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Suggested Reference
Cooper-Thomas, H. D., & Wilson, M. G. (2011). Influences on Newcomers' Adjustment Tactic Use. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 19*(4), 388-404. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2389.2011.00567.x

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Influences on newcomers' adjustment tactic use

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Acknowledgements: The authors would like to thank Marcus Ho and Rachel Morrison for their constructive comments on an earlier draft of this article.

Influences on newcomers' adjustment tactic use

In recent years, organizational socialization research has focused increasingly on the tactics that newcomers use to guide their own adjustment. Various subsets of adjustment tactics have been studied, with minimal rationale as to why newcomers would use different behaviors. We present a typology for newcomer adjustment tactics, comprising opportunistic, self-determined, and shared behaviors, to categorize and integrate all newcomer adjustment tactics identified to date. Next, we propose a model in which tactic use is a function of cost-benefit analyses – on performance, ego, and social dimensions – influenced by individual and contextual factors. This integrates the diverse literatures on socialization, adjustment, information seeking, feedback seeking, and coping. Integrating our initial tactics categorization and the cost-benefit model, we present a robust set of propositions that inform newcomers' perceptions and use of adjustment tactics. We conclude by presenting theoretical and practical implications for newcomer adjustment.

Keywords: newcomer adjustment, organizational socialization, onboarding, proactive behavior, information seeking, organizational entry

Being a new employee at an organization necessarily means that one is novice in some domains relevant to the new work role, with a period of learning and adjustment necessary prior to becoming an insider (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011; Rollag, 2007). Changes occurring during this period of organizational socialization include learning the role, getting to know colleagues, and understanding the organization's culture and norms. Recent meta-analyses of the organizational socialization process have confirmed the important role of the tactics that organizations use to socialize newcomers (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Saks, Uggerlev, & Fassina, 2007). Alongside this there has been an increased focus on of the actions of individuals, including how insiders facilitate newcomer adjustment (Reichers, 1987; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Cooper-Thomas, 2009), and especially on the behaviors that newcomers use (Major & Kozlowski, 1997; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, in press). Indeed, Saks et al. (2007) showed that organizational socialization tactics have less influence for experienced newcomers, potentially due to such newcomers' greater work experience and, in turn, reliance on their own actions.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a more robust and comprehensive theoretical framework to explain newcomers' use of various adjustment tactics. In this paper, "newcomers" refers to those new to an organization. Prior research has provided evidence that newcomers vary their tactic use according to what they are trying to achieve (Comer, 1991; Morrison, 1993b), and that tactic use changes with tenure (Ashford, 1986), yet the theoretical basis for predicting tactic use remains fragmented (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Typically, researchers investigate a subset of tactics, such as Ashford and Black's (1996) proactive behaviors or Morrison's (1993a, b) inquiry, monitoring, and consulting written materials from different sources. To date, there has been no underlying model as to why specific tactics are more strongly associated with different criteria, apart from a match on the content, such as

performance feedback improving role clarity (Morrison, 1993a) or information seeking behavior being associated with greater information being gathered (Saks et al., in press). Overall, there is consistent evidence that greater newcomer activity is associated with better outcomes (Ashford & Black, 1996), which aligns with the benefits of employee proactivity in general (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Moreover, predictions regarding the differential effects of tactic use are only partially confirmed (Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), suggesting a need for better theory. To address this, we draw on the newcomer adjustment and feedback seeking literatures in particular, to develop ideas regarding the costs and benefits associated with tactic use. Further, we present a classification of newcomer adjustment tactics, which integrates a wide range of previously identified behaviors from various literatures. We integrate the model and tactics to propose testable research propositions.

This paper is organized into six sections. First, we present a categorization of newcomer adjustment tactics as opportunistic, shared, or self-determined. Second, we introduce the role of perceived costs and benefits influencing tactic use. Third, we present the relationships between perceived costs and benefits and adjustment tactics. Fourth, we present individual factors that influence tactic use and, fifth, we present the role and organization context factors that affect tactic use. Last, we summarize and discuss the material presented, including theoretical and practical implications.

A Categorization of Newcomer Adjustment Tactics

At organizational entry, newcomers face the task of adjusting to their new organization, to achieve outcomes of individual wellbeing, positive work attitudes, and performance (Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, & Anderson, 2004; Kammeyer-Mueller, Livingston, & Liao, 2011; Saks, 1995). While organizations may provide training and development experiences to support newcomers, such as organizational socialization tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Jones,

1986; Saks et al., 2007), and mentoring and buddy systems (Baranik, Roling, & Eby, 2010; Chao, 2007; Slaughter & Zickar, 2006), it is often up to the newcomer to make use of these resources through various tactical behaviors (Wanberg, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Marchese, 2006). Indeed, "veteran" newcomers account for the majority of new employees (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006; Carr, Pearson, Vest, & Boyar, 2006), and are less influenced by organizational socialization tactics (Saks et al., 2007). Employees in general are taking more personal responsibility for their careers (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009), relying more on their own actions to achieve adjustment (Beyer & Hannah, 2002) and striving toward their own career goals (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

Researchers have identified a diverse range of tactics used by both newcomers and longer-serving employees to achieve work-related goals. These tactics have been characterized by proactivity (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks et al., in press), behavioral self-management (Saks & Ashforth, 1996), coping (Feldman & Brett, 1983), social dimensions (Morrison, 2002b), information seeking (Miller & Jablin, 1991), and feedback seeking (Anseel, Lievens, & Levy, 2007; Ashford & Cummings, 1983). While this rich theoretical background reflects the complexity of the adjustment task for newcomers, and the multiple possible behaviors to achieve adjustment, a unifying framework is required. A clear categorization has benefits including the elimination of redundancies (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley & Gilstrap, 2008), the provision of a consistent framework for theory development and empirical research, and a practical tool for all parties involved in newcomer adjustment. This is illustrated in other areas of tactic identification, such as expatriate adjustment (Stahl & Caliguiri, 2005), impression management (Bolino et al., 2008), and proactive behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010), where the diverse labels given to tactics can suggest a greater range and diversity of distinct behaviors than actually exist. The value of a theoretically robust categorization in newcomer research is highlighted by the

ongoing utility of Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) typology of organizational socialization tactics (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007). Hence, we offer a categorization of newcomer adjustment tactics here, and subsequently show the utility of the resulting categories for theorizing.

Several options for categorizing newcomer adjustment tactics exist from past research. One possibility is to use the passive versus active distinction, introduced by Ashford and Cummings (1983). While these two broad categories encompass a range of adjustment tactics identified to date, there remain ambiguities and limitations in classifying some of the adjustment tactics. For example, if a newcomer carefully observes who is included in meetings or social gatherings (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), is this passive or active? An additional issue is the inability of this approach to classify proactive tactics, such as networking (Ashford & Black, 1996; Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Such self-starting behaviors arguably go beyond others in the active category.

A second option for classifying tactics is the overt – covert distinction developed by Miller and Jablin (1991). Overt tactics involve the newcomer directly interacting with an information target with an obvious information-seeking intention, for example using direct inquiry. In contrast, unobservable tactics, such as disguising conversations, are covert (Miller & Jablin, 1991). There are several problems with this classification. First, regardless of the newcomer's intentions of being covert, insiders may see through this, confounding the classification. Second, a newcomer may wish to use some "covert" tactics overtly. Thus, a newcomer may wish to be seen monitoring others so that colleagues know that their experience is respected (Morrison & Bies, 1991). This distinction can only be used reliably either by asking the newcomer whether the tactic was intended to be overt or covert, or by asking colleagues

about their interpretation of tactic use, and acknowledging that these perceptions may differ. This seems overly complex and open to error.

Both of these categorizations, that is, levels of activity and visibility, vary with respect to relations between newcomers and insiders. This focus on newcomer-insider relations is a useful yet neglected emphasis in newcomer research (Cooper-Thomas, 2009; Slaughter & Zickar, 2006). Thus, building on the work of Ashford and Cummings (1983) and Miller and Jablin (1991), we propose three categories of adjustment tactics that vary in the degree of input from insiders and newcomers. The first category is opportunistic, where the newcomer makes use of opportunities and guidance provided by insiders, for example, through observing others or attending voluntary training (Cooper-Thomas, Anderson, & Cash, in press). When the organization's socialization tactics reflect an institutionalized process (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), this provides a structured learning environment in which opportunistic tactics may be easily used, with newcomers availing themselves of the clear direction and examples provided by insiders. The second category is shared, in which the newcomer and insiders jointly facilitate the newcomer's adjustment, either purposefully, such as in negotiating how a task may be completed, or more informally, such as through general socializing. The third category is self-determined, that is, those tactics where the newcomer actively shapes or uses the environment to facilitate adjustment. Examples of this category are tactics of experimenting and working longer hours. While these three categories differ in the initiation of the tactic, any one tactic may eventually involve another party. For example, a self-determined tactic of deciding to work long hours may ultimately result in more work for the newcomers' colleagues. Our categorization refers only to responsibility for the initiation of the tactic.

To provide an initial assessment of the utility of our tripartite categorization, we have used it to classify newcomer adjustment tactics identified in past research (Ashford & Black,

1996; Feldman & Brett, 1983). We did this by reviewing the literature on organizational socialization to identify all tactics that have been discovered in previous research so far to provide a comprehensive list, and classifying these based on each category's definition. As shown in Table 1, the three categories incorporate a wide range of adjustment tactics found in the literature. The typology also provides a relatively even distribution of the tactics across the categories, although fewer tactics are included within the opportunistic category. Further, the categorization allows for newly identified tactics to be incorporated. (Full descriptions of the tactics included in Table 1 are provided in Appendix A). We return to this categorization later in the paper, and next present a model of newcomer adjustment tactic use that incorporates newcomer adjustment tactics as one element.

Insert Table 1 about here

A Model of Newcomer Adjustment Tactic Use

There are three elements that influence newcomers' adjustment tactic use. First, a newcomer will vary as to how many tactics he or she knows about, drawing from those tactics shown in Table 1 above. For example, a newcomer with more work experience has had greater opportunity both to witness others using various adjustment tactics, and to try these tactics out. Based on these experiences, the newcomer will have a larger pool of adjustment tactics to draw on (Beyer & Hannah, 2002). A second influence is individual factors within the newcomer. For example, a newcomer who is more extraverted may be more comfortable with tactics that require interaction, such as general socializing, but be less willing to engage in tactics that necessitate patience, such as observing others (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). The third influence is role and organization context factors which constrain which tactics the newcomer perceives as feasible in their setting. For example, a newcomer with only a small number of experienced

colleagues nearby has reduced opportunities to ask questions or observe others (Major & Kozlowski, 1997).

These three elements –newcomer adjustment tactics, newcomer individual differences, and role and organization context factors – are shown as overlapping circles in Figure 1. Taking first the overlap between individual factors and the pool of newcomer tactics, a newcomer's willingness to use any specific newcomer tactic will be limited by factors such as her experience with using that tactic, and her confidence in her ability to use it successfully. This overlap between individual factors and known newcomer tactics relates to the area *a* + *b* in Figure 1. A second overlap in the model is between individual factors and the role and organization context. Thus, the newcomer will perceive that her abilities combined with her role and the broader organization context allow for certain behaviors (the area *a* + *d*). The third overlap is between the role and organization context and newcomer tactics (the area *a* + *c*), where the role and organization context provide boundary conditions on what tactics may be used. However, in all cases, only some of these tactics are available, that is, those in the area *a*. The remaining areas *b*, *c*, and *d* reflect wasted opportunities, where constraints limit tactics use. For example, in area *c* the role and context afford the opportunity for adjustment tactics, but individual factors prevent the newcomer from using them.

Insert Figure 1 about here

To illustrate the model, suppose that a newcomer wishes to change certain responsibilities of her new role. She may know about, and be confident in, her ability to use job change negotiation as a tactic (Ashford & Black, 1996), which would then fall within the area *a* + *b*. If she felt that she could enact this strategy in the organization context, for example that her supervisor would be open to her negotiating her job, then this tactic would be in area *a*. If she felt that the organization would frown upon such an assertive tactic, then the tactic would fall in

area *b*. Alternatively, if the newcomer believed that the organization would be open to job change, and was confident in her abilities, yet knew of no appropriate tactics, this would fall in area *d*. Finally, there might be tactics that the newcomer *could* use to manage the unwanted role responsibilities, and that the context would afford, but that the newcomer does not feel able to enact. In this case, such tactics remain unexploited in area *c*. It is important to note that the more that these three circles overlap, the larger area *a* becomes, and hence the more tactics that the newcomer has available to achieve adjustment. Next we examine perceived costs and benefits relating to tactic use, and then explain their influence in relation to Figure 1.

Perceived Costs and Benefits

In choosing how to achieve adjustment, the newcomer assesses the costs and benefits of available tactics that are afforded by the newcomer and his or her environment, that is, those in area *a* in Figure 1. Researchers have identified a range of factors that influence employee behaviors. Miller and Jablin (1991) propose uncertainty and social costs as instigators of newcomer tactic use. Research on employee feedback seeking focuses on three motives comprising ego protection or enhancement, social image management, and either desire to reduce uncertainty (Levy, Albright, Cawley, & Williams, 1995) or improve performance (Ashford et al., 2003). These are tied to research on the perceived costs and benefits of tactics, which influence decisions around tactic use (Ashford, 1986; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Reviewing the motives for proactive behavior, Grant and Ashford (2008) propose three psychological mechanisms that mediate the relationship of these situational antecedents with dispositional moderators. These are perceived image cost-benefit ratio, uncertainty reduction motivation, and experienced efficacy.

These previous models show that both positive and negative factors are considered by employees in choosing appropriate behaviors. Of the various terms used by prior researchers, we

choose the terms costs and benefits as these clearly reflect the fact that employees consider both advantages and disadvantages (Ashford et al., 2003; Jawahar, 2010; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). This contrasts with some research where the two aspects are not distinguished (Levy et al., 1995; Miller & Jablin, 1991), and makes it explicit that costs and benefits may both be present, and may not be balanced (Northcraft & Ashford, 1990).

Looking in more detail at the costs identified in past research, these include inference (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), effort (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983), attention and time (Ashford, 1986), self-presentation, self-esteem, and ego (Ashford, 1986, 1989; Fedor, Rensvold, & Adams, 1992; Levy et al., 1995; VandeWalle, 2003), and social and impression management (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison & Bies, 1991). Benefits include expectancy value (the belief that information will be useful for improving performance and developing abilities) (VandeWalle et al., 2000; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997), goal attainment (Ashford, 1986), uncertainty reduction (Ashford, 1986; Fedor et al., 1992; Levy et al., 1995), self-affirmation (Madzar, 2001), affect optimization (Battmann, 1988), self-presentation and self- or other-impression management (Larson, 1989; Levy et al., 1995; Morrison & Bies, 1991). As shown in Table 2, diverse names have been used in prior research. We classify these various costs and benefits as performance, ego, and social, using these terms because they are plain and therefore their subject is clear, and they are broad and hence encompass the underlying items. In the following paragraphs we provide a more detailed analysis of the content underlying of each of these six domains.

Insert Table 2 about here

Performance, Ego, and Social Costs

Performance costs include the time and effort taken away from current performance to enact a tactic, and the physical, cognitive and attentional exertion required to implement a tactic. For example, a newcomer who decides to use a tactic of direct inquiry of a colleague at a nearby location requires leaving the current task, seeing if the colleague is available, considering how to phrase the inquiry, making the inquiry, interpreting the answer, and integrating it with prior knowledge. Performance costs vary across different types of tactic. For example, monitoring has been proposed as having higher inference costs than more direct tactics such as inquiry (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; VandeWalle, 2003), and may also have greater time costs since monitoring may require a long period of observation before the observed persons show the behavior that the newcomer is interested in.

Ego costs relate to an individual's desire to maintain and defend their ego (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Morrison & Cummings, 1992). This also includes ideas of maintaining positive self-esteem (Larson, 1989; White, 1974), self-efficacy (Bandura, 2001) and core self-evaluations (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Ego costs may be incurred in the process of enacting a tactic, such as asking for feedback when a newcomer is unsure of performance, as well as the effects it has, such as dealing with criticism (Ashford, 1989; Butler, 1993). For this reason, employees tend to avoid negative information that may disconfirm a positive self-image (Larson, 1989; Tuckey, Brewer, & Williamson, 2002).

Social costs are most clearly related to observable tactics, since when an individual's behavior can be observed by others, it is open to interpretation (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Social costs include the risks of alienating colleagues (Miller, 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), violating social norms (Miller, 1996), revealing the individual's level of interpersonal skills (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), and areas of concern or weakness (Morrison & Bies, 1991). In addition, social costs include potential negative inferences about the newcomer tactic user's personality,

for example that she is anxious or unsure, and her motives, such as that she is attempting to ingratiate herself (Ashford, 1986, 1989; Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

Performance, Ego, and Social Benefits

Performance benefits may be the intended, distal goal for newcomers in using adjustment tactics (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Larson, 1989; Morrison & Cummings, 1992), especially as this is the primary determinant of whether new employees are retained (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Performance benefits as outcomes of tactic use include improved understanding of role, social and organizational requirements, correction of errors, and the provision of information about rewards (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Battmann, 1988; Ilgen, Fisher, & Taylor, 1979; Linderbaum & Levy, 2010). Research has confirmed a positive relationship between newcomer tactic use and the anticipated performance value of information (Fedor et al., 1992; VandeWalle et al., 2000), and also with performance-related outcomes such as job mastery and role clarity (Morrison, 1993a, b).

Ego benefits may be achieved both in using tactics and in their effects. A newcomer may experience improved self-efficacy and self-esteem when he or she successfully implements a tactic (Gist, Schwoerer, & Rosen, 1989), especially if she perceives the tactic as novel or difficult. Ego benefits from the effects of tactic use may include the sense of personal success in understanding the role or organization better (VandeWalle et al., 2000), or through receiving positive feedback (Battmann, 1988). Indirect evidence for ego benefits comes from research showing a positive association between tactic use and positive attitudes, such that tactic use has benefits for the individual's view of how they fit with their role and the organization. For example, feedback seeking has been found to be positively associated with job satisfaction and person-organization fit, and negatively associated with intent to quit (Kim et al., 2005; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Similar to social costs, social benefits are primarily derived from observable tactics (Korte, 2010; Morrison, 2002a). An example of a social benefit is colleagues inferring positive attributes from a tactic such as feedback seeking, such as that the newcomer is perceived to be proactive or performance-oriented. Equally, tactics may have indirect social benefits. For example, deciding to attend optional training events may provide opportunities to get to know colleagues and develop a sense of belonging (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas et al., in press; Smith, Amiot, Callan, Terry, & Smith, in press). There is some specific evidence that newcomers' tactic use has social benefits, in that normative information seeking is positively associated with social integration (Morrison, 1993a), proving one's competence is associated with social inclusion (Feldman, 1976), and relationship-building predicts better social integration (Saks et al., in press; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

The Influence of Costs and Benefits on Tactic Use

Having described these performance, ego, and social costs and benefits, we return to Figure 1 to explain their influences. Overall, costs act as limiters, reducing the range of newcomer tactics that the newcomer perceives as available. These pressures are depicted as arrows pushing in on area *a*. In contrast, the benefits act as expanders, increasing the available tactics. This is shown by the arrows pulling out from area *a* to increase its size. More specifically, the three types of costs and benefits act on different boundaries of available newcomer adjustment tactics. In line with previous research, we view costs and benefits as motives and constraints influencing tactic use (Ashford et al., 2003; Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Performance costs and benefits are linked to the newcomer adjustment tactics boundary; ego costs and benefits are associated with the individual factors boundary; and social costs and benefits are connected to the role and organizational context boundary. Taking these costs and benefits in turn, performance costs and benefits influence what tactics are considered at the

boundary between individual factors and the role and organization context. The boundary occurs here because it represents what the tactics actually entail in terms of performance, in the context of the individual, and her role and workplace. In considering tactics that could be used to facilitate adjustment, if the newcomer considers that these pose a risk to her current performance in this context, these performance costs will push the boundary toward the centre, reducing area *a*. In contrast, where tactics are perceived as having performance benefits, the boundary will be pulled away from the centre increasing area *a*. Ego costs and benefits influence the boundary of individual factors in the context of the newcomer adjustment tactics and the role and organization context. This boundary represents the newcomer's confidence versus concerns about using a particular tactic. The fewer tactics that the newcomer feels capable of enacting in her specific context, the more the boundary is pushed towards the centre by these ego costs increasing area *c*. In contrast, the more tactics that the newcomer knows about and feels capable of enacting, the more that ego benefits enlarge area *a* and shrink area *c*. Finally, social costs and benefits influence the boundary of role and organization context, in the context of known newcomer tactics and individual factors. As the context is perceived as less hospitable, social costs will force the boundary of tactics inwards to shrink the number of available tactics. In contrast, a more open and supportive role and organization context increases the social benefits of tactics use, enlarging the range of possible tactics. Focusing just on area *a*, which depicts the pool of available newcomer tactics, this can be seen as a misshapen triangle, with performance, ego, and social costs and benefits simultaneously molding it and determining its overall size.

The Relative Influence of Costs and Benefits

Existing models have considered many of these costs and benefits individually, and the research emphasis has remained on costs rather than benefits. This demonstrates both that costs are salient considerations (Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Fedor et al., 1992; Miller & Jablin,

1991; VandeWalle, 2003), and parallels the more general risk aversion of individuals (Bryant & Dunford, 2008; Tversky & Fox, 1995; Tversky & Kahneman, 1986, 1991; Wyatt, 1990).

In line with research on feedback seeking (Anseel et al., 2007; Ashford & Cummings, 1983), we propose that, prior to using a tactic the newcomer assesses the different types of costs and benefits. Performance, ego, and social concerns exist in tension with each other in the workplace, such that a benefit in one area risks a cost in the same or another area (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). Of these, performance is the priority area because it is critical to obtaining rewards, opportunities, and ultimately continuation in the role (Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Taylor, 1990, Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). With regard to the primacy of ego versus social, sociometer theory (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) proposes that individuals anticipate a level of social acceptance and, from this, decide on behaviors that put their self-esteem more or less at risk, and there is some evidence for this (Anthony, Wood, & Holmes, 2007). On the other hand, people have a high desire to protect their ego (Ashford & Taylor, 1990), with self-impression management being a more fundamental individual goal than other-impression management (Larson, 1989, p.418, see also Butler, 1993). On balance, the evidence from organizational contexts suggests that ego concerns will affect tactic use more than social concerns. Thus, combining the primacy of costs with the hierarchy of referents, we propose that newcomers take into account performance, ego, and social costs primarily, and in that order, and secondarily consider performance, ego, and social benefits.

Proposition 1: Perceptions of costs will be more influential on tactic use than perceptions of benefits.

Proposition 2: Performance costs will weigh more heavily in newcomers' decisions regarding tactic use than ego costs, and both will outweigh social costs.

Proposition 3: Performance benefits will weigh more heavily in newcomers' decisions regarding tactic use than ego benefits, and both will outweigh social benefits.

The Relationship of Perceived Costs and Benefits with Newcomer Tactics

We have presented categorizations of both newcomer adjustment tactics and perceived costs and benefits affecting their use. The next stage is to integrate these to explore how costs and benefits may vary across the different categories of newcomer tactic. Broadly speaking, performance, ego, and social costs and benefits will be lower for more opportunistic tactics (e.g., monitoring), moderate for shared tactics (e.g., relationship building), and higher for more self-determined tactics (e.g., experimenting). This is because these represent gradually higher levels of risk and uncertainty. Opportunistic tactics rely on resources provided and therefore are likely to be easier to execute and have more certain benefits that align with organizationally sanctioned ways of working. Shared tactics require more initiative from newcomers, yet are still likely to remain within organizational norms due to feedback from insiders involved in tactic enactment that will keep newcomers' behaviors within acceptable limits. Last, self-determined tactics are riskiest as there is no process for organizational norms to moderate and shape these at early stages or ensure that they meet organizationally sanctioned norms or agreed desirable outcomes. However, the benefits may also be greatest, allowing the newcomer to shape their place in the organization.

Insert Table 3 about here

We illustrate the relationships of costs and benefits across categories using exemplar tactics in Table 3. Much research has focused on monitoring (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993a, b), and therefore we use this as an example of an opportunistic tactic. For monitoring, performance costs include the time and

cognitive effort to monitor colleagues, and the further effort to make sense of information obtained (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1983). Since this process is under the newcomer's control, the tactic may be managed to minimize the impact on current performance, which is therefore deemed a low to moderate performance cost. The performance benefits will depend on whether the newcomer gains any information that they can use to improve their performance. This is contingent on a number of factors, such as the visibility of the task, and physical proximity to and openness of colleagues (Major et al., 1995; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Given the uncertain nature of whether useful information can be gathered, we propose that monitoring generally has a low performance benefit. The ego costs of monitoring are low as there is minimal risk to the self-concept. Similarly the behaviors required are not difficult and therefore ego benefits are low as well. Last, the social costs of monitoring are low since colleagues are unlikely to observe the tactic, and in turn, the lack of interaction with colleagues results in low social benefits (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

At the other extreme, the self-determined tactic of experimenting has potentially high performance costs, since there may be considerable effort involved in deciding what to do, and how, and this will interfere with ongoing task completion. The performance benefits are moderate to high, with experimenting having the potential to improve performance through finding better ways to complete tasks. The ego costs of experimenting are potentially high, as experimenting may be unsuccessful, either due to an inability to carry out the behavior as intended, or because the behavior does not have its anticipated effects. Yet successful experimenting may be ego enhancing. Last, the social costs of experimenting are high, and include the possibility of violating organizational norms and alienating colleagues, even if the tactic is successful (Ashford, 1986). Social benefits may vary from low to high according to how

successful the experimenting is: Colleagues may not notice at one extreme, or they may make positive attributions, such as admiring the motivation of the newcomer.

Shared tactics, such as relationship building, will have costs and benefits that fall between those of opportunistic and self-determined tactics. The costs and benefits of shared tactics will be moderate because these are constrained by insiders, who are critical to shared tactics, and who will provide opportunities that align with the organization's norms, and similarly will respond to newcomer-initiated behaviors within such parameters. From these general principles and examples, we put forward two general propositions about the three categories of tactics.

Proposition 4: Opportunistic tactics will have lower perceived costs than shared tactics, and these in turn will have lower perceived costs than self-determined tactics.

Proposition 5: Opportunistic tactics will have lower perceived benefits than shared tactics, and these in turn will have lower perceived benefits than self-determined tactics.

We now turn to look in more detail at the individual factors and then the role and contextual factors affecting newcomer adjustment tactic use, as depicted in Figure 1.

The Effects of Individual Factors

A range of individual factors may moderate newcomers' use of adjustment tactics. These include individual differences such as goal orientation (Ashford et al., 2003; Vande Walle, 2003; Vande Walle & Cummings, 1997; Vande Walle et al., 2000), tolerance for ambiguity (Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Bennett, Herold, & Ashford, 1990; Reichers, 1987), need for achievement (Morrison, 2002), behavioral self-management (Saks & Ashforth, 1996), proactivity (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), causality orientation (Koestner & Losier,

1996) as well as broader facets of personality such as those found in the Big Five (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Kammeyer et al., 2011; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Sociodemographic moderator variables will also affect tactic use, including time in the job and the organization, previous relevant work experience in similar roles and industries, role transition experience, and also age, sex, and ethnicity, especially in relation to work context norms (Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Jackson, Stone, & Alvarez, 1993; Kammeyer et al., 2011; Morrison & Brantner, 1992; Rollag, 2004, 2007). Here and in the next section, we focus on only one variable in each set to illustrate our arguments and provide a starting point for an integrative model, which future research can expand on.

Personal Characteristics

The Five Factor Model (Costa & McCrae, 1992) is the most pervasive model of personality used in understanding people at work, with these five factors being extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Research shows that personality is important both for attraction to organizations (Slaughter & Greguras, 2009) and during adjustment (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Initial work has linked personality with newcomer adjustment strategies, showing that extraversion predicts relationship building including mentoring, openness to experience predicts positive framing, and both predict feedback seeking, whereas neuroticism negatively predicts general socializing, and positive framing (Kammeyer et al., 2011; Payne, Culbertson, Boswell, & Barger, 2008; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). We build on this foundation and examine extraversion in relation to our proposed model. Extraversion refers to the extent to which an individual is active, enthusiastic, ambitious, positive, and seeks to be stimulated by, and interact with, their environment (Costa & McCrae, 1992). In addition to research linking extraversion to specific strategies (Kammeyer et al., 2011; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), extraverts seek

higher levels of social support than introverts (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Payne et al., 2008) and are less influenced by contextual factors (Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006). This evidence is in line with extraverts perceiving greater performance and social benefits from their actions, and lower ego and social costs. Referring back to Table 2, this should allow extraverts to use the higher cost tactics in the shared and self-determined categories.

Proposition 6a: Newcomers with high extraversion will perceive higher performance and social benefits for newcomer adjustment tactics.

Proposition 6b: Newcomers with high extraversion will perceive lower ego and social costs for newcomer adjustment tactics.

Proposition 6c: Newcomers with high extraversion are more likely to adopt shared and self-determined than opportunistic newcomer adjustment tactics.

Sociodemographic Variables

One of the most examined aspects in the socialization literature is the transition from newcomer to insider. Although the exact time frame of this transition is context-dependent, ranging from three months (Rollag, 2004) to three years (Morrison & Vancouver, 2000), over time newcomers will establish an 'asset position' (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979, p. 277) for themselves within their organization. Assets include their established performance reputation, status, networks, and local knowledge (Chi, Huang, & Lin, 2009). Costs and benefits will be determined relative to this reference point (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Newcomers with less tenure are likely to have a poorer asset position, and therefore less potential for losses than those with longer tenure. For example, newcomers may have minimal and sometimes faulty information from recruitment and selection processes (Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992), as well having no internal performance record, and no established work relationships (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996). Kahneman and Tversky (1979) found that, when choosing

between cost options, people tend to seek risk and opt for higher rewards but at longer odds. Extrapolating to newcomers, we propose that newcomers with shorter tenure and hence a poorer asset position will choose higher cost tactics (i.e., self-determined and shared) with potentially greater pay off. This proposition is consistent with Miller and Jablin's (1991) finding that newcomers perceive increased social costs for the same tactic over time, and also Ashford's (1986) results showing that longer-tenured employees value information as much as newer employees, but seek it less.

Proposition 7a: Newcomers with less tenure will perceive lower performance, ego, and social costs for tactics; and

Proposition 7b: Newcomers with less tenure will use shared and self-determined tactics more frequently that opportunistic tactics.

In addition to the influences at the level of the individual, newcomer adjustment occurs within organizational contexts, and these also provide opportunities for, and constraints on, newcomers' use of adjustment tactics.

The Effects of Role and Organization Context

Role and organization context factors influence which tactics are seen as possible, and affect the perceived costs and benefits of different tactics. As for individual factors, there is a wide range of constructs that may influence newcomer adjustment tactic use, although historically these have been neglected relative to individual factors (Ashford et al., 2003). For the newcomer's role and its immediate context, relevant constructs include the job itself and its characteristics (Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Hackman & Oldham, 1980), role similarity with colleagues, and physical aspects of the work environment such as proximity and access to colleagues (Kammeyer et al., 2011; Major & Kozlowski, 1997; Reichers, 1987), and leadership and teamwork (Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

At the organization level, broader industry norms may influence the tactics that organizations use to help newcomers to adjust (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), affect the potential for context change, and constrain tactic options. National cultural norms may also affect socialization processes, affecting which behaviors are viewed as acceptable (Morrison, Chen, & Salgado, 2004). More locally, organization culture and values may influence the extent to which newcomers are assisted (Feldman, 1976), and affect the ease or difficulty of actually adjusting (e.g., the type and amount of change required). We note this range of elements, yet focus on a subset of these constructs to illustrate our arguments.

The Immediate Work Context

Physical proximity to colleagues provides opportunities for adjustment-related resources to be provided naturally, including performance-relevant information and social support. Physical proximity allows newcomers to use tactics that rely on others, such as observation, direct inquiry, or negotiating role change (Kammeyer et al., 2011; Major & Kozlowski, 1997; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Such opportunities are greatest where colleagues are in the same role, and where both the work processes and outcomes are visible (Anderson & Thomas, 1996), for example, waiters working in a large restaurant. In general, having easy access to colleagues will increase the range of tactic options and hence accelerate adjustment. Physical proximity, and the establishment of social relationships from this (Elsesser & Peplau, 2006; Glaman, Jones, & Rozelle, 1996), results in lower performance, ego, and social costs. That is, tactics are easier to enact, and are less personally and socially risky within established relationships (Morrison, 1993b). In turn, the reduced costs afforded by physical proximity with colleagues allow for greater use of opportunistic and shared tactics, and these tactics will predominate over self-determined tactics.

Proposition 8a: Newcomers in jobs with greater physical proximity to colleagues will report lower performance, ego, and social costs across tactics.

Proposition 8b: Newcomers in jobs with greater physical proximity to colleagues will use more opportunistic and shared tactics than self-determined tactics.

Organizational Factors

Organizational socialization tactics are the intentional or unintentional processes by which organizations influence newcomer adjustment (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1997; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Institutionalized socialization tactics refer to practices that provide newcomers with clear information on role and organizational norms, as well as opportunities to interact with and learn from other newcomers and selected insiders. In contrast, individualized tactics reflect a relative absence of structure, where the newcomer has to figure things out for him/herself. Institutionalized tactics lead to role replication, whereas individualized tactics are associated with role innovation (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Institutionalized organizational socialization tactics are designed to facilitate newcomer adjustment by clearly illustrating and teaching sanctioned way of behaving (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). This makes opportunistic newcomer adjustment tactics more available to newcomers, as they fit with the opportunities designed by the organization to help them adjust (Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000). In contrast, the other two categories of tactics that rely more on newcomer initiative, that is self-determined and shared tactics, are both less necessary and potentially more costly, especially for those newcomer adjustment tactics that do not align with institutionalized tactics from the organization. Given the strong norms for behaving in organizationally-sanctioned ways in order to fit in (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006), self-determined tactics in particular are likely to mismatch with the top-down approach of

institutionalized organizational socialization tactics, and will be viewed as more costly and be used less. Shared tactics are likely to fall between the other two categories of tactics in terms of their perceived costs and use, as organizational norms may offer some opportunities to use these tactics with few costs. For example, institutionalized tactics place newcomers with expert insiders as resources, which provides opportunities to use tactics such as observation, direct inquiry, and general socializing (Griffin et al., 2000).

Furthermore, newcomers who experience institutionalized tactics will have a better understanding of the organization. From this, newcomers will have improved knowledge of the benefits and costs of using different tactics, resulting in their use of a narrower range of tactics (Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Specifically, given that institutionalized tactics are associated with strong organization cultures, such as may be observed in the military and in large professional service firms (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005), the costs of violating organizational norms will be greater, restricting tactic use. Comparing newcomers who experience these different socialization tactics, we propose:

Proposition 9a: Newcomers who experience institutionalized socialization will report higher performance, ego, and social costs for tactics.

Proposition 9b: Newcomers who experience institutionalized socialization will prefer to use opportunistic tactics over shared tactics, and make least use of self-determined tactics.

Proposition 9c: Newcomers who experience institutionalized socialization will use a narrower range of tactics.

Discussion

In this article, we focus on newcomer adjustment tactics, and the costs and benefits that affect tactic use. The key contribution of our paper is depicted in Figure 1, and is the

consideration of the overlap between newcomer adjustment tactics, individual factors, and role and organization context factors, with performance, ego, and social costs and benefits concomitantly influencing what tactics the newcomer perceives as useable. There are two further significant contributions. First, the categorization of newcomer adjustment tactics as opportunistic, shared, or self-determined; second the updated categorization of costs and benefits as performance, ego, and social. These provide theoretical coherence and allow for testable propositions. In turn, these contribute to the further development of theory, and also offer considerable practical relevance.

Theoretical Implications

In this paper, we integrate theory and research from several distinct fields that include information-seeking, feedback seeking, and coping with transitions. All of these literatures have focused on subsets of tactics, hence limiting the generalizability of findings. Further, key components of the different theories have had minimal effects in their neighboring fields (Morrison, 2002a). For example, while various costs have been examined in feedback research, they have been largely ignored in newcomer information seeking research. Moreover, the effects of tactic use have been investigated in the newcomer adjustment literature, with minimal reference to the antecedents of behavior commonly investigated in feedback research. Our aim here is to provide an integrative approach that allows future research to draw from a more comprehensive and robust framework.

A range of models of employee adjustment to transitions have been proposed, with some previous researchers recognizing the need to expand on Ashford and Cummings' (1983) two tactics (Miller & Jablin, 1991) and integrate the disparate approaches and emphasize commonalities in newcomer adaptation (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). The tactics used by newcomers are used also by employees in general, and recent theoretical work has begun to

integrate the fragmented literatures relating to information seeking (Morrison, 2002a), feedback seeking (Anseel et al., 2007), and proactive behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008). While these previous models have all benefited the field, they do not directly draw on or contribute to an understanding of newcomer adjustment tactics.

Previous models specify a range of adjustment tactics (Ashford & Taylor, 1991; Morrison, 2002a), ranging from two (Ashford et al., 2003), to seven (Miller & Jablin, 1991), through to eleven tactics (Griffin et al., 2000). In the present paper, we propose a categorization of newcomer adjustment tactics - as opportunistic, self-determined or shared - that incorporates all tactics identified to date and that has the potential to accommodate further tactics as they are identified. This provides parsimony and flexibility, although we note that the model requires empirical validation. Further, by providing definitions and specific examples of costs and benefits for prototypical opportunistic, self-determined, and shared tactics, we provide sufficient detail to allow current and any new tactics to be classified.

Various starting points have been proposed in models of newcomer and employee information-seeking, feedback-seeking, proactivity, and adjustment. We propose costs and benefits in performance, ego, and social domains which influence which tactics are seen as possible. The positioning of costs and benefits as both motives and influences on tactic use overlaps with recent research on proactive behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008), as well as research on newcomer tactics (Miller & Jablin, 1991) and employee feedback (Ashford et al., 2003; Levy et al., 1995). The performance, ego, and social costs and benefits that we identify are broader than those from previous research, but include their content (Ashford et al., 2003; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Moreover, relative to other models, our tripartite division is balanced across the three domains. Our model allows for a range of both individual factors and role and organization context factors, although only single exemplar constructs are explored

in depth. Other models also acknowledge these individual and contextual influences, although for the most part, with less breadth (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 2002a). We provide detailed propositions on a necessarily parsimonious list of foundational variables, but the two areas of individual factors and role and organization context factors are broad and open to empirical extension. Further, given that employees make a range of transitions into new roles beyond inter-organizational moves (Van Vianen & Prins, 1997), we suggest that the model may prove useful for a broader range of employees in transition. This could include those making internal moves through lateral transfer or promotions, as well as more novel changes such as from school to work, and expatriate assignments.

Practical Implications

We propose that Figure 1 and Table 1 will be useful for newcomers and organizations. Figure 1 provides a basis for establishing a common aim for newcomer adjustment of increasing the area *a*; and Table 1 shows the vast range of tactics available to newcomers, with insider and organizational support. Discussions on facilitating newcomer adjustment can focus on each of the three circles in Figure 1, to increase the overlapping areas, with the tactics in Table 1 as useful input.

Considering the content of our paper from an organizational perspective, first, newcomers are likely to experience a smoother adjustment process and less need for learning if the HRM team, managers, and colleagues that they meet pre-entry are clear in communicating the newcomer's role and its context (Wanous et al., 1992). Second, as we note above, there is a benefit to knowing a wider range of adjustment tactics. The organization can help level the playing field by making explicit the range of tactics available to newcomers, with Table 1 likely to be useful in this process. This will serve to increase the known adjustment tactics in Figure 1,

and also the role and context factors, both of these potentially expanding area *a*. In addition to these, the organization can try to influence the costs and benefits of tactics. Specifically, since the role and context themselves influence tactic options, a third strategy the organization can use is to mold role and context factors to reduce the social costs of tactics, such as by giving newcomer's colleagues specific responsibilities and rewards for helping the newcomer, including mentors, and ensuring that colleagues are available nearby in the newcomer's environment (Cooper-Thomas, 2009; Major & Kozlowski, 1997). Social costs can be reduced further by developing norms that support newcomer proactivity (Grant & Ashford, 2008), and in particular for higher cost tactics in the self-determined and shared categories that might otherwise be avoided. Indeed, such proactivity could become a norm for all employees, although this may be contingent on such local norms being sufficiently aligned with national behavioral norms (Morrison et al., 2004). Fourth, the organization can reduce the performance costs associated with tactic use, by making resources readily available to the newcomer so that they can more easily enact tactics and accelerate their adjustment. Examples are having insiders work in close proximity to newcomers, and on interdependent tasks (Adkins et al., 1996). The organization has less direct control over the benefits of tactics use. However, establishing cultural norms to support newcomers in proactively using adjustment tactics may serve to clarify the significant benefits of using tactics, and provide a fifth means of supporting newcomer adjustment.

From a newcomer perspective, the resources provided here may be useful in empowering newcomers in their use of adjustment tactics. The presentation of different adjustment tactics in Table 1 to newcomers will enlarge the pool of tactics that newcomers know about, potentially increasing area *a* which represents the number of tactics that newcomers will use. This translates to newcomers having more flexibility in picking and choosing between different tactics to suit the circumstances. If newcomers are able to successfully use, or see others using tactics, their

belief in their ability to use these tactics will likely increase, and more tactics will be included in area *a*. While other research has suggested measuring learning as a measure of newcomer progress (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006), an alternative measure would be newcomers' use of different newcomer adjustment tactics. The optimal adjustment tactics would need to be determined for the organization, and then newcomers could be evaluated against this, and provided with development support where they fall short. In addition, this could be used instead of performance evaluations which may be seen as premature and invalid (Greenberg, 1996) in the early period following entry.

The explicit framework for costs and benefits provided here may encourage more rapid and effective adjustment, as newcomers may choose their actions more strategically. For example, newcomers may decide to engage in more opportunistic tactics for minor issues in order to incur fewer costs, but choose self-determined tactics for more significant issues. The framework also makes it explicit that any behavior may have both risks and benefits, and it is up to the newcomer to decide on the trade-offs they are comfortable with.

Operationalization of the Model

We suggest foundational scales here, from which an extended set of measures could be developed to capture newcomer adjustment tactics and cost-benefit assessments. The majority of the tactics listed in Table 1 have measures that may be taken from the references listed below the table. There are a few exceptions, but we suggest that initial tests of the model should focus on well known tactics that have validated measures. In particular, the seven proactive newcomer behavior tactics measures developed by Ashford and Black (1996) have been used repeatedly, and would be a good basis for initial model testing. Regarding costs and benefits, each domain needs to be carefully defined and then measures may be developed from this basis. For example, we suggest that performance costs include time and effort taken away from current performance,

and the physical, cognitive and attentional exertion needed to implement the behavior. Past research on costs and benefits of various employee behaviors should be consulted also to ensure that constructs are sufficiently broad, with feedback seeking and goal orientations literatures potentially being useful (Ashford, 1986; VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 2000).

Conclusion

Previous research from diverse fields has identified a range of factors that influence the tactics that newcomers use to seek information, to cope with change or uncertainty, and to understand and develop their place within the work environment. Our primary aim, in presenting a paper integrating these, is to bring together these diverse literatures to help progress theory in this area, as well as to have practical benefits for both organizations and their employees. Given the high rate of employee job change, the effective adjustment of newcomers is a critical step in the successful management of people and performance.

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Table 1. Summary of newcomer adjustment tactics[1].

Opportunistic tactics		Shared tactics		Self-determined tactics	
Monitoring/ Observation	Observing others	**Direct**	Direct inquiry	**Modify work environment**	Changing work procedures
	Observing situational cues		Seeking feedback		Redefining job
Attending	Training, induction events	**Indirect**	Questioning third parties		Delegating responsibilities
Reading	Internal & external media provided		Indirect questions[2]	**Experimentation**	Experimenting / trial and error
Following	Being guided by other's expectations		Disguising conversations		Copying a role model
Leaning on	Using support offered		Talking	**Personal Effort**	Working longer hours
		Negotiation	Negotiating job changes		Showcasing/ advocating own abilities
			Exchanging resources		Information giving
			Testing limits		Volunteering
		Relationships	Relationship building		Matching work to skills [3]
			Networking	**Cognitive**	Positive framing
			General socializing		Rationalization
			Developing friendships		Reflection & synthesis
			Seeking social support	**Physiological**	Palliation (e.g., smoking)
			Participating as a team member		
		Flattering	Making other's feel good		

[1] Extrapolated from Ashford (1986), Ashford & Black (1996), Bauer & Green (1994), Chatman (1991); Cooper-Thomas et al. (in press), Feldman & Brett (1983), Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg (2003), Kramer, Callister, & Turban (1995), Major & Kozlowski (1997), Mignerey, Rubin & Gorden, (1995), Miller (1996), Miller & Jablin (1991), Morrison (1993a, b, 2002b), Northcraft & Ashford (1990), Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller (2000).

[2] For example non-interrogative questions and hinting

[3] This is the only personal effort tactic in which the newcomer may attempt to reduce their efforts i.e., by reducing the amount of new information or skills needing to be acquired.

Table 2. An integration of perceived costs and benefits from tactic use.

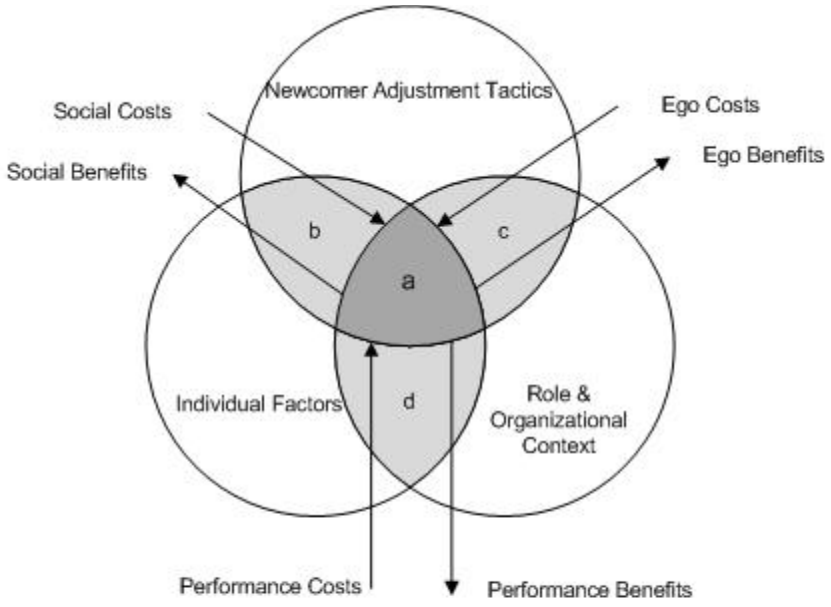
	Performance	Ego	Social
Costs	Inference	Self-esteem protection	Defensive impression management
	Effort	Ego	Self-presentation
	Time	Self-concept threat	Social management
	Attention		Image cost
Benefits	Expectancy value	Self-management	Assertive impression management
	Uncertainty reduction	Self-affirmation	Self-presentation
	Goal attainment	Affect optimization	Image benefit

Note. Extrapolated from from Anseel et al., 2007; Ashford, 1986, 1989; Ashford et al., 2003; Ashford & Cummings, 1983; Battmann, 1988; Fedor et al., 1992; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Larson, 1989; Levy et al., 1995; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison & Bies, 1991; VandeWalle, 2000; VandeWalle et al., 2003; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997.

Table 3. The perceived performance, ego, and social costs and benefits of three exemplar strategies.

		Opportunistic Monitoring	Shared Relationship Building	Self-determined Experimenting
Performance	Cost	Low to moderate	Moderate	High
	Benefit	Low	Moderate	Moderate - High
Ego	Cost	Low	Moderate	High
	Benefit	Low	Moderate	High
Social	Cost	Low	Moderate-High	High
	Benefit	Low	Moderate - High	Low - High

Figure 1. Influences on newcomer adjustment tactics available for use.



a = Newcomer tactics available for use
b = tactics newcomer use could use yet context does not afford
c = tactics context allows for but individual does not feel able to enact
d = individual differences and context allow opportunity but no suitable tasks

Appendix A: Descriptions of the tactics in Table 1.

Category/ Meta-tactic	Individual Tactics	Description
Opportunistic tactics		
Monitoring/ Observation	Observing others	Watching what colleagues do
	Observing situational cues	Watching the work environment for signals
Attending	Training, induction events	Choosing to go to training, orientation & induction events
Reading	Internal & external media provided	Reading materials that are available or provided, e.g., induction manual, intranet orientation programs, organizational history
Following	Being guided by other's expectations	Listening to colleagues and following their directions
Leaning on	Using support offered	Making use of mentors, buddies, or other resources provided
Shared Tactics		
Direct	Direct inquiry	Asking questions directly from the person that the newcomer wishes to learn from
	Seeking feedback	Asking for feedback
Indirect	Questioning third parties	Asking questions from a third person who is not the target person that the newcomer actually wishes to learn from or about
	indirect questions	Asking questions indirectly, that is asking around the topic or hinting
	Disguising conversations	Disguising attempts at seeking information by making them part of everyday conversations
	Talking	Participating in informal conversations
Negotiation	Negotiating job changes	Bargaining with colleagues, especially superiors, to change job tasks or roles
	Exchanging resources	Trading resources with other employees
	Testing limits	Deviating from known organization rules or unknown but possible norms to identify the boundaries
Relationships	Relationship building	Seeking out opportunities to strengthen connections
	Networking	Establishing contacts with colleagues beyond the immediate work group
	General socializing	Participating in workplace social activities
	Developing friendships	Spending time getting to know colleagues personally

	Seeking social support	Establishing friendships with people who will allow confidences and affirm abilities
	Participating as a team member	Being visibly involved as a team member
Flattering	Making other's feel good	Behaving in ways that make colleagues feel good about themselves, such as acknowledging their expertise
Self-determined tactics		
Modify work environment	Changing work procedures	Using new work procedures to try and improve how work is done
	Redefining job	Changing the content of the job to better match skills or interests
	Delegating responsibilities	Assigning specific tasks to colleagues
Experimentation	Experimenting / trial and error	Trying out behaviors and seeing what consequences they have
	Copying a role model	Selecting a colleague as an exemplar of good performance and copying their behaviors
Personal Effort	Working longer hours	Spending more time at work, shortening breaks or vacation time to allow more time at work
	Showcasing/ advocating own abilities	Figuring out ways to demonstrate abilities
	Information giving	Sharing information with colleagues
	Volunteering	Opting to be involved in voluntary activities that help the organization
	Matching work to skills	Using current abilities to enable immediate performance
Cognitive	Positive framing	Deliberately taking a positive view of a situation in order to enhance self-efficacy
	Rationalization	Reducing entry-related anxiety by psychological means such as projection
	Reflection & synthesis	Spending time considering facts and structuring them to aid understanding
Physiological	Palliation (e.g., smoking)	Reducing entry-related anxiety by distraction or masking