American Psychological Association

Journal of Applied Psychology

ISSN: 0021-9010

2020, Vol. 105, No. 12, 1466–1489
http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000492

The Comparative Effects of Supervisor Helping Motives on Newcomer Adjustment and Socialization Outcomes

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The preponderance of organizational socialization research has focused on the perceptions and interests of newcomers. Yet, insiders—particularly immediate supervisors—are central to newcomers' adjustment, primarily in providing newcomers help. To facilitate such behavior, however, it is necessary to understand supervisors' helping motivations. Beginning from a new theoretically grounded taxonomy, we examined how supervisor reports of their own self-oriented, other-oriented, and normative motives predicted newcomer-rated received help and subsequent adjustment/socialization outcomes. We also examined the moderating role of newcomer motive perceptions on whether help was reciprocated to supervisors. Our model was tested with multiwave data from newcomers and supervisors during the first 3 months of starting a job. Newcomers reported receiving greater help from supervisors who described themselves as being motivated by self-oriented tangible gains and other-orientation, whereas supervisors who described themselves as being motivated by self-oriented enhancement were seen as less helpful. Further, when newcomers perceived that supervisors were more motivated by other-orientation and less by self-oriented tangible gains, newcomers reciprocated more help to the supervisor later on. Our results advance theory about the role of interpersonal helping during socialization, revealing that not all provided help is interpreted similarly by newcomers, and that differing supervisor motivations should also be factored into account.

Keywords: helping motives, helping behavior, newcomer adjustment, socialization

Organizational newcomers often find the process of starting a new job challenging. There is pressure to acquire task-relevant skills, learn the organization's unique language and history, and internalize values and norms (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). This *newcomer adjustment* is defined as the process by which new employees acquire the requisite behaviors and attitudes to assume the roles of participating organizational members (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Feldman, 1981). Research has demonstrated that even after organizational orientation and training, newcomers need assistance in getting up to speed. Studies consistently find that newcomers proactively seek out help from supervisors and peers, who have a unique "insider" perspective on how work is performed and coordinated (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993).

Extant theorizing positions the formal organization, newcomers themselves, and established organizational insiders as three central agents influencing the adjustment process (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Early theoretical work focused on how an organization's desire for conformity or creativity led stakeholders to engage in certain socialization practices (Feldman, 1981; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). A separate body of research described how newcomers' desire for role clarity and interpersonal acceptance motivates them to seek information and develop relationships with supervisors and coworkers (Fisher, 1985; Miller & Jablin, 1991). In both cases, theoretical models start from a given agent's motives and then describe associated behavior. The research on aid from supervisors is quite different in that there has not been an equivalent focus on supervisor motivations. This dearth of study is not a reflection of a lack of supervisor influence—interpersonal channels often have significant impacts on a newcomer's adjustment (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, & Song, 2013; Morrison, 1993).

Prior research linking helping behavior to favorable newcomer outcomes suggests that organizations should encourage supervisors to give more help (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-

This article was published Online First March 12, 2020.

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We would like to acknowledge the helpful feedback of Mo Wang, Joyce Bono, and Walter Leite. A previous version of this article was accepted to the 2018 Best Paper Proceedings of the Academy of Management Annual Conference in Chicago, Illinois (Rubenstein, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Thundiyil, 2018).

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Mueller et al., 2013). However, this work stops short of demonstrating what motivates supervisors to offer newcomers help in the first place, or whether supervisor motives relate to perceptions of being helped in a newcomer's eyes. Because individuals must make choices about how they allocate work time (Bergeron, 2007), supervisor helping does not "just happen"; rather, it is both deliberate and motivated (Gailliot, 2010). Bringing in a new subordinate can be a trying time for supervisors: Newcomers have the potential to be a valuable source of new skills, but at the same time, they might disrupt normal operations and challenge well-established routines (Korte, Brunhaver, & Sheppard, 2015; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Because of this combination of costs and benefits, supervisors likely differ in how motivated they are to provide help. Understanding these motivations, and whether some motives yield more or less favorable newcomer outcomes, can provide organizational leaders important practical guidance for supervisor development or incentive alignment catered to particular motives.

To address this omission, the present study advances theory by examining the motives supervisors have for helping newcomers, and showing how different motives comparatively affect newcomer-reported help received and subsequent outcomes. We focus on supervisors, given past research showing that these agents have especially potent effects on newcomer outcomes (Fisher, 1985; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Supervisors also have more organizationally embedded knowledge than does any newcomer, and are in a suitable position to share useful insider information (Bauer & Green, 1998; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). In sum, we assume both newcomers and supervisors recognize newcomers need help adjusting to a new job, and that supervisors have the ability to provide such help.

Our conceptual model is shown in Figure 1. Our starting point is a three-category helping motives taxonomy: *Self-oriented* motives arise from a desire to improve a supervisor's own outcomes, whether they be material, emotional, or self-enhancing; *other-oriented* motives arise from a desire to improve newcomer outcomes; *normative* motives arise as supervisors follow the typical or expected behavior of others. We propose that supervisor motives will affect newcomer perceptions of received help, which in turn may differentially affect their adjustment. Furthermore, we also examine newcomer *perceptions* of supervisor motives, proposing that help reciprocation may depend partially on how newcomers attribute supervisor's motivation for help.

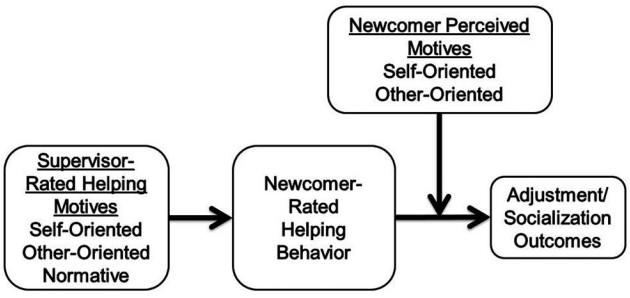

Figure 1. Conceptual model of supervisor helping motives, helping behavior, perceived helping motives, and newcomer adjustment/socialization outcomes.

This study offers several contributions. First, we aim to clarify what motivates supervisors to offer newcomers help. We thus build a new taxonomy and validate a measure of supervisor helping motives toward newcomers (see Table 1). As shown in Table 1, many extant approaches are deficient or contaminated in capturing the spectrum of motives driving help. For instance, Rioux and Penner (2001) focused on peer-to-peer relationships, and did not consider citizenship resulting from normative pressures, and some of their motive categories like engaging in citizenship "to get to know my coworkers better" could reflect both an other-oriented motivation and a desire to improve one's mood (i.e., a self-oriented motive). Mentoring taxonomies are more suited to the supervisor-subordinate framework, but extant approaches like Aryee, Chay, and Chew (1996) are more informative with regard to stable individual dispositions or overall organizational reward systems rather than for understanding more proximal motives in the context of helping newcomers. Similarly, many studies of prosocial or altruistic behavior motives (e.g., Feiler, Tost, & Grant, 2012; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010) coarsely distinguish between egoism and altruism, without appreciating that multiple goals may drive these actions.

Our research also extends prior scholarship focused on helping from peers, supervisors, or mentors directed toward incumbent employees. Help given to newcomers is driven by different concerns relative to help given to established employees. First, newcomers are by definition "outsiders" in social relationships and resources, and therefore are more obviously in need of help (Nelson & Quick, 1991; Oliner & Oliner, 1988). Second, unlike social exchanges among established insiders, newcomers are still "learning the ropes," and have less control over resources that can be exchanged with supervisors (Chao et al., 1994). Third, the absence of a history of interdependence modifies initial social exchange expectations between parties (Bernhard, Fischbacher, & Fehr, 2006; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987). Fourth, the content of newcomer needs differs from that of insiders; insiders typically do not need help finding common supplies, learning names, communicating within expected norms, or understanding basic responsibilities—yet, these are central concerns for new employees (Chao et al., 1994). Fifth, supervisors might be especially motivated to help newcomers because there is a greater potential instrumental payoff for these employees who have more room to improve (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Equally, highly other-oriented supervisors may provide greater help to newcomers as doing so may make a stronger prosocial impact than it would for helping other insiders (Lanaj, Johnson, & Wang, 2016).

As another contribution, we examine how supervisor motives influence newcomer-reported help, and in turn, how this predicts various adjustment/socialization outcomes. Existing work has not effectively tied theoretical models of helping motives and helping behavior to newcomer outcomes. Prior work has shown that different motivations to help can change the nature of the help provided (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). For example, if a supervisor is motivated to help to make his or her own job easier or wants to be rewarded for mentoring an effective subordinate, effort levels to help might be greater compared with help provided out of a sense of social

Table 1
Extant Motives Taxonomies in Various Literatures

Behavior	Source	Motive (Original label)	Motive category	Sample items or conceptual definition
Citizenship behavior	Rioux and Penner (2001)	Organizational concern	Self-oriented	"[I do this] because I want to understand how the organization works"
		Impression management	Self-oriented	"[I do this] because rewards are important to me"
		Prosocial values	Self-oriented, other-oriented	"To be friendly with others"
Informal mentoring	Aryee, Chay, and Chew (1996)	Positive affect	Self-oriented, other-oriented	Active and attentive demeanor to others' needs
		Organizational self-esteem	Self-oriented	Affirm positive view of self
		Organizational rewards	Self-oriented	"To what extent is helping junior employees to understand the organization's business . . . rewarded?"
		Altruism	Other oriented	Trait level of generosity, helpfulness and kindness towards others
		Interaction opportunities	Normative	Environment where informal talking is prevalent
	Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997)	Other-focused	Other-oriented	General desire to help others
		Self-focused	Self-oriented	Increase personal learning, pride, respect from others
Volunteerism	Clary and Snyder (1991); Clary et al. (1998)	Career	Self-oriented	"Volunteering experience will look good on my resume"
		Self-protective	Self-oriented	"Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles"
		Ego enhancement	Self-oriented	"Volunteering makes me feel better about myself"
		Learning/understanding	Self-oriented	"[I volunteer so] I can explore my own strengths"
		Altruistic values	Other-oriented	"I feel it is important to help others"
		Social	Normative	"[I volunteer because] my friends volunteer"
Altruism, altruistic behavior	Cialdini et al. (1987); Batson (1991); Piliavin and Charng (1990)	Egoism	Self-oriented, normative	Escape aversive arousal, guilt, social disapproval, sadness, or shame, or to increase joy
		Empathic concern	Other-oriented	Improve the other's well-being rather than one's own
	Rushton (1980)	Mood states	Self-oriented	Get in good mood, sustain good mood, eliminate bad mood
		Empathy	Other-oriented	Recognize other's situation and matched others' feelings
		Norms of appropriate behavior	Normative	Uphold standards of social responsibility, justice or reciprocity
	Comte (1851)	Egoism	Self-oriented	Desire to increase own welfare
		Altruism	Other-oriented	Desire to increase another's welfare
	Batson and Powell (2003)	Mood effects	Self-oriented	Get in good mood, sustain good mood, eliminate bad mood
		Tension reduction	Self-oriented	Eliminate anticipated negative affect state as a result of not acting
		Social learning	Normative	Learned reward-punishment response
Prosocial behavior	Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, and Schroeder (2005); Hamilton (1964); Trivers (1971)	Kin selection	Self-oriented	Desire to successfully transmit genes across generations
		Reciprocal altruism	Self-oriented	Expectation of repayment in the future
		Group selection	Self-oriented	Engage in behavior because of group benefits to which one belongs
	Penner et al. (2005); Hamilton (1964); Trivers (1971)	Arousal/affect	Self-oriented	To feel good or to not feel bad
		Social learning	Normative	Social conditioning
		Social/personal standards	Normative	Social responsibility norms
	Weinstein and Ryan (2010)	Autonomous	Self-oriented	"[I helped] because I thought I would enjoy it"
		Controlled	Normative	"[I helped] because I felt I should"
	Feiler, Tost, and Grant (2012)	Egoistic	Self-oriented	Giving makes people feel good, benefit the self
		Altruistic	Other-oriented	Giving is beneficial to others
	Grant (2007)	Make prosocial difference	Other-oriented	Positively affect beneficiaries of one's work

obligation (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2005). Alternatively, a newcomer who perceives his or her supervisor as being motivated by other-oriented ends may see them as especially helpful because their behavior is mainly rooted in interpersonal concern and consideration of the recipient's needs (Bolino & Grant, 2016).

Last, drawing on social exchange and attribution theories, we examine how newcomers' perceptions of supervisor motives moderate relationships between help received and newcomer's reciprocated help. It is often assumed that help is offered for the benefit of the receiver (Batson, 1995). However, if a newcomer deems a supervisor's underlying motive to be mostly self-serving, they may question the authenticity of the help, compared with a newcomer who perceives their supervisor was primarily focused on their well-being (Ferris, Bhawuk, Fedor, & Judge, 1995; Heider, 1958; Rodell & Lynch, 2016; Thomas & Pondy, 1977). Beyond providing more help, then, supervisors might also need to be mindful of how they communicate their motives, to ensure newcomers interpret offered help based on the "right" reasons.

In the next sections, we first describe the outcomes of interest in the study. This is followed by the development of a taxonomy of supervisor motives for helping newcomers, and hypotheses linking supervisor motives to newcomer-perceived helping behavior and subsequent outcomes. We then offer hypotheses that describe how newcomer motive attributions for supervisor help moderate the relationship between helping behavior and reciprocated help.

Motivational Antecedents of Supervisor Helping and Newcomer Outcomes

Why do supervisors offer help to newcomers? Drawing from an extensive literature review, outlined in Table 1, we propose a taxonomy of six helping motives spanning three superordinate categories: (a) self-oriented, (b) other-oriented, and (c) normative. Each motive links to greater helping behavior, but may have unique comparative effects on newcomer outcomes. We first describe the main adjustment/socialization outcomes examined in the study, as a means of clarifying what represents effective versus ineffective socialization. Our assertion is that the reason(s) for a supervisor's help can affect how much a newcomer perceives s/he has been helped, and that this perception of being helped affects the newcomer's future work attitudes and behavior. Moreover, we anticipate that supervisors who are more knowledgeable and competent at providing help to newcomers will be more motivated to provide it, based on a core idea from expectancy theory that an individual's motivation to complete an action results from the perception that the action will have high efficacy (Locke, Frederick, Lee, & Bobko, 1984).

We assess multiple adjustment/socialization outcomes, following the framework of Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007). In terms of instrumental outcomes, we consider *task performance* and *role clarity*. Newcomers must learn how to effectively understand role-appropriate behaviors, and supervisors are valuable sources of information to explain how to competently perform work tasks and achieve goals (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Regarding attitudes, we examine *job satisfaction, organizational commitment,* and *supervisor satisfaction*. Of note, job satisfaction and organizational commitment may represent the two most important positive appraisals of one's adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007), and supervisor satisfaction describes how well a newcomer has established a social connection with the person with whom they most closely work (Feldman, 1981; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Last, we examine *turnover intentions* and *turnover behavior*. Given the large recruiting and training costs for replacements (Allen, Bryant, & Vardaman, 2010), turnover-related behavior is one of the most important criteria for newcomer research.

According to uncertainty reduction theory, supervisors transmit needed task and role information to newcomers through help, including formal knowledge, as well as tacit knowledge not included in formal organizational policies (Fisher, 1985; Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Louis, 1980; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Thus, we expect supervisor helping to increase newcomer's task performance and role clarity. In addition, because employees tend to see help as a supervisor's responsibility (Toegel, Kilduff, & Anand, 2013), those who do *not* obtain expected help will take its absence as a negative signal. Helping behavior also contributes to job attitudes because such exchanges are a primary means of reducing uncertainty (Louis, 1980), and newcomers should similarly feel a stronger relational connection to supervisors who provide them with greater help. Social exchange theory provides an account for such effects, in that helping is a favorable interpersonal contribution—specifically, an informational resource (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005)—that strengthens relational bonds and trust between the helper and the helped. Conversely, newcomers who receive less help should be less likely to report a satisfying working relationship. Last, we also expect that newcomers who obtain greater help that can be applied to mastering work responsibilities will report lower intentions to quit and will be less likely to actually quit the job (Rubenstein, Eberly, Lee, & Mitchell, 2018).

Supervisor Self-Oriented Motives, Helping Behavior, and Newcomer Outcomes

Beyond examining the results of greater or lesser help, the first stage of our model stipulates whether and how different supervisor helping motives predict help received. In part, supervisor motives to provide assistance exert their effect by sending a signal to newcomers that help is accessible. Asking for assistance is often a socially costly behavior because it exposes the newcomer to possible negative attention and involves admitting one's ignorance (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison & Vancouver, 2000). Moreover, supervisors who are motivated to help will engage in active inquiry to determine how much and what type of help is needed.

We drew from the literature on citizenship, volunteerism, altruism, and prosocial behavior, as well as extensively from the mentoring literature to explain helping motives and behavior from supervisors to newcomers (see Table 1). Although mentoring differs from supervising newcomers because of the relationship length and differences in direct authority, many features of the relationship are similar: Mentors have considerable insider information about the organization, may accrue material benefits and/or personal fulfillment from developing subordinates, and are in an excellent position to provide support (Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017). The literature on newcomer adjustment often discusses provision of these same functions, albeit in a unique form and with different implications because of differences in context.

First, supervisors might help a newcomer because doing so can provide him/her with various personal gains—we refer to this class of motives as self-oriented, emphasizing that the

ultimate desired beneficiary of the help offering is the supervisor. Our taxonomic work led us to recognize three self-oriented helping motives: tangible gains, affective (or emotional) gains, and self-enhancement. As can be seen in Table 1, of the 40 motives categories we identified in previous work, 22 make specific mention of personal or self-oriented benefits that might be accrued through help, in the sense that helping is goal-directed behavior intended to serve a particular function for the helper (Clary et al., 1998).

A *tangible gain* self-oriented motive describes a supervisor who offers a newcomer help in order to obtain material rewards or remuneration (Batson, Ahmad, & Lishner, 2011). Research has shown that senior employees are often more motivated to mentor new junior colleagues when they believe that there is a system in place in the organization that rewards higher levels of mentoring (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996). Relatedly, Allen, Poteet, and Russell (2000) found that senior employees were more likely to mentor those who have higher levels of ability, under the expectation that such high-ability individuals would be able to help them in the future. Other work has demonstrated that citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are often used as an instrumental means to obtain promotions (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000), and that prosocial behavior might be performed with expectations of explicit, tangible reciprocation (Penner et al., 2005).

An *affective gain* self-oriented motive reflects help offered to confer emotional benefit to the helper (Cialdini & Kenrick, 1976; Glomb, Bhave, Miner, & Wall, 2011). This motive is self-interested in that a supervisor still seeks something in return, but the outcome is emotional improvement, negative mood state relief, or affect maintenance (Cropanzano et al., 2005; Enzle & Lowe, 1976). Theoretically, research suggests that negative mood states are aversive, and that being an instrumental agent of improving someone else's circumstances (i.e., via helping) can restore, maintain, or improve one's mood to desired positive affect states (Cialdini & Kenrick, 1976; Cunningham, Steinberg, & Grev, 1980; Rushton, 1980). For instance, in a managerial sample, Glomb, Bhave, Miner, and Wall (2011) found that OCBs were often performed to regulate mood, or that "doing good leads to feeling good." Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) similarly observed that one reason why mentors helped protégés was so it could provide them emotional gratification/satisfaction, a finding corroborated by Hockey (1996) in terms of PhD supervisor motives for helping doctoral students.

A *self-enhancement* motive describes help given to bolster perceptions of one's competence or ego (Clary et al., 1998), or as an impression management tactic (Rioux & Penner, 2001). Support for this motive as a basis for supervisor behavior toward newcomers has been seen in much theoretical and empirical work: Aryee et al. (1996) theorized some senior managers choose to informally mentor those less experienced because it allows them to show off their skills or manage others' impressions of them, which was also evidenced by Allen et al. (1997) in terms of mentors seeking to improve their reputation, to gain pride, respect, or personal learning, or to see that they personally had a direct influence on another's development (see also Allen, 2003; Hockey, 1996). Still other work suggests some employees are motivated to engage in OCBs to reinforce that they are valuable assets to the organization (Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006; Grant & Mayer, 2009; Rioux & Penner, 2001).

Summarizing the evidence above, we hypothesize that self-oriented motives will lead supervisors to put greater effort into helping, such that newcomers will report greater levels of help received. This work also suggests that higher levels of help received will subsequently result in more favorable adjustment/socialization outcomes.

> *Hypothesis 1:* Supervisor tangible gain (H1a), affective gain (H1b), and self-enhancement (H1c) motives will be positively associated with newcomer-rated helping behavior, which will subsequently act as a mediator to more favorable adjustment/socialization outcomes.

Supervisor Other-Oriented Motives, Helping Behavior, and Newcomer Outcomes

An *other-oriented motive* reflects help given with the primary goal of increasing a newcomer's welfare, even if it does not make the supervisor better off (Batson et al., 2011; Penner et al., 2005). Table 1 shows that 10 of the 40 motives we identified in previous work highlight some form of an other-oriented or altruistic motive. Although many championing the other-oriented view do not deny that self-interest drives much behavior, they also appreciate that people often act in ways where their concern for another's welfare exists *sui generis* (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). Other-orientation emphasizes basic empathy, where one's motivation to help stems from the belief that giving relief to those in need is important, regardless of the personal costs it might entail (Batson et al., 2011; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). We propose that other-oriented supervisors are especially sensitive to newcomers who are in need of guidance, support, and clarity about how to do their work and understand their organization (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987), and will tend to engage in greater helping with the main goal of benefitting the newcomer.

In terms of our taxonomic justification, Allen et al. (1997), Allen (2003), and Aryee et al. (1996) all proposed a core motive for mentoring a protégé was altruism, or the desire to benefit another. Rioux and Penner (2001) similarly proposed "prosocial values" as a basis for OCB (see also Takeuchi, Bolino, & Lin, 2015), and De Dreu and Nauta (2009) found that other-orientation predicted pro-social behavior, even after controlling for self-interest. Kim, Van Dyne, Kamdar, and Johnson (2013) further clarified that when an employee holds strong prosocial values, s/he is apt to feel more strongly that helping is part of their work role, which subsequently predicted greater actual helping. Thus, we expect supervisors who report greater levels of other-orientation will internalize the primary goal of the newcomer, which is to become properly adjusted to their job/organization, and will be more likely to view it as their responsibility to help such employees. Altruism/empathic concern has elsewhere been linked to helping (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987), which is germane to socialization contexts where, having once been newcomers themselves, it should be easier for supervisors to recall the distress/uncertainty that comes with starting a new job. However, as with self-oriented motives, studies have not examined how an other-oriented *reason* for a supervisor's help predicts newcomer outcomes.

> *Hypothesis 2:* A supervisor other-oriented motive will be positively associated with newcomer-rated helping behavior,

which will subsequently act as a mediator to more favorable adjustment/socialization outcomes.

Supervisor Normative Motives, Helping Behavior, and Newcomer Outcomes

Normative motives emphasize help that is offered in order to uphold an external social standard—to behave in line with "what is typical or *norm*al" (Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990, p. 1015, emphasis original). Of the 40 motive categories identified in previous work and shown in Table 1, eight mention normative bases. According to social learning theory, norms are perceptions of customary or expected behavior that can induce people to act in ways that may be contrary to personal preferences (Rushton, 1980). Norms thus reflect a contextual component in the workplace, and are effective insofar as people feel a sense of pressure or social obligation to follow them (Bendor & Swistak, 2001; Schwartz, 1977).

The more that employees model helping, the more a norm will propagate that helping is common (i.e., a *descriptive norm*), and subsequently, the more likely supervisors will act in accordance with it (Bommer, Miles, & Grover, 2003; Cialdini et al., 1990; Schwartz, 1977). Norms can also be prescriptive, where there exists a collective belief that supervisors should or ought to help newcomers, with potential social sanctions if they were to not help (i.e., an *injunctive norm*; Park & Smith, 2007). The more a supervisor believes that other insiders expect employees should help newcomers, the more likely s/he will be to do so as well. Per Table 1, although some work has considered the role of normative influences on helping-related behaviors, this research is limited, and few studies have empirically tested the distinction between descriptive and injunctive social pressures on helping and employee outcomes (and no studies in newcomer contexts). However, Aryee et al. (1996) did find that opportunities for interactions on the job predicted manager's motivation to mentor junior colleagues, Allen et al. (1997) showed that a work environment where talking among employees is prevalent and employees offered support to one another could facilitate greater mentoring, and Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, and Suazo (2010) demonstrated that employee felt pressures to engage in OCBs were associated with greater levels of actual OCBs.

Hypothesis 3: Supervisor descriptive (H3a) and injunctive (H3b) normative motives will be positively associated with newcomer-rated helping behavior, which will subsequently act as a mediator to more favorable adjustment/socialization outcomes.

The Moderating Role of Newcomer Motive Attributions on Reciprocated Help

Although training and development of newcomers is often part of a formal supervisory job role, effective socialization is often more than the supervisor simply "doing their jobs." In many organizations, supervisors work in largely unstructured environments where each relationship is voluntary and idiosyncratic. This leaves room for significant variability in motives for help provision. Research suggests that both supervisors and employees see supervisors as providing different levels of assistance to newcomers (Korte et al., 2015; Liden et al., 1993; Sluss & Thompson, 2012), and other research (Toegel et al., 2013) finds that supervisors vary in how much they think providing help is discretionary versus required of them. Social exchange theorists emphasize that when there is mutual dependence between parties engaged in voluntary behavior, and parties repeatedly interact, reciprocity is likely to occur (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, how much a newcomer believes his or her supervisor helped them and importantly, why they helped, will likely impact how much they feel obligated to reciprocate to the supervisor, or if they do so at all (Toegel et al., 2013).

Up to this point, we have focused on helping motives from the supervisor's perspective. Just as well, newcomer perceptions of supervisor motives are also important when considering behavioral reciprocity. Attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley & Michela, 1980) proposes that perceptions of another's actions in part drives interpersonal relations. In the context of the present study, newcomers are social perceivers who seek to make sense of experienced events by making cognitive inferences about the causes, intentions, and in particular, motivations of their supervisor's behavior (Heider, 1958; Thomas & Pondy, 1977). We propose that how a newcomer attributes the reason(s) for a supervisor's help will affect his or her future help reciprocation. Thus, we propose that newcomer perceptions of supervisor motives moderate the relationship between help received and reciprocated help. We focus on reciprocation because motive attributions speak directly to social exchange theory's key mechanism of felt obligations to return a favor (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960; Toegel et al., 2013) and attribution theory also recognizes reciprocation (or lack thereof) as a primary reaction to interpersonal (mis)treatment as a function of motives (Heider, 1958). Because "helping helps"—that is, help is a cooperative action which facilitates learning and allows one to perform his or her job more effectively (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002)—it is not clear that perceived motives would influence instrumental outcomes such as performance or role clarity. Moreover, attitude appraisals or broader decisions about one's employment (turnover) will be directly affected by help for reasons described earlier, so a helping attribution would not necessarily strongly influence these outcomes either.

We propose that when newcomers attribute supervisor help as serving mainly self-interested ends, they will view it as an incongruent signal of their relationship quality. This is because newcomers may judge that the core basis for helping was not benevolence, but rather, exploitation (Ferris et al., 1995; Heider, 1958; Kelley & Michela, 1980). For tangible gains, when interpersonal exchanges are recognized as being explicit and economic in nature, we expect they will be attributed as being part of a more transactional contract with few undertones of trust, rather than a deeper relational psychological contract (De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk, 2003). If a supervisor receives obvious tangible gains from help, a newcomer may feel disappointed that the supervisor was not primarily focused on her/his needs or may deem that the "debt is already paid" and no reciprocity is owed (Toegel et al., 2013). We also expect newcomers will be sensitive to supervisor's affective and self-enhancement self-oriented motives (Gilbert & Malone, 1995). As a newcomer, deeming that your supervisor helped you merely to advance his or her own goals, such as to improve their mood or reinforce their skillset, could undermine your perception

that they are truly caring and considerate, and could result more in resentment rather than appreciation or gratitude (Heider, 1958; Tesser, Gatewood, & Driver, 1968). This would be represented by skeptical statements such as "The only reason why you helped me was because you wanted something for yourself" or "You didn't really care about my adjustment—you just wanted to show off." Of course, self-interested motives do not necessarily signal that the supervisor dislikes a newcomer, but it is not the same sort of positive message regarding help attributed to other-oriented concern. As a result of self-oriented attributions for an ostensibly good deed, we expect newcomers will be less inclined to reciprocate help.

> *Hypothesis 4:* Newcomer perceptions of supervisor's tangible gain (H4a), affective gain (H4b), and self-enhancement (H4c) motives will moderate the positive relationships between help received and reciprocated help, such that greater perceived self-oriented motives will weaken these positive effects.

In contrast to self-oriented motives, we expect a more favorable interaction pattern for newcomer attributions of a supervisor's other-oriented motive and helping behavior in predicting reciprocation. Newcomers who attribute a supervisor's help as other-oriented should be more likely to reciprocate, because the newcomer sees the supervisor as a caring individual who helped without need of extrinsic incentives (Heider, 1958; Kelley & Michela, 1980). A representative statement here would be "I can tell you helped me because you really care about getting me acclimated." In a recent study, Rodell and Lynch (2016) found that others who attributed a focal actor's volunteering to intrinsic (i.e., other-oriented) motives gave more credit for the behavior, whereas those who attributed it to impression management (i.e., self-oriented) motives tended to stigmatize the behavior.

> *Hypothesis 5:* Newcomer perceptions of supervisor's other-oriented motives moderate the positive relationships between help received and reciprocated help, such that greater perceived other-oriented motives will strengthen these positive effects.

We do not have clear theory on how newcomers would attribute perceptions of a supervisor's normative motives. Newcomers could perceive normative motives positively, as they see the supervisor's assistance contributing to an organizational helping culture (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Grant & Patil, 2012). Organizational justice theorizing also supports the possibility that perceived normative motives could enhance reciprocation in response to helping. A newcomer who deems their supervisor as acting in line with prosocial organizational norms is likely to interpret help as a reflection of an underlying set of consistent and unbiased procedures that will be followed by others in the organization, thereby increasing the predictability of the workplace and reducing uncertainty (Lind & van den Bos, 2002). Alternatively, such motives might be construed negatively, since help is given because the employee felt like they had to, and the newcomer is not centrally in mind (Lin, Savani, & Ilies, 2019). Equally, newcomers could attribute normative-driven helping as value-neutral—it is just "what everyone does" in this organization. As such, we offer no moderation hypotheses for normative motives.

Method

To correspond with our theoretical development of helping motives as predictors of newcomer adjustment, we developed and validated a measure of supervisor motives for helping newcomers following a deductive content validation approach (Hinkin, 1998; Hinkin & Tracey, 1999). This measure can be administered to assess supervisor or other insiders' helping motives toward newcomers, and can also be adapted (as we have done) to assess newcomer perceptions of supervisor or other insiders' helping motives. Complete details regarding the helping motives measure development are provided in Appendix A.

Main Study Sample and Procedure

Following the measure development, we tested our conceptual model. The study was approved through University of Florida's Institutional Review Board (Protocol #U-617–2013): Examining the Motives Behind Helping Newcomers at Work. These data were obtained over time from 377 newcomer sales agents and 55 supervisors from a life insurance company in the Midwest United States. Before starting work, new agents must first hold a state-regulated license. After obtaining a license, each newcomer receives the agency's sales pitch. New agents have 6 days to learn the pitch and then rehearse it with their supervisor. This is followed by 1 week of in-class training, consisting of learning company products and additional sales techniques. Classroom training is followed by 2 weeks of shadowed on-the-job training, where newcomers work closely with supervisors going to prospective client homes. On the first day, agents watch their supervisor engage with clients. As each day progresses, newcomers participate in more of the pitch process until week two, when both the newcomer and supervisor jointly pitch clients. At the end of training, supervisors watch newcomers pitch independently, giving feedback after each meeting. During these 2 weeks, supervisors spend considerable time helping newcomers with selling, sharing information on how things work within the company, and developing a working relationship. Supervisors and newcomers also share sales commissions from successful appointments during this period. Before starting on their own, agents meet with the owner to further practice their pitch. Once the owner deems an agent is ready, s/he is given a list of leads to schedule appointments. A typical day consists of seven to nine 1-hr appointments, along with driving. Once past orientation, supervisors are evaluated based on the total sales volume of all new agents s/he has brought into the organization.

Newcomers and supervisors were each surveyed at three time points to reduce common method variance concerns. All invitations were distributed via e-mail with a link to a secure Qualtrics survey; respondents were informed that data would be kept on private servers and would not be disclosed to the organization. Survey 1 assessed personality and demographic information. Because this information is relatively stable, we surveyed supervisors before newcomers were hired. For newcomers, an office manager distributed survey links immediately following completion of licensing exams. We sent independent e-mail links for Survey 2 to newcomers and supervisors immediately after newcomers completed field training. This survey had newcomers rate supervisor helping and motives, and supervisors rated their own helping and motives. Survey 3 was administered one month later, before new-

comers received their second set of leads, and contained measures related to the adjustment and socialization outcomes. Over the next 13 weeks, we also obtained each agent's weekly sales volume via organizational records (or, if they left the company before 13 weeks, as many weeks of data that were available).

Newcomers had a mean age of 37.65 years old. Thirty percent of the newcomers were female, 36% were married, and 62% were Caucasian. They had worked for an average of 1.96 employers over the previous 5 years. Supervisors had a mean age of 38.78 years, 22% were female, had a mean organizational tenure of 46 months, and from Survey 2, reported that they interacted with newcomers almost "all of the time" (mean rating of 4.73 out of 5.00).

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, all items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

Time 1: Demographics and personality. At Time 1, we assessed the above demographics, as well as the personality control of *neuroticism*, which has been shown to affect multiple perceptions of work attitudes and social behavior. Neuroticism was measured using eight items from Saucier's (1994) minimarkers. Respondents indicated how well a given adjective describes them in general. Sample items included "moody" and "temperamental." Internal consistency reliability was $\alpha = .80$.

Time 2: Helping motives and behavior.

Helping motives. The helping motives measure (see Appendix A for items) was given to both newcomers and supervisors. Newcomers rated their perceptions of supervisor motives, and supervisors rated their own motives. For newcomer ratings, internal consistency reliabilities were $\alpha = .94$ for tangible gain, $\alpha = .91$ for affective gain, $\alpha = .94$ for self-enhancement, $\alpha = .95$ for other-oriented, $\alpha = .98$ for descriptive norms, and $\alpha = .94$ for injunctive norms. For supervisor ratings, reliabilities were $\alpha = .97$ for tangible gain, $\alpha = .96$ for affective gain, $\alpha = .96$ for self-enhancement, $\alpha = .95$ for other-oriented, $\alpha = .97$ for descriptive norms, and $\alpha = .96$ for injunctive norms.

Helping behavior. As noted in the introduction, the newcomer phase is qualitatively different than working as an insider, so newcomer received help is different than that of what others receive. Most extant measures of interpersonal helping are focused on insider-to-insider help, which ask about passing along information or helping with workloads (LePine et al., 2002). Having been unable to find a measure explicitly applicable to helping newcomers, we adapted 26 items from Chao et al. (1994). This scale measures the "content" of being socialized, which includes knowledge of an organization's history, language, politics, people, goals, and values, and performance (see Appendix B for items). We adapted this to reflect help given to newcomers to gain such knowledge. For example, an item of performance proficiency originally states, "I have mastered the required tasks of my job"; we adapted this for newcomers to read "During my first month at work, my supervisor helped me in learning the required tasks of my job." Both newcomers and supervisors completed this measure, with the former rating help received, and the latter rating help given. Internal consistency for the scale was $\alpha = .98$ for newcomers rating supervisor help and $\alpha = .94$ for supervisors rating help given.

Times 3 and 4: Adjustment/socialization outcomes. One month after Time 2, newcomers received an e-mail to answer a third survey. All outcomes except performance and turnover behavior were measured at this time. Thirteen weeks after Time 2 (roughly 90 days of newcomers working on their own), we obtained data on newcomer task performance and turnover behavior. This right censor was chosen consistent with research on the typical length of the socialization period (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013).

Task (sales) performance. Newcomer task performance was measured based on organizational records of objective sales volume, averaged across 13 weeks of independent work appointments. If the newcomer left the organization before the 13-week censor, we took the mean sales performance across all weeks in which the newcomer was employed.

Role clarity. Role clarity was measured by newcomers with a six-item scale from Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). A sample item is "I feel certain about how much authority I have." Internal consistency reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .85$.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured with five items from Brayfield and Rothe (1951). A sample item is "I feel fairly well satisfied with my job." Reliability was $\alpha = .83$.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured with three items from Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). A sample item is "I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization." Reliability was $\alpha = .84$.

Supervisor satisfaction. Supervisor satisfaction was measured using four items from Ragins and Cotton (1999), replacing the referent "mentor" with "supervisor." A sample item is "My supervisor is someone I am satisfied with." Reliability was $\alpha = .90$.

Reciprocated help. Newcomers rated their agreement with seven items from Williams and Anderson (1991). A sample item is "I have helped my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)." Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .86$.

Turnover intentions. This was measured using a four-item scale from Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Cammann (1982). A sample item is "I often think about quitting." Reliability was $\alpha = .91$.

Turnover behavior. As noted above, 13 weeks after Time 2 we retrieved data from organizational records assessing if newcomers were still employed (coded 0) or if they had voluntarily left their job (coded 1). By this right censoring period, 193 individuals had quit, representing a voluntary turnover rate of 49%.

Analyses

Hypotheses were tested using Mplus Version 8.2. We tested the proposed relationships using a partially latent multilevel structural equations model, with scale means across items set as a single observed indicator loading of its respective latent factor, with measurement error variances set to $(1 - \alpha) \times$ variance, where α is equal to the internal consistency reliability. The multilevel mediation model is a "1-1-1" model (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010), as all data were in reference to each newcomer, but variance in motives and helping behavior ratings were partitioned into within- and between-persons due to some newcomers being nested within the same supervisor. Sales performance and turnover be-

havior were treated with a reliability of 1.00. We allowed the latent factors among motives to covary, as research suggests that motives are not mutually exclusive (Clary et al., 1998).

Unfortunately, our model did not converge when we tested a model including all dependent variables. The major issue was including the dichotomous turnover variable along with other continuous variables. As such, we analyzed the turnover behavior model separately. Fit statistics for the continuous variable mediated model were acceptable, with estimates as follows: $\chi^2 = 54.13$ ($df = 36$), $p < .05$, CFI = .98, TLI = .96 RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06. For the turnover model, we used a weighted least-squares estimator. In such analyses, researchers recommend reporting the weighted root mean-square residual (WRMR). Yu (2002) suggested WRMR values of <.90 as having good model fit. Fit statistics for this model were as follows: $\chi^2 = 5.30$ ($df = 6$), $p > .05$, CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.01, RMSEA = .00, WRMR = .31.

To examine the significance of mediation effects, we used a nonparametric percentile bias-corrected (BC) bootstrap resampling technique to estimate indirect effect confidence intervals. We resampled 1,000 times to estimate lower and upper bounds for confidence intervals of the BC indirect effects. For moderation tests, we estimated a latent factor for newcomer-rated helping behavior and each newcomer perceived supervisor motive. We then computed latent interaction terms using the latent moderated structural equations approach (LMS; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). LMS is a distribution-analytic approach that implements a maximum likelihood estimation based on joint indictor vectors of each latent factor and a conditional distribution to represent the interaction, rather than product indicators. LMS has been shown to be superior to product indicators in that the latter can result in asymptotically incorrect standard errors and violates assumptions of a normal product term distribution (Kelava et al., 2011).

Results

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and intercorrelations among the main study variables are shown in Table 2. Before reviewing mediation results, it is worth noting the direct structural coefficients of the various motives on helping behavior from the SEM (see Tables 3 and 4). Consistent with our theorizing, we found significant positive links between supervisor-rated tangible gain motives ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and other-oriented motives ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$) predicting newcomer-rated helping behavior. We did not find positive links between supervisor affective gain motives ($\beta = .15$, *ns*), descriptive norms ($\beta = -.14$, *ns*), or injunctive norms ($\beta = -.16$, *ns*) and helping. An unhypothesized but significant *negative* effect was also found for self-enhancement motives and helping ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .05$). This information is useful in interpreting indirect effects, particularly in explaining how our mediation hypotheses relating self-enhancement to newcomer adjustment were not only unsupported, but rather were contradicted.

Mediation of Helping Behavior to Adjustment Outcomes

Hypothesis 1 concerned the mediated relationships between self-oriented helping motives, helping behavior, and adjustment/socialization outcomes. The structural model results testing these indirect effects are shown in Table 5. Hypothesis 1a predicted that helping would mediate the link between tangible gain motives and adjustment/socialization. As shown in the table, no significant indirect effects were seen from tangible gain motives to performance. For role clarity, supervisors' tangible gain motives had a positive indirect effect ($\gamma = .10$, $p < .05$), and the indirect effects to job satisfaction ($\gamma = .11$), organizational commitment ($\gamma = .08$), and supervisor satisfaction ($\gamma = .08$) were also significant at $p < .05$, whereas the indirect effect for turnover intentions was significant and negative ($\gamma = -.08$, $p < .05$). The indirect effect to turnover behavior was not significant for this motive (or any others). As such, we conclude general support for H1a, aside from the objective outcomes. H1b predicted that helping would mediate the relationship from affective gain motives to newcomer outcomes. As shown in Table 5, no indirect effects were significant for this motive, so H1b is not supported. H1c predicted that helping would mediate the relationships from self-enhancement motives to newcomer outcomes. As can be seen, various indirect effects are significant, though all are in an unfavorable direction, so we conclude no support for H1c, as higher levels of supervisor self-enhancement motives actually led to worse adjustment/socialization outcomes.

Hypothesis 2 concerned the indirect effects of other-orientation, also shown in Table 5. We did not find significant effects to task performance ($\gamma = -.04$, *ns*), but there was a positive indirect effect from other-orientation to role clarity ($\gamma = .17$, $p < .01$), job satisfaction ($\gamma = .18$, $p < .01$), organizational commitment ($\gamma = .13$, $p < .05$), supervisor satisfaction ($\gamma = .14$, $p < .01$), and a negative indirect effect to turnover intentions ($\gamma = -.15$, $p < .01$). Thus, aside from our objective outcomes, Hypothesis 2 is generally supported.

Hypothesis 3 concerned the indirect effects of normative motives on outcomes. As shown in Table 5, There were no significant indirect effects from descriptive norms either to sales performance ($\gamma = .02$, *ns*) or to role clarity ($\gamma = -.08$, *ns*); there was a similar lack of an indirect relationship between injunctive norms to sales performance ($\gamma = .02$, *ns*) or to role clarity ($\gamma = -.09$, *ns*). Descriptive norms did not have a significant indirect relationship with job satisfaction ($\gamma = -.09$, *ns*), organizational commitment ($\gamma = -.07$, *ns*), or supervisor satisfaction ($\gamma = -.07$, *ns*). There was also no significant indirect relationship between injunctive norms and job satisfaction ($\gamma = -.10$, *ns*), organizational commitment ($\gamma = -.07$, *ns*), or supervisor satisfaction ($\gamma = -.08$, *ns*). Finally, there was not a significant indirect effect from descriptive norms to either turnover intentions ($\gamma = .07$, *ns*) or turnover behavior ($\gamma = .00$, *ns*), nor was there a significant indirect relationship between injunctive norms and turnover intentions ($\gamma = .08$, *ns*) or behavior ($\gamma = .02$, *ns*). Taken as a whole, there was not a single case in which normative motives had a significant indirect relationship with any outcome, so Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

Moderating Role of Newcomer Perceived Supervisor Motives

Hypothesis 4 proposed newcomer perceived self-oriented motives would moderate the relationship between helping behavior and reciprocated help. These results are depicted in Table 6. Here, we report significance the interaction terms (controlling for main effects), along with simple slope (SS) analyses to examine effects at low (−1 *SD*) and high (+1 *SD*) levels of the motive moderator

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelation Matrix

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Control variable (Time 1)																									
1. Newcomer-rated neuroticism	1.88	0.56	*.80*																						
Supervisor-rated helping motives (Time 2)																									
2. Tangible gain	2.46	1.00	.09	.97																					
3. Affective gain	3.24	0.99	.15	.31	*.96*																				
4. Self-enhancement	2.91	0.95	.08	.31	.57	*.96*																			
5. Other-orientation	4.47	0.52	.08	.20	−.05	.03	*.95*																		
6. Descriptive norms	4.37	0.55	.14	.05	−.11	−.06	.37	*.97*																	
7. Injunctive norms	4.43	0.54	.09	.14	−.11	−.09	.43	.55	*.96*																
Newcomer-rated supervisor helping motives (Time 2)																									
8. Tangible gain	1.97	0.99	.24	−.09	.08	.10	.01	.10	.06	*.94*															
9. Affective gain	3.24	1.01	.03	.03	.15	.04	.02	−.14	−.13	.13	*.91*														
10. Self-enhancement	2.85	1.08	.17	.08	.14	.07	.06	.09	.10	.46	.55	*.94*													
11. Other-orientation	4.37	0.76	−.23	.08	−.02	−.09	.03	−.17	−.08	−.49	.19	−.18	*.95*												
12. Descriptive norms	4.32	0.82	−.33	−.06	.03	−.06	−.10	−.17	−.11	−.17	.16	.02	.42	*.98*											
13. Injunctive norms	4.27	0.79	−.23	−.07	−.01	−.12	−.04	−.12	−.07	−.11	.16	.06	.39	.85	*.94*										
Helping behavior (Time 2)																									
14. Newcomer-rated help received	4.25	0.76	−.16	.16	.02	−.05	.15	−.14	−.10	−.35	.28	−.03	.65	.37	.36	*.98*									
15. Supervisor-rated help given	4.09	0.56	.03	.17	.14	.18	.34	.33	.32	.06	.00	.11	.04	.11	.10	−.04	*.94*								
Adjustment/socialization outcomes (Times 3 and 4)																									
16. Task performance (sales)	13.95	10.88	.15	.16	.19	.13	.06	.04	.07	.09	.02	.09	.14	.00	−.02	−.09	.26	—							
17. Role clarity	4.09	0.65	−.25	.10	−.08	−.06	−.07	−.10	−.01	−.16	.17	.10	.48	.25	.27	.40	.03	−.03	*.85*						
18. Job satisfaction	4.05	0.69	−.25	.21	.05	.15	.15	−.03	.03	−.11	.06	.08	.34	.35	.37	.45	.32	.17	.63	*.83*					
19. Organizational commitment	4.36	0.70	−.29	.22	.03	.13	.05	−.03	−.01	−.11	.14	.02	.23	.26	.34	.34	.34	.10	.56	.63	*.84*				
20. Supervisor satisfaction	4.17	0.86	−.12	.25	.00	.01	−.04	−.12	.04	−.29	.22	−.05	.58	.24	.22	.50	.18	−.06	.68	.53	.52	*.90*			
21. Reciprocated helping	3.82	0.83	−.14	−.10	−.01	−.15	.13	−.03	−.09	−.18	.24	−.23	.21	.19	.30	.34	.24	.36	.27	.39	.45	.18	*.86*		
22. Turnover intentions	1.62	0.73	.37	−.09	.06	−.01	−.06	.01	.00	.09	.01	.00	−.25	−.41	−.46	−.38	−.18	−.17	−.56	−.69	−.66	−.49	−.45	*.91*	
23. Turnover (0 = stay, 1 = quit)	0.49	0.50	.18	.01	.07	−.01	.08	.02	.01	−.02	−.03	−.01	−.05	−.07	−.07	−.04	−.17	−.18	−.07	−.12	−.17	−.12	−.17	.05	—

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers, $n = 55$ supervisors. Coefficient alphas are presented along the diagonal. Task performance and turnover behavior are objective measures, whereas all other adjustment outcomes are newcomer-rated at Time 3. Newcomer-rated correlations greater than |.11| are significant at $p < .05$. Supervisor-rated motive correlations greater than |.27| are significant at $p < .05$.

Table 3
Direct Effects of Supervisor-Rated Motives Predicting Newcomer-Rated Helping Behavior

Variable	Helping behavior	
	β	*B* (*SE*)
Neuroticism	−.28*	−.07 (.03)
Tangible gain	.17*	.13 (.06)
Affective gain	.15	.11 (.09)
Self-enhancement	−.26*	−.20 (.09)
Other-oriented	.29**	.46 (.14)
Descriptive norms	−.14	−.20 (.37)
Injunctive norms	−.16	−.23 (.40)
R^2	.15	

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers, $n = 55$ supervisors. Standard errors reported in parentheses.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

mean. Significant interactions were found for tangible gain-by-helping in predicting reciprocated help (β = −.29, $p < .01$, low TG SS = .90, high TG SS = .28). However, no significant interactions were found for either affective gain motives (β = .07, *ns*) or self-enhancement motives (β = .03, *ns*). To examine the pattern of the interaction effect between tangible gain motives and helping in predicting reciprocation, we plotted the simple slope effects. As shown in Figure 2, at low levels of help, regardless of high or low tangible gain motives, we observed the lowest reciprocated help levels. However, at higher levels of help, newcomers did not reciprocate as much if they attributed that help to higher tangible gain motives. As such, we conclude support for only H4a.

Hypothesis 5 suggested that the more a newcomer perceived their supervisor as having an other-oriented (OO) motive, the stronger the positive relationship between helping and reciprocated help would become. Results for these analyses are also shown in Table 6 and show a significant interaction term after controlling for main effects and neuroticism (β = .26, $p < .01$, low OO SS = .38, high OO SS = .80). As predicted, the positive relationship between helping and reciprocated help was stronger when newcomers attributed supervisor help to higher levels of other-oriented motivation (depicted in Figure 3). Thus, the results support Hypothesis 5.

Supplementary Analyses

Aside from the motives we have examined, self-expansion theory has also been used to explain leader actions to focus on the development of followers (i.e., servant leadership), based on the premise that a leaders' desire to help others is at least partially a function of the unification of a leader's own identity with that of a follower's (Dansereau, Seitz, Chiu, Shaughnessy, & Yammarino, 2013). The literature in social psychology has proposed, and empirically demonstrated, that this "inclusion of other in the self" accounts for significant variability in helping behavior (e.g., Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992; Maner et al., 2002). This work has further shown that empathic feelings for others did not explain variance in helping after controlling for inclusion of other in the self. Thus, a shortcoming of our main sample is its focus on more "individualizing" supervisor motives, with a comparative lack of attention to motivations independent of the relationship between parties. How-

Table 4
Direct Effects Predicting Adjustment/Socialization Outcomes

Variable	Task performance (Sales)		Role clarity		Job satisfaction		Organizational commitment		Supervisor satisfaction		Turnover intentions		Turnover behavior	
	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)
Neuroticism	.12	.43 (.34)	−.43	−.06 (.03)	−.48	−.06 (.03)	−.52*	−.09 (.04)	−.22	−.06 (.05)	.50**	.10 (.04)	.26**	.12 (.04)
Helping behavior	−.14	−2.07 (1.26)	.58**	.41 (.10)	.64**	.48 (.09)	.46**	.36 (.10)	.50**	.62 (.13)	−.51**	−.45 (.10)	−.05	−.07 (.10)

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers. Standard errors reported in parentheses.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 5
Indirect Effects Linking Supervisor Motives to Newcomer Outcomes via Helping Behavior

Variable	Task performance (Sales)		Role clarity		Job satisfaction		Organizational commitment		Supervisor satisfaction		Turnover intentions		Turnover behavior	
	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)	β	*B* (*SE*)
Tangible gain (Hypothesis 1a)	−.02	−.26 (.19)	.10*	.05 (.03)	.11*	.06 (.03)	.08*	.05 (.02)	.08*	.08 (.04)	−.08*	−.06 (.03)	−.01	−.01 (.02)
Affective gain (Hypothesis 1b)	−.02	−.23 (.23)	.08	.05 (.04)	.09	.05 (.04)	.07	.04 (.03)	.07	.07 (.06)	−.07	−.05 (.04)	−.01	−.01 (.02)
Self-enhancement (Hypothesis 1c)	.04	.42 (.32)	−.15*	−.08 (.04)	−.17*	−.10 (.05)	−.12	−.07 (.04)	−.13*	−.12 (.06)	.13*	.09 (.05)	.02	.02 (.03)
Other-oriented (Hypothesis 2)	−.04	−.94 (.63)	.17**	.19 (.08)	.18**	.22 (.08)	.13*	.16 (.07)	.14**	.28 (.11)	−.15**	−.21 (.08)	−.02	−.04 (.06)
Descriptive norms (Hypothesis 3a)	.02	.42 (.79)	−.08	−.08 (.15)	−.09	−.10 (.18)	−.07	−.07 (.13)	−.07	.13 (.23)	.07	.09 (.17)	.00	.01 (.02)
Injunctive norms (Hypothesis 3b)	.02	.47 (.89)	−.09	−.09 (.17)	−.10	−.11 (.20)	−.07	−.08 (.15)	−.08	−.14 (.25)	.08	.10 (.19)	.02	.03 (.05)
R^2		.00		.29		.35		.23		.19		.28		.00

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers, $n = 55$ supervisors. Standard errors reported in parentheses. Model includes control variable of newcomer self-rated neuroticism. Turnover behavior analyzed as independent model from other dependent variables.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 6
Moderation Effects of Newcomer Perceived Supervisor Motives on Reciprocated Help

Variable	Reciprocated help	
	β	*B* (*SE*)
Supervisor helping	.59**	.39 (.13)
Perceived TG motive	−.31*	−.14 (.06)
Helping × TG	−.29**	−.25 (.08)
R^2	.33	
Supervisor helping	.43**	.31 (.10)
Perceived AG motive	.21	.12 (.07)
Helping × AG	.07	.05 (.09)
R^2	.28	
Supervisor helping	.45**	.32 (.09)
Perceived *SE* motive	−.30	−.15 (.08)
Helping × *SE*	.03	.02 (.14)
R^2	.28	
Supervisor helping	.59**	.40 (.14)
Perceived OO motive	.16*	.16 (.07)
Helping × OO	.26**	.23 (.08)
R^2	.33	

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers. All analyses control for newcomer self-rated neuroticism. Supervisor helping and newcomer perceived helping motives assessed at Time 2, reciprocated help assessed at Time 3. TG = tangible gain motive; AG = affective gain motive; *SE* = self-enhancement motive; OO = other-oriented motive.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

ever, as an anonymous reviewer pointed out, along with inclusion of other in self, many insiders may be motivated to help a newcomer based on a desire to improve the functioning and outcomes for the organization and its stakeholders. This is particularly likely for those who approach their work as a calling rather than as a job/career (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997), meaning such individuals are deeply passionate about their work because it brings fulfillment to their life.

To address these concerns, we obtained an additional dataset from 179 supervisors (mean tenure = 4.92 years), who rated their levels of helping behavior toward a specific newcomer they had supervised recently (mean newcomer tenure = 10.32 months), and their helping motives. The validation study was approved through University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (Protocol #STUDY00000862): Helping Behavior and Motives. Beyond our main study motives, this validation study also assessed self-other overlap and calling orientation. Self-other overlap was

Figure 2. Interaction between newcomer's perceived tangible gain motive and helping predicting reciprocated help.

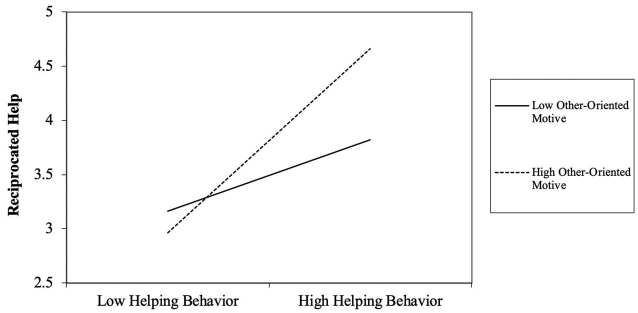

Figure 3. Interaction between newcomer's perceived other-oriented motive and helping predicting reciprocated help.

assessed with the Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale (Aron et al., 1992), where supervisors rated which among seven increasingly overlapping pictures best described their relationship with the newcomer. Calling orientation was measured with eight items from Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, and Schwartz (1997) where supervisors rated on a 1–5 scale the extent to which they saw their job as a calling based on factors like seeing their work as rewarding, often working past scheduled hours, and willing to choose the same line of work if they had to do things over again. Our main sample results predicting supervisor-rated helping behavior were replicated even after accounting for inclusion of other in self and calling orientation. Supervisor other-orientation remained a significant predictor among our six motives of supervisor-rated helping ($B = .25$, $t = 4.13$, $p < .01$), and similarly, in our main study sample, supervisor-rated other-orientation was the only significant predictor of supervisor-reported help given ($B = .31$, $t = 2.89$, $p < .01$). These results suggest that inclusion of other in the self and calling orientation, which we found to also be significant predictors of supervisor help (self-other overlap: $B = .11$, $t = 3.68$, $p < .01$; calling: $B = .14$, $t = 2.40$, $p < .05$), may act as a complement to an other-oriented motive. Combined with the aforementioned literature in social psychology, the results suggest that something other than self-other overlap and calling may lay at the root of other-orientation.

Discussion

The current state of research clearly shows that newcomers can reap large gains from a supervisor's provision of knowledge, feedback, role modeling, and tangible resources (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). However, prior research also shows that supervisors vary significantly in the extent to which they provide needed help to newcomers (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). This investigation examined the premise that part of the variability in supervisor assistance rests on the unique motivations supervisors have when it comes to socializing newcomers, shining light on this important and long-overlooked topic.

Our research began with a review spanning multiple disciplines to derive a taxonomy of supervisor motives for helping newcomers. Complemented by a two-sample construct validation effort, our results verified six distinct reasons for supervisor helping: tangible gain, affective gain, self-enhancement, other-orientation, descriptive norms, and injunctive norms. Second, our multisource, time-lagged field study with newly hired insurance agents and their supervisors showed that supervisor helping toward newcomers is driven by multiple distinct motives and that different motives have comparatively unique effects on adjustment outcomes. Although not all motives were significant predictors of our criteria, tangible gain and other-oriented motives were positively associated with myriad newcomer outcomes; curiously, however, self-enhancement motives resulted in newcomers generally reporting worse adjustment/socialization.

This pattern of results suggests that supervisor efforts to help newcomers are in part dependent on their motives. In the case of tangible gains, because a supervisor's expected return on their helping investment is contingent on how effectively a newcomer performs, supervisors possibly put more time and energy into making sure that their help offerings are well received (Toegel et al., 2013). A supervisor motivated by tangible gains perhaps actually wants the newcomer to turn out better—to justify anticipated self-benefits—whereas for affective gain and self-enhancement, the focus appears to be mostly on the supervisor him/herself, regardless of whether or how much the newcomer benefits from help (Glomb et al., 2011). Seeking affective gains perhaps does not drive a supervisor to ask serious questions about the effectiveness of the assistance. Similarly, self-enhancement could divert a supervisor's attention away from the explicit goal of providing high-quality assistance, being more concerned with the personal reminder that his or her ability, confidence, or esteem has been affirmed. Focusing on looking good appears to yield behavior that might be packaged as "assistance" in the supervisor's mind, yet does not help the newcomer (Clary et al., 1998). The use of potentially low-efficacy helping strategies may also explain the lack of significant effects between normative motives and perceived help. Unlike a supervisor with a tangible gain or other-oriented motive, one with a normative motive appears mostly concerned with modeling surface-level behaviors exhibited by others (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Explicit efforts put forth to comply with norms also seem to be lacking here, as they did not generate any genuine newcomer feelings of being assisted. Such results align with findings of Weinstein and Ryan (2010), in that greater self-determined motives more strongly predicted helping than did controlled (i.e., normative) motives. Moreover, the high correlation between newcomer perceptions of supervisors' descriptive and injunctive norm motives suggests that newcomers may not yet be able to perceive such differences in the organizational context for helping as being common versus expected of employees.

Granted, the extent to which supervisor outcomes are tied to newcomer outcomes in this study is affected by the incentives in this context—supervisors are paid more when new hires they onboard are better performers. However, supervisors are also motivated by tangible gains for other outcomes, such as their own sales performance, and so some may allocate more effort to these elements (Bergeron, 2007). Supervisors may also differentially invest energy to helping different newcomers based on the expectation of different returns on their time investment, in the same way that mentors invest different levels of energy in protégés based on perceived competence (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008; Liden et al., 1993). Differences in perceived costs and benefits of helping may be why, even within this context, our data showed significant variability in tangible gain and other motives. Further work might therefore examine the differential role of these motives and perceptions in other contexts. Another factor related

to our sample is the fact that supervisors are especially capable of providing task-relevant assistance because the organization promotes individuals based on past sales performance. Supervisors in other settings who are less capable in their job might be less able to provide effective help. As such, future research should examine situations where newcomers might suspect that their supervisor has less task expertise.

Our last objective addressed interactions between supervisor help and newcomer perceived motives in predicting reciprocated help. We found that help was reciprocated most under perceived motive conditions of low tangible gain or high other-oriented motives. When helping pays direct dividends, the receiver may feel the reciprocity ledger is balanced (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; De Vos et al., 2003; Toegel et al., 2013), whereas when help is deemed given to purely benefit the recipient, the same sort of help will be given in return. These results reinforce how supervisors and newcomers can form different reciprocity-based relationships as a result of how much help is received as well as motive attributions for that help (Heider, 1958; Toegel et al., 2013). Our data show how the level of help elicited by supervisors is highly variable, with a generally high mean but significant variability. Similarly, newcomer reciprocity also varied, in part explained by newcomers' perceptions of supervisor's motives.

Theoretical Implications

This study offers several theoretical implications. First, we furthered investigation of the etiology of altruistic/prosocial behaviors toward newcomers at work (Penner et al., 2005; Weinstein & Ryan, 2010). Most research has focused only on the outcomes of newcomer received help, with the reasons *why* a supervisor helps left out of the equation. To date, the two literatures of helping motivation and newcomer outcomes have lived separately—we integrate these distinct streams. Our taxonomy establishes six helping motives for the newcomer context, challenging Procrustean frameworks that propose a simple dichotomy of self- versus other-regard (Batson et al., 2011; Piliavin & Charng, 1990). We take the stance for a richer picture of motives, considering the myriad reasons why supervisors perform such discretionary actions.

Second, our results revealed that each motive had unique effects on newcomer perceptions of help received, and on their subsequent adjustment. Perhaps most striking is our finding that in some respects, self-interest—specifically, the desire for tangible gains—might not always be seen as a pejorative (Kohn, 1990), as newcomers reported receiving useful advice/knowledge from supervisors reporting higher levels of such motives. Also, supporting the view of altruism as a general social value (Rushton, 1980), we found that supervisors with a greater other-oriented motive also resulted in more positive newcomer outcomes. However, despite having reliable and validated instruments, not all motives exhibited significant effects.

Examining motive interrelationships answers calls for further research as to the complex nature of self-concern and other-orientation (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). The unipolar view assumes that self- and other-orientation are opposites of a single continuum, due to arguments suggesting that other-oriented individuals act inconsistently with rational choice theories of behavior, a hallmark of explaining self-interested actions (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). Alternatively, skeptics of this view emphasize that although self-orientation is closely intertwined with the rational choice perspective, other-oriented behavior need not be considered *irrational*. The *self-concern and other-orientation as moderators* (SCOOM) hypothesis proposes that employees can differ in the strength of both of these motives, and thus are better viewed as independent constructs (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Across three samples, our results corroborate the SCOOM hypothesis, given the weak to modest intercorrelation pattern between the three self-oriented motives and other-orientation.

Third, the results reveal that not all help is interpreted equally, which qualifies the notion that help given should most often result in help reciprocated, to the degree that partners in an exchange relationship have mutual obligations to one another (Gouldner, 1960). Although social exchange theory tends to assume a process of explicit *quid pro quo* (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), when integrated with an attribution theory lens, our results better describe a pattern of *conditional reciprocity*, wherein a given party (i.e., a newcomer) reciprocates help to an initial exchange partner (i.e., a supervisor) as a function of received help as well as motive attributions for that help. Thus, we advance theory by revealing how relationships and reciprocation efforts are not only determined by the type of exchange partner involved (e.g., Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), but also vary in terms of whether one party approves or disapproves of the underlying basis for why the other party acted as they did.

Fourth, with our matched data, we were able to explore helping motives and behavior agreement between newcomers and supervisors (see Table 7). Kenny's (1994) social relations theory highlights self-other agreement as a core component of interpersonal perception, but research tends to find weak correlations between ratings (Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979). We, too, found low newcomer–supervisor agreement for both motive ratings and given/received help. One possible explanation for this result could be that self-ratings are inflated so as to misrepresent the reality of one's intentions and behavior (Conway & Huffcutt, 1997). If this were true, other-ratings might be recommended as the more construct-valid measurement approach (Allen, Barnard, Rush, & Russell, 2000). However, sufficient and meaningful variance was found across all motives, suggesting social desirability bias is less likely the case. A second explanation would posit that self- and other-motive ratings are assessing unique constructs, rather than just the same phenomenon from independent sources (Connelly &

Table 7
Intercorrelations Between Newcomer and Supervisor Ratings of Helping Motives and Behavior

Variable	Newcomer-supervisor agreement
Helping behavior	−.04
Tangible gain motive	−.09
Affective gain motive	.15*
Self-enhancement motive	.07
Other-oriented motive	.03
Descriptive norms motive	−.17*
Injunctive norms motive	−.07

Note. $n = 377$ newcomers, $n = 55$ supervisors.
* $p < .05$.

Ones, 2010). For instance, although supervisors may be able to accurately introspect as to their own motives, the cues newcomers use to judge motives are only gleaned from manifest actions (Brunswik, 1952) and so may tap into something altogether different. To better understand the underlying nature of these self-perceptions and others' ratings—and perhaps to understand what factors improve motives agreement (e.g., cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence, political skill, experience, relationship length)—more work is needed to determine the cues used in gauging others' motivations, the "tells" actors communicate to display their motivations, and whether certain motives are revealed more or less conspicuously in behavior (DePaulo, 1992).

Our results clearly show that there are differences between supervisors' ratings of their own motives and newcomer perceptions of supervisor motives. The realistic accuracy model (Funder & Colvin, 1988) does predict such discrepancies when making inferences about other people—especially in relatively nascent relationships—and when the constructs of interest require multiple inferences of observed behavior. As noted in previous work, sometimes differences in correlation patterns may be reflective of true variance in the focal construct of perceived behavior or attitudes (Burris, Detert, & Romney, 2013; Dalal, 2005). Prior research related to mentoring (Allen & Eby, 2008), interpersonal trust (Kim, Wang, & Chen, 2018), empowering leadership (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014), and leader-member exchange (Sin, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2009) has shown that these discrepancies are common, and that perceptual differences are often substantively unique phenomena in their own right.

Practical Implications

As different motives differentially influenced adjustment, organizations would likely benefit by attending to supervisor motives, aside from just encouraging greater help. For instance, transformational leadership research (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 1995) emphasizes individual consideration as a means of employee development. To that end, leadership interventions in which other-oriented help is encouraged (as a means of expressing one's values), would be particularly efficacious. On the other hand, the nonsignificant normative motive effects could be concerning, given extant research that espouses promoting cooperative and supportive organizational climates (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Despite an employee feeling social pressures to help a fellow worker, it is also important that a supervisor be willing to invest satisfactory effort into the behavior, to ensure that help offered is well-received.

Although helping is beneficial for newcomers, we have also shown that it matters how newcomers perceive their supervisor's underlying motives. As such, promoting workplace helping should also involve promoting proper motives—most of all, an other-oriented motive. Still, rewarding help does not appear to be entirely detrimental, so showing supervisors how they can benefit from helping newcomers could reasonably enhance the quality of their efforts (Siemsen, Balasubramanian, & Roth, 2007) and longer-term yields in newcomer outcomes (Allen et al., 2010). Notwithstanding such reminders, supervisors giving help may still need to consider less-apparent subtleties in their tone, body language, and self-presentation, lest newcomers deem them having the "wrong" motives. To the extent that help is provided, yet newcomer adjustment remains an area of difficulty, organizational stakeholders might consider opportunities for employees to develop social capabilities, such as those that emphasize how to better convey genuine concern and empathy (Madera, Neal, & Dawson, 2011).

Several techniques might be employed to tune supervisor's motivations to help newcomers toward greater other-orientation. Interventions that send supervisors targeted gratitude expressions for onboarding a newcomer might increase helping behaviors via communal mechanisms (e.g., Grant & Gino, 2010). Such help appears to arise because it creates a clear sense that the behavior will fulfill its intended prosocial function. Consistent with Grant and Gino's (2010) findings, there may be broad effects of these interventions, so even though the organization is expressing the gratitude, altruistic intentions will also generalize to the newcomer's benefit. Focusing on building a relationship engendered by such intentions can also help to minimize supervisor's self-enhancement. Alternatively, having supervisors recall instances in which they autonomously helped another can induce positive mood, which in turn can fuel later helping (Lin et al., 2019). Such autonomous motivation is notable in that it is not driven by a desire to self-enhance or because of normative pressures—rather, it is both enjoyable and personally meaningful for the helper. Finally, other work has also demonstrated the efficacy of targeted perspective-taking interventions in empathy/sympathy and associated prosocial behavior (Eisenberg, Eggum, & Di Giunta, 2010). This logic is consistent with research noted earlier, showing that perspective-taking does enhance helping behavior (Maner et al., 2002). Taken together, organizational stakeholders can facilitate supervisor other-orientation by letting them know how appreciative they are for their efforts, having them focus on past instances where they acted in an other-oriented manner, and developing perspective-taking exercises that help supervisors reflect on what it is like to be a newcomer.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study contains limitations that offer opportunities for future research. First, the main study data came from one organization, which may bring into question the generalizability of the results to other settings. Future research might develop theoretical explanations regarding why motive effect patterns would be different depending on the nature of the work performed. For instance, how is helping newcomers different in more competitive versus cooperative workplaces (Perlow & Weeks, 2002)? Relatedly, our motives taxonomy is based on a more Western-centric theoretical base. We observed differences between one of our motive validation samples from Chinese respondents relative to the other sample of U.S. respondents. The fact that our motives structure replicated across cultures in some ways lends support to the validity of our measure as a general taxonomy, but an inductive model of helping effects across different cultures may reveal some differences in motives. For instance, research has discussed the notions of duty, morality, or paternalism as bases for helping (Graham, Haidt, & Nosek, 2009; Graham et al., 2011), which relate to our notion of injunctive norms, but are more emphasized in non-Western contexts (Cropanzano et al., 2005).

Second, all newcomers in our study were assigned a supervisor with whom they worked. Though the motives we have discussed may still likely drive the level of effort given and the quality of

help provided, future research would be well-served in considering whether motives for helping or their effects differ among those who are assigned to help newcomers versus those who proactively step up to help. Further, this research should also consider how supervisors feel after helping newcomers as a function of their motives, including outcomes like need fulfillment, resource depletion, mood, or broader attitudes and behavior (Gabriel, Koopman, Rosen, & Johnson, 2018; Glomb et al., 2011; Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016; Lanaj et al., 2016).

Another possible concern is that at excess levels, supervisors might help beyond what a newcomer legitimately needs, which could veer into micromanaging. However, a careful examination of our helping behavior items suggests that this is less likely the case (see Appendix B). Specifically, Rooney and Gottlieb (2007) developed a measure distinguishing supportive (i.e., legitimate helping) from unsupportive (i.e., micromanaging) managerial behaviors. Their work suggests our measure better aligns with supportive behaviors, rather than micromanaging actions like overriding decisions, second-guessing newcomers, or limiting newcomer participation in meetings. Still, to empirically investigate this possibility, in our main sample we ran regression models with both linear and quadratic helping terms predicting outcomes. Micromanaging would be indicated by a combination of a significant quadratic term and an area where the instantaneous helping slope trend negative—in only one case did we find a significant result meeting such conditions. Nevertheless, we would see value in research that explores situations where unsolicited/unwanted help provision is prevalent, and its resulting effects on newcomers.

Our study primarily focused on supervisor helping, consistent with evidence showing supervisors exert an especially powerful influence on newcomer adjustment (e.g., Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). At the same time, peers/colleagues have their own motives for helping newcomers, and compared with supervisors, these individuals also hold different resources that they can bring to the work relationship. Thus, examining peer helping motives would be worthwhile for future study, as they may exhibit distinct relationship patterns with newcomer outcomes. Similarly, other organizational leaders, such as mentors, may also have different motive endorsement patterns that yield different effects. Future research might therefore uncover important distinctions related to helping motives and outcomes that were not addressed in our study, using our motives taxonomy to study helping from the vantage point of other organizational insiders.

Our moderation hypotheses focused on reciprocated help based on newcomers' perceptions of supervisor motives. However, newcomers also have their own motives for helping, which may go beyond reacting to their supervisor's actions. Scholarship that incorporates employee attributions for helping along with their own internal motives would add clarity to understanding how much reciprocity is accredited to each aspect.

Finally, the correlational nature of our research design precludes inferences about causal ordering between helping and adjustment. Helping may precede adjustment, but other work (Schein, 2010; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) has described how newcomers may have to prove themselves as interested in the organization's well-being before supervisors will strategically share secrets, treat them as a confidant, or fully include them in a working relationship beyond providing routine assistance. Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2013) did show that supervisor support stimulated higher levels of newcomer help seeking, so supervisor and newcomer efforts may be mutually reinforcing over time. Supervisor motives are likely to be shaped by the supervisor's appraisal of the newcomer's capabilities and their needs as part of this dynamic process. The supervisor's orientation to the newcomer will cause them to respond to newcomer help seeking when it is requested, whereas the newcomer's own behavior further drives the supervisor's subsequent ongoing motivation. Further longitudinal research assessing this dynamic influence process is therefore recommended. Thus, in addition to the aforementioned issues related to newcomer competence, supervisors may be more likely to provide help to those who report more positive attitudes and who are more likely to represent the organization's interests as they progress through their careers. Although our own data revealed a nonsignificant and very small relationship between help provided and supervisor-rated newcomer performance ($r = .003$), research might examine causal sequencing of this relationship through dynamic models.

Conclusion

Newcomer learning "is typically embedded in the definition of organizational socialization . . . and is part of the exchange that occurs between mentors and protégés" (Allen et al., 2017, p. 324). Supervisor helping is a key source of such learning and can potently affect a newcomer's adjustment (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Our study turned attention toward the motives supervisors have for providing help to newcomers. We developed a six-factor helping motive taxonomy, broadly classified as self-oriented, other-oriented, and normative. We also developed and validated a measurement tool associated with this taxonomy, and tested the measure with a sample of newly hired employees and their supervisors. Our results show that not all supervisor motives were associated with help as perceived by the newcomer, with tangible gain and other-oriented motives being associated with greater perceived help and more favorable outcomes, and a self-enhancement motive being associated with less perceived help and more unfavorable outcomes. Overall, beyond broadly encouraging supervisors to offer help, organizations should consider the messages they send about why supervisors should provide it, as higher levels of tangible gain and other-oriented motivates are important to newcomers' effective transition from outsider to insider.

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(*Appendices follow*)

Appendix A

Helping Motives Scale Development

We first generated items for each motive, emphasizing the context as one of helping newcomers in a job and being guided by our operating definition of each motive in light of its theoretical description. We created a total of 48 items related to self-oriented motives (16 items for tangible gain, 16 items for emotional gain, and 16 items for self-enhancement). Regarding other-oriented motives, we adapted the three items from De Dreu and Nauta (2009), and then generated an additional 17 items consistent with our operating definition of other-orientation. For descriptive and injunctive norms, we adapted six items from Park and Smith (2007), and then created 34 additional items (17 each).

In an initial pilot study, 430 undergraduates in an Introduction to Management course at a large Southeastern university were surveyed, with course credit offered for participation. We listed definitions for each of the six motives, followed by all generated items, asking respondents to rate how well each item reflected the construct's definition. We then retained the five to six items subjects rated as most representative of each motive—the items with the highest mean definition match rating (see Appendix C)—following Hinkin's (1998) recommendations. A full list of generated items and their endorsement ratings is available from the first author.

With a set of items for each motive, we then conducted a validation study to assess the motive factor structure. As we had an *a priori* framework as to the basis of this structure, we opted for a confirmatory, rather than exploratory, factor analysis (i.e., CFA). We obtained data from two random samples, one in the U.S., and one in China. The U.S. sample consisted of 230 supervisors recruited through the Amazon Mechanical Turk data collection service, with the screening criterion that the supervisor had to have worked in their company for at least 2 years. The Chinese sample consisted of 350 supervisors recruited as part of another study related to newcomer adjustment. All items were translated from English to Chinese by a bilingual native Chinese speaker and then back-translated into English by a different bilingual native Chinese speaker (Brislin, 1970). Supervisors represented a variety of occupations, including law, real estate, transportation, public services, government, and manufacturing. In both samples, participants were prompted with each motive item and were asked to rate how much the motive was a reason they helped newcomers.

Means, standard deviations, and reliabilities for the validation samples, along with intercorrelations among the motive scales, are shown in Appendix D. It is worth noting that there were not strong ceiling effects in these results. Moreover, there was considerable variance in all motives. A CFA and chi-square difference tests support the dimensionality of the *a priori* six-factor motive model. In the U.S. sample, the six-factor model had a comparative fit index (CFI) = .94, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .93, root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06, and standardized root mean residual (SRMR) = .05. This was contrasted against a four-factor alternative model that combined all self-oriented items into a single factor, with other orientation and descriptive and injunctive norms as distinct: CFI = .73, TLI = .70, RMSEA = .12, and SRMR = .11, or a five-factor model with all distinct motives except for combining descriptive and injunctive norms: CFI = .90, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .10, SRMR = .08. In the Chinese sample, the six-factor model (CFI = .90, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .07, and SRMR = .04) also fit better than a four-factor (CFI = .73, TLI = .71, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .11) or five-factor model (CFI = .88, TLI = .87, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .05).

(*Appendices continue*)

Appendix B

Helping Behavior Scale Items

Measure stem: During my first month at work, my supervisor . . .

. . . helped me learn about the history behind my work group/department.

. . . helped me become familiar with the organization's customs, rituals, ceremonies, and celebrations.

. . . helped me to know the organization's long-held traditions.

. . . has been a good resource to describe the background of my work group/department.

. . . made me familiar with the history of the organization.

. . . helped me learn how things "really work" on the inside of the organization.

. . . helped me to know who the most influential people are in the organization.

. . . given me a good understanding of the politics in the organization.

. . . shown me what needs to be done in order to get the most desirable work assignments in my area.

. . . helped me to have a good understanding of the motives behind the actions of other people in the organization.

. . . helped me to identify the people in this organization who are most important in getting the work done.

. . . helped me to understand the specialized terminology and vocabulary of the organization.

. . . helped me to learn this organization's slang and special jargon.

. . . helped me to understand what the organization's abbreviations and acronyms mean.

. . . included me in social get-togethers.

. . . helped me to become "one of the gang."

. . . included me in informal networks or gatherings of people within the organization.

. . . helped me to become friends with others at work.

. . . helped me to become a good representative of the organization.

. . . helped to make me fit in well with the organization.

. . . helped me to understand the goals of the organization.

. . . helped me to "learn the ropes" of my job.

. . . helped me to successfully perform my job.

. . . helped me in learning the required tasks of my job.

. . . helped me to develop the skills necessary to perform my job.

. . . helped me to understand what all the duties of my job entail.

(*Appendices continue*)

Appendix C

List of Helping Motives Scale Items, Mean Endorsement, and Factor Loadings in Scale Validation Samples

Motive, item (I help newcomers . . .)	U.S. sample		China sample	
	M (*SD*)	Standardized factor loading	*M* (*SD*)	Standardized factor loading
Tangible gain				
Because I want to get something tangible in return	2.11 (1.06)	0.71	2.64 (0.99)	0.73
Because I want to get rewarded for doing it	2.50 (1.13)	0.91	2.73 (0.97)	0.80
Because of the material rewards I could get for doing it	2.44 (1.15)	0.90	2.71 (1.03)	0.91
In exchange for things	2.44 (1.14)	0.86	2.54 (1.02)	0.83
So I can be visibly rewarded	2.46 (1.17)	0.88	2.62 (1.04)	0.86
Affective gain				
To acquire a positive mood	3.60 (1.08)	0.82	3.33 (0.94)	0.77
So I will feel better inside	3.64 (1.00)	0.87	3.20 (0.92)	0.86
So I will feel happy	3.68 (1.03)	0.88	3.23 (0.96)	0.83
In order to improve my mood	3.34 (1.09)	0.81	3.01 (0.97)	0.79
So I can experience positive emotions	3.64 (1.01)	0.82	3.27 (0.93)	0.82
Self-enhancement				
Because it makes me feel needed	3.62 (1.05)	0.65	3.09 (0.97)	0.79
Because it makes me feel better about myself	3.56 (1.01)	0.81	3.16 (0.92)	0.82
Because it makes me feel important	3.72 (1.05)	0.76	3.23 (0.95)	0.84
Because it demonstrates my value	3.64 (1.15)	0.70	3.31 (0.94)	0.89
Because it shows that I count	3.35 (1.15)	0.87	3.28 (0.95)	0.88
Because it reinforces my worth	3.40 (1.19)	0.85	3.26 (0.97)	0.87
Other-Orientation				
Because I am concerned about the needs and interests of others	3.97 (0.89)	0.84	3.38 (0.85)	0.74
Because the goals and aspirations of other employees are important to me	3.84 (0.98)	0.92	3.49 (0.84)	0.77
Because I consider others' wishes and desires to be relevant	3.87 (0.95)	0.87	3.42 (0.93)	0.78
Because I think other people are just as important as me	4.02 (0.91)	0.75	3.46 (0.85)	0.84
Because I value the interests and needs of others	3.98 (0.78)	0.82	3.52 (0.90)	0.80
Descriptive norms				
Because most people in this organization provide help to newcomers	3.64 (0.83)	0.84	3.63 (0.81)	0.71
Because in this organization, providing help to newcomers is common	3.80 (0.82)	0.92	3.76 (0.77)	0.78
Because the majority of people in this organization offer help to newcomers	3.71 (0.85)	0.90	3.67 (0.82)	0.78
Because in this organization, it is typical for newcomers to receive help	3.82 (0.78)	0.85	3.68 (0.81)	0.88
Because helping newcomers is a customary practice in this organization	3.79 (0.83)	0.90	3.66 (0.84)	0.84
Because in this organization, helping newcomers is a regular occurrence	3.73 (0.81)	0.85	3.77 (0.83)	0.85
Injunctive norms				
Because most employees in this organization approve of helping newcomers.	3.79 (0.90)	0.73	3.68 (0.75)	0.82
Because in this organization, providing help to newcomers is recommended.	3.84 (0.83)	0.83	3.78 (0.74)	0.82
Because the majority of people in this organization think other employees should help newcomers.	3.83 (0.81)	0.82	3.70 (0.77)	0.80
Because in this organization, it is expected that employees will help newcomers.	3.82 (0.86)	0.79	3.60 (0.85)	0.74
Because in this organization, it is assumed that employees will help newcomers	3.73 (0.82)	0.82	3.51 (0.88)	0.74
Because most employees in this organization encourage helping newcomers	3.80 (0.85)	0.79	3.78 (0.81)	0.82

Note. U.S. sample $n = 230$, China sample $n = 350$. All factor loadings are significant at $p < .01$.

(*Appendices continue*)

Appendix D

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations Among Helping Motives in Scale Validation Samples

Variable	Number of items	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Tangible gain motive	5	2.39/2.64	1.13/0.88	*.93/.92*	.40**	.44**	.12*	−.03	.00
2. Affective gain motive	5	3.58/3.21	1.04/0.81	.14**	*.93/.91*	.57**	.43**	.32**	.37**
3. Self-enhancement motive	6	3.55/3.22	1.10/0.83	.21**	.25**	*.90/.94*	.31**	.13*	.17**
4. Other-orientation motive	5	3.94/3.46	0.90/0.73	−.09*	.14**	.05	*.92/.89*	.49**	.50**
5. Descriptive norms motive	6	3.75/3.69	0.82/0.69	.06	.13**	.12**	.11**	*.95/.92*	.60**
6. Injunctive norms motive	6	3.80/3.67	0.85/0.67	.08*	.16**	.13**	.12*	.32**	*.91/.91*

Note. U.S. sample $n = 230$, China sample $n = 350$. Coefficient alphas are presented along the diagonal, with the U.S. sample first, followed by the China sample. Correlations for the U.S. sample are below the diagonal, and for the China sample, above the diagonal.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Received January 15, 2019
Revision received January 30, 2020
Accepted February 6, 2020 ■