the rate of declining job satisfaction among beginning employees. At high levels, they however can arrest newcomer deterioration in job satisfaction. In addition, we determined that the trajectory of change in job satisfaction can predict quit propensity as well as mediate the impact of socialization tactics. Our inquiry deepens understanding of this temporal phenomenon

but also identify prospective remedies for how organizations can prevent deteriorating job

satisfaction among newcomers and thus more effectively retain them.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Variables

Variables	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Unemployment rate	5.17	0.94	--														
2. Gender	0.52	0.50	.03	--													
3. Work complexity	63.59	10.53	.05	-.06	*.82*												
4. Content tactics	3.81	.75	-.02	.05	-.14**	*.78*											
5. Context tactics	4.01	.83	-.01	.04	-.14**	.54**	*.64*										
6. Social tactics	4.13	.75	-.04	.05	.01	.48**	.42**	*.72*									
7. Job satisfaction1	4.64	.66	-.02	.03	-.11**	.48**	.42**	.51**	*.82*								
8. Job satisfaction2	4.46	.80	-.07	-.05	-.05	.32**	.27**	.32**	.41**	*.82*							
9. Job satisfaction3	4.40	.83	-.09	-.05	-.03	.37**	.33**	.36**	.48**	.55**	*.84*						
10. Job satisfaction4	4.31	.91	.04	-.01	-.15*	.28**	.15*	.27**	.29**	.35**	.45**	*.88*					
11. Turnover intention1	1.52	.69	.05	-.08	-.02	-.22**	-.14**	-.30**	-.36**	-.37**	-.34**	-.22**	*.69*				
12. Turnover intention2	1.64	.80	.03	.03	.08	-.24**	-.15**	-.27**	-.32**	-.53**	-.53**	-.34**	.62**	*.85*			
13. Turnover intention3	1.74	.91	-.01	.09	.015	-.30**	-.18**	-.29**	-.34**	-.42**	-.61**	-.41**	.38**	.68**	*.86*		
14. Turnover intention4	1.84	1.02	-.02	.021	.13*	-.30**	-.15*	-.29**	-.24**	-.35**	-.49**	-.69**	.35**	.51**	.60**	*.88*	
15. Voluntary turnover	.21	.41	-.04	.03	.01	-.05	.01	-.00	-.03	-.16**	-.19**	-.21**	.07	.16**	.31**	.25**	1

Note. *N*s range from 645 to 283. Voluntary turnover: 1= quit; 0= stay.

Table 2

Path Coefficients for Path Models

	Dependent Variables					
Independent Variables	**Job Satisfaction Trajectory**				**Turnover Intention Trajectory**	**Voluntary Turnover**
Work complexity	.000	.000	.000	.000		
Average level of job satisfaction	$.041^{**}$	$.041^{**}$	$.041^{**}$	$.042^{**}$		
Content tactics	-.001	$-.014^{**}$	-.001	$-.002^{+}$		
Context tactics	$-.001^{+}$	-.001	$-.011^{**}$	-.001		
Social tactics	$-.003^{**}$	$-.003^{**}$	$-.003^{**}$	$-.037^{**}$		
Content tactics*content tactics		$.001^{*}$				
Context tactics*context tactics			$.001^{*}$			
Social tactics*social tactics				$.003^{**}$		
Work complexity					.000	
Average level of job satisfaction					$.036^{*}$	
Average level of turnover intention					$.028^{**}$	
Job satisfaction trajectory					-1.11^{*}	
Unemployment rate						-.043
Gender						$.218^{+}$
Work complexity						-.004
Average level of job satisfaction						-.002
Average level of turnover intention						.113
Turnover intention trajectory						4.69^{**}

Note. Unstandardized path coefficients are displayed. To better illustrate the difference between independent variables, we reported the first three decimals of each coefficient.

$^{+}p < .10$ $^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 3

Path Coefficients and Indirect Effects [a]

Path *a*	Path *b*	Path *c*	Indirect Effect (95% CI)
Content Tactics → Job Satisfaction Trajectory → Turnover Intention Trajectory → Voluntary Turnover			
-.001	-1.11*	4.69**	.006 (-.006, .025)
Context Tactics → Job Satisfaction Trajectory → Turnover Intention Trajectory → Voluntary Turnover			
-.001+	-1.11*	4.69**	.007 (-.002, .030)
Social Tactics → Job Satisfaction Trajectory → Turnover Intention Trajectory → Voluntary Turnover			
-.003**	-1.11*	4.69**	.014* (.004, .046)

Note. Bootstrapping = 10,000 trials. CI = confidence intervals.

[a]Unstandardized path coefficients are reported in the first three columns. Path *a* represents the path from socialization tactic to job-satisfaction trajectory. Path *b* represents the path from job-satisfaction trajectory to turnover-intention trajectory. Path c represents the path from turnover-intention trajectory to voluntary turnover behavior.

+$p < .10$ *$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ ***$p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 4

Instantaneous Indirect Effects of Socialization Tactics on Turnover via Job Satisfaction and Turnover Intentions Trajectory at Low (-1 SD), Medium (Mean), and High (+1 SD) Levels of Socialization Tactics

Varying Levels of Socialization Tactics	Coefficients	95% Confidence Intervals
Low Content Tactics	.019	(-.002, .302)
Medium Content Tactics	.004	(-.016, .212)
High Content Tactics	-.010	(-.068, .040)
Low Context Tactics	.009*	(.001, .059)
Medium Context Tactics	.001	(-.009, .026)
High Context Tactics	-.006	(-.042, .007)
Low Social Tactics	.045**	(.007, .584)
Medium Social Tactics	.006	(-.010, .434)
High Social Tactics	-.033**	(-.133, -.004)

Note. Bootstrapping = 10,000 trials.

$^*p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Figure 1

Socialization Tactics' Effects on Turnover via the Hangover Effect
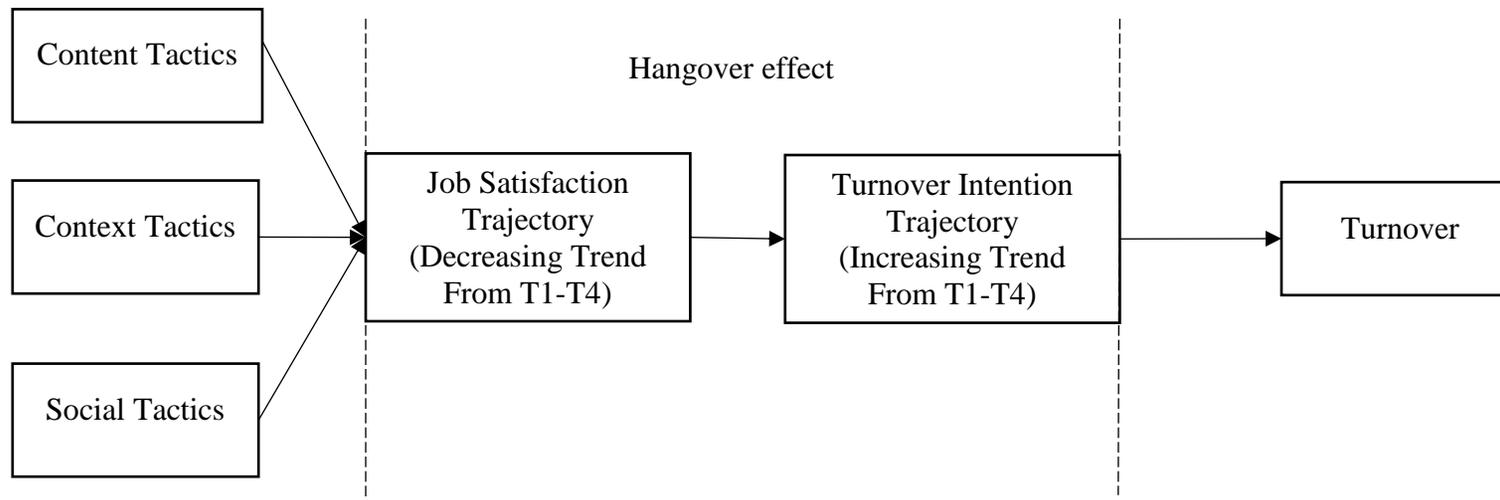
Note. Control variables (i.e., average levels of job satisfaction, average levels of turnover intention, work complexity, gender and unemployment rate) are omitted for the sake of clarity. The three socialization tactics, job satisfaction and turnover intention measures have a scale from 1-5. The average level of job satisfaction trajectory is -.004, ranging from -.151 to .047; the average level of turnover intention trajectory is .026, ranging from -.259 to .205.

Figure 2

Curvilinear Effects of Socialization Tactics on the Change Trajectory of Job Satisfaction
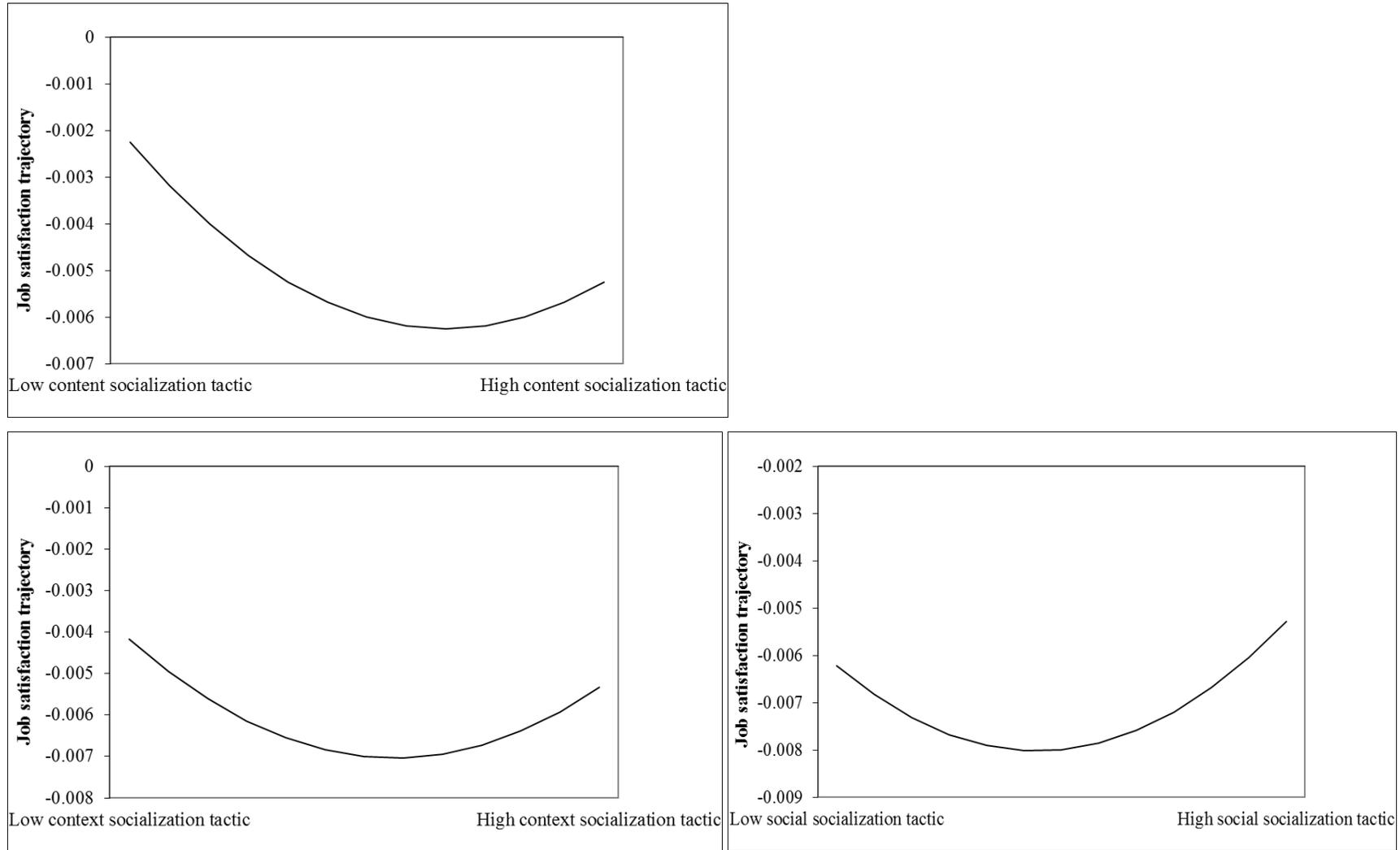
Note: The figures were generated based on the squared terms of three socilziation tactics controlling for the linear effects.