

THE ROLES OF SELF-EFFICACY, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, WORK STRESS AND MODERATING EFFECT OF MINDFULNESS ON NEWCOMERS' SOCIALIZATION OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	THE ROLES OF SELF-EFFICACY, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, WORK STRESS AND MODERATING EFFECT OF MINDFULNESS ON NEWCOMERS' SOCIALIZATION OUTCOMES
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Newcomers' adaptation process at the beginning of their jobs in new companies is considered a challenge. Adverse consequences may occur if such adaptation is not satisfied. Many companies, therefore, offer a socialization process which includes orientation and training to help employees achieve organization goals and expected outcomes. This study had its goal to improve the socialization expected outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, performance, and intention to stay). The study was designed to apply quasi-experimental research, with its aims to examine: (a) the association among the three socialization outcomes; (b) the relationships of employees' personal characteristics (i.e., self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and work stress) with the socialization outcomes; and (c) the effect of mindfulness practices, trained during orientation, as a coping strategy to moderate those relationships in order to improve socialization outcomes. Participants were newly hired employees to work at an electronic company, of which previously was found fifty per cent turnover rate within the first month. The new employees hired every week were alternately by week assigned to join the experimental group and control group. Totally participants included 360 new employees; most of them were female (91.7%) and had completed high school (81.7%). At the beginning of the orientation program, all participants answered the first package of questionnaires to measure self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and mindfulness. During the first week of training, all participants joined the orientation and work skill training as normally provided by the company. However, participants in the experimental group received 2-hour mindfulness practice training and continued practising mindfulness 15 minutes daily. At the end of the first month, both groups were asked to answer the questionnaires: self-efficacy, emotional intelligence

and mindfulness, work stress, job satisfaction, performance and intention to stay. Data from those questionnaires, measured after one month, were analyzed and found that (a) among the three socialization outcomes, only performance was positively related to intention to stay; (b) self-efficacy as well as emotional intelligence were positively related to performance and intention to stay whereas work stress was negatively related to performance and intention to stay, and (c) the experimental group showed a higher level of mindfulness, and the mindfulness worked as a coping strategy moderating the relationship between stress and performance as well as stress and intention to stay. The findings suggest that the company should select workers who possess high self-efficacy and/or high emotional intelligence and provide mindfulness practices to control work stress, which helps to enhance job performance and intention to stay with the company.

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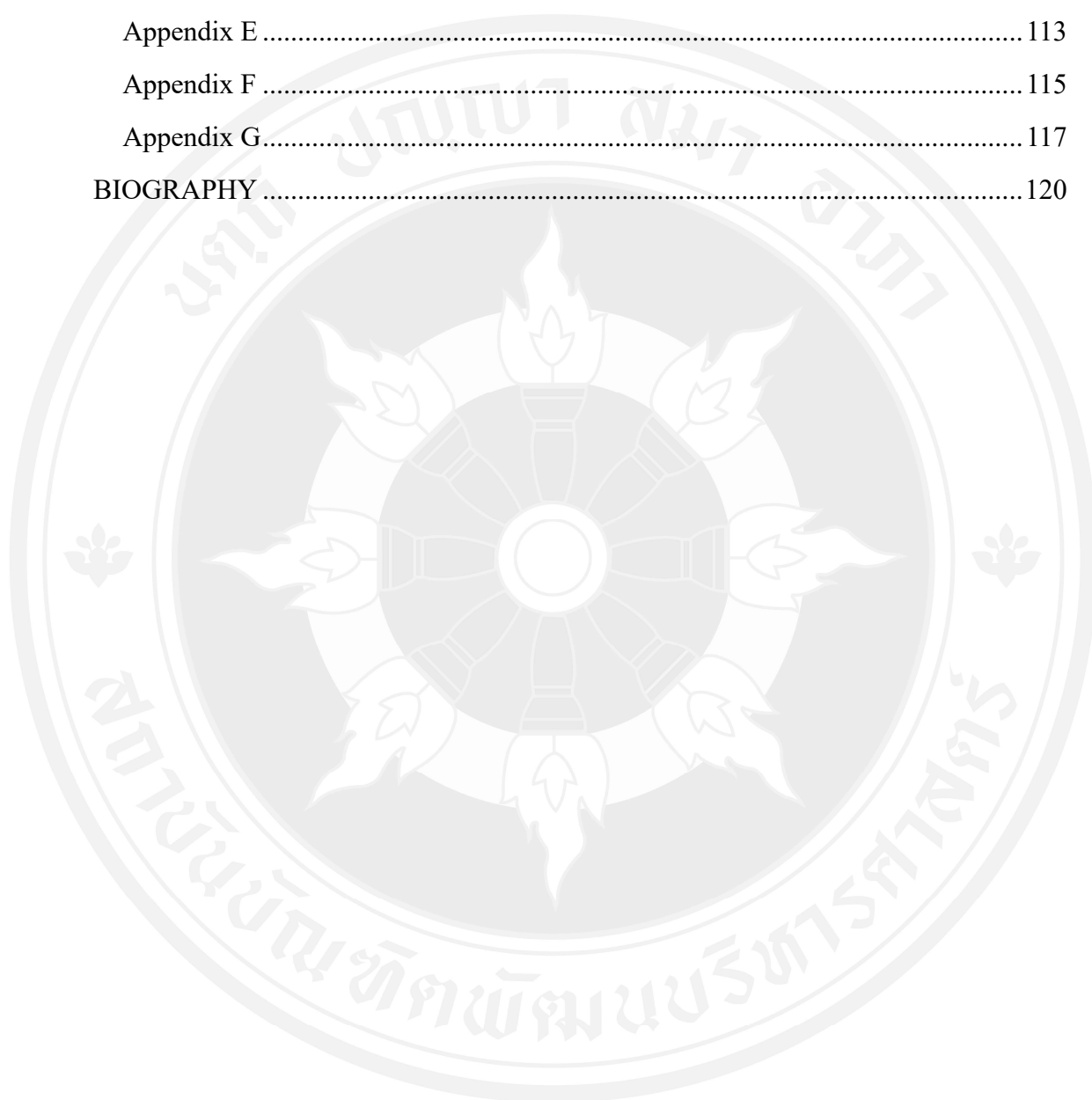
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

World Economic Forum (2016) report indicates many changes in the 21st century impact many organizational aspects. Innovation in digital technology is one of the essential drivers in response to rapid changes. As the world is entering the Fourth Industrial Revolution (Industrial 4.0), the development speed has caused interruptions in vital industries from the beginning of the century onwards. The primary workforce will be millennials in the 21st century (Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2015). The millennials do not get used to the traditional management process currently implemented in many companies (Armour, 2005). The two characteristics of millennials that are negatively impacting the organization are “Grasshoppers” and “Fragile”. The first term describes someone who moves from one organization to another and does not believe in long-term commitment. Based on their opinion, staying in the same company, organization, group or relation for a long-term period may make them lose professional opportunities. They are often considered persons who cannot control their emotions (Immerwahr, 2009; Twenge, 2013). The ability to recover from their failures and faults are lower than former generations, and they express their emotion quite obviously (Bland, Melton, Welle, & Bigham, 2012). Stein (2013) stated that the Millennials “are great for getting a job or hooking up at a bar but not so great keeping a job or a relationship” (p. 28). Based on the study by Sweeney (2012), the millennials are expected to work for 18 months to 2 years in their first job -- an intense, emotionally short relationship, while they want their tasks and commitments to be allocated as they require to be challenged. These changes suggest that new employee socialization or “onboarding stage” is vital for both organizations and newcomers. Both company and newcomer will undergo socialization more often as the millennial attitude changes. Thus, examining this socialization process has important theoretical and practical implications (Bauer & Elde, 2006).

Based on organizational socialization theory, newcomers will go through the process of familiarizing themselves with the new organization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) forty years ago stated that organizational socialization is the process where newcomers change themselves from outsiders to insiders. Later Bauer, Erdogan, Bodner, Truxillo, and Tucker (2007) affirmed that new employee socialization is an essential issue of organization, and the newcomers have social experience more often in their work. As the new jobs provide them with many challenges in the form of tasks to be performed and relationships to deal with, they try to properly carry themselves by dealing with stimuli in the organizational environment (M. R. Louis, 1980). Researchers stated that their socialization experience might also be devalued when they experience loneliness, social isolation, and performance anxieties during the new entry process (Nelson, 1987; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Organizations put their effort into helping new employees to adapt themselves to become productive workers (D. C. Feldman & Brett, 1983; Katz, 1978). The common socialization programs found to be useful for new employees are buddy systems, mentoring programs, social support networks, and coaching (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983). These programs are possibly helpful in improving their efficiency (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Wanous (1992) pointed out that new employees have more stress when they start working in the company as compared to before or after they gain experience after entry. The stress leads to undesirable and dysfunctional symptoms, which increases health care costs for the organization (Nelson, Quick, & Eakin, 1988; Wanous, 1992), and employee turnover (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992).

Former researchers had worked on new employees' distress and anxiety symptoms. Nelson (1987) found that newcomers' socialization and adjustment supported the relationship between role demands and distress symptoms. Nelson and Sutton (1991) revealed that newcomers who overestimated their job difficulty had less difficulty adjusting and reported less distress symptoms than those who underestimated job difficulty. Previously, Gomersall and Myers (1966) found that new employees attending a day-long orientation session which aimed at reducing anxieties worked more productively and had better job attendance than employees who were not taking part in the same kind of anxiety-reduction training.

One of the popular methods currently being considered to be used in stress coping or anxiety reduction is a mindfulness practice. Mindfulness has been long practiced in the East, particularly in Thailand, for many purposes, such as dealing with ambiguity and recovering from loss (Falk, 2010), including releasing tension and stress (Chaisaen, 2008). However, mindfulness intervention was primarily tested in psychological treatment in the clinical context. A police station in California, USA, used mindfulness practices to release stress and mental discomfort from the police force (Suttie, 2016). Seemingly, mindfulness is now expected to be a stress-coping strategy, and the practices should be taught during the socialization process of newcomers.

While prior research findings demonstrate the role of stress in newcomer socialization, there are limited studies of the intervention to reduce the stressor during the socialization process. Recently, there has been a lot of research on Emotional Intelligence (EI), demonstrating that EI has a strong relationship with job satisfaction and job performance (Joseph, Jin, Newman, & O'Boyle, 2015). Previously, literature demonstrated that EI supported coping with stress (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Therefore first and foremost, this study aims at investigating the relationships between Self Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, and Work stress with socialization outcomes, then study the role of mindfulness practice as a stress-coping strategy and whether it can moderate those relationships.

A case study of a large electronic company in Thailand that experienced a high turnover of front-line operators is considered in this research in the year 2018. The payment strategy of the company is “Percentile 60th”, which is higher than the surrounding companies. The attraction and compensation are not challenges in this case. When the company announced operators' job vacancies, it took a very short time to fill the jobs due to its good total income reputation. However, the turnover was very high, as fifty percent of new hires during the first 4-month probation period. Out of this fifty percent turnover, half of them left in the first month of the probation period. From the focus group with an intensive discussion of new employees and direct supervisors, the primary cause of turnover is job complexity leading to high stress during the probation period. On average, those passing the probation period continue to work for 2.5 years in the company. The intention to stay, therefore, should be cap-

tured in addition to job satisfaction and performance as the three significant socialization outcomes for this company. In conclusion, this study aims to study the effect of mindfulness on the relationships between self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, work stress with performance, job satisfaction and intention to stay of new employees in a large electric company in Thailand.

1.1 Statement of Research Problem

Many organizations in Thailand have been confronted with new employee turnover within four months, even though the organizations provide high and competitive pay. The problem then turns to the employees, whether the newcomers are unable to adjust themselves to work well in the organization. New employees' socialization process got the researcher's attention, who noticed that the poor socialization process provided in the organization could be the cause of dysfunction and result in a turnover. In addition, there may be some other causes that need to be examined. Former researches pay much attention to the subject of antecedents and outcomes of the socialization process, including situational determinants of newcomers' distress. However, not many researches evaluated the variables that reflect the difference of each individual, which is the relation to new employees' anxiety and stress (Ellis et al., 2015; Nelson & Sutton, 1991) and much fewer studies on stress coping strategies for newcomers during the socialization process. Besides, out of a 40-year history of newcomer's socialization literature, only a few experimental research tried to investigate the effectiveness of the training intervention and newcomer adjustment outcome (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a).

In general, newcomers experience stress from various aspects, such as learning new roles, skills and relations to assimilate themselves into the new organizations. Failing the adjustment of newcomers will lead to turnover and exit of the organization. Previous research indicated that performance and job satisfaction are related to the intention to stay (Shin, Park, & Kim, 2014; Tourangeau & Cranley, 2006). Several studies also found that personality traits such as self-efficacy and emotional intelligence impact or are related to socialization adaption (Bandura, 1997; Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-wharton, 2012). In addition, work stress was found

to negatively impact or relate to newcomers–exiting the organization (Nelson et al., 1988). Recently, many researchers have considered mindfulness in the field of stress reduction. There is a gap in the literature on Mindfulness. Since mindfulness practice can be trained newcomers during socialization, the new knowledge that effectively supports an organization to manage newcomers during the socialization process will benefit many organizations.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The main purposes of this research are to find some solutions to help new employees stay longer in the company and improve their work outcomes through socialization. The study has it focuses on examining as well as evaluating the success of newcomer socialization by (1) to examine the relationships among socialization outcomes which include performance, job satisfaction, and intention to stay working within the organization; (2) to study the roles of personal traits and states as self-efficacy, emotional Intelligence and wok stress in relations to the three socialization outcomes; and (3) to evaluate the effect of mindfulness practice which were trained during newcomers' socialization as a stress-coping strategy to improve the relations for better socialization outcomes.

1.3 Research Questions

The present study has its focuses on the following three questions:

- 1) Are the socialization outcomes, performance, and job satisfaction, related to intention to stay?
- 2) Whether new employees' traits and states, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and work stress, are related to their expected socialization outcomes?
- 3) Whether mindfulness practices work as a stress coping strategy, helping newcomers to gain better outcomes?

1.4 Significance of the Study

Based on a theoretical perspective, this study's finding will expand the newcomer socialization literature, for it provides an integrated investigation of Self-Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, Work stress and Mindfulness. Additionally, the work stress that is adapted from the western context to the Thai context in this research will broaden the predictive outcome of newcomers' job satisfaction and performance during the probation period. The training for mindfulness skill improvement developed in this study can be an advantage for organizations to build up the new employees' stress-coping skills. Therefore, it should be more potential to indicate evidence-based positive impacts on job satisfaction, performance, and intention to stay of the newcomers.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter comprises a review of the literature on the newcomer socialization process and its outcomes, including job satisfaction, job performance and intention to stay working in the organization. Self-efficacy and emotional Intelligence as personal traits and work stress of individual roles are reviewed regarding their definitions, related theories, and their effects on those socialization outcomes. Also, mindfulness and its role are considered. The hypotheses and theoretical framework are proposed at the end of this chapter.

2.1 Newcomer's Socialization Process

Organizational socialization theory reveals that newcomers generally take particular time to familiarize themselves with a new organization. Organizational socialization is a changing process from an outsider to an insider (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Meryl Reis Louis (1980, pp. 229-230) explained in an organisational context, stated that “the organizational socialization is the process by which a newcomer learns the values, abilities, expected behaviours, and social knowledge crucial for assuming an organizational role and for participating as a team member.” Among organizational socialization studies, Van Maanen and Schein's research and organizational socialization theory are often referred to (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). To adapt themselves to the new organization, the newcomer needs to have a tactic which can be defined as “the procedures in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organization” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977, pp.230). Their socialization process is composed of six dimensions. Each dimension derives a different outcome. According to the theory, the newcomers use their socialization tactics and experience received at work to align

themselves with the organization's role. Some organizations or groups of colleagues support the newcomer to understand and properly respond to specific, predictable situations. The six dimensions can be grouped into three sets based on the pattern of two continuous phases.

Collective and individual are perceptions of organizational information cause different results in role orientation. These are the first two types of the above-said dimensions. The collective perception refers to a perception of a group of newcomers as they learn common information or experience, while the individual perception leads them to learn a more specific experience that reflects their required role. A collective orientation usually uses the situation affected by some specific socialization agents to ensure the expected result from all newcomers.

Individual tactics provide newcomers opportunities to develop their experience to properly respond and accept new orientation towards the role. Formal or informal socialization is when newcomers change themselves to be organizational members during the socialization period; the newcomer is still different from experienced members. However, they will use informal tactics in the learning phase to become a part of the team. Applying formal tactics with collective practice will increase newcomers' possibility to perceive and accept the value provided by other organizational members. On the contrary, informal and individual tactics provide more specific knowledge and freedom for innovative responses to a situation.

The next two groups classified by the orientation provided to the newcomers during the socialization process are sequential vs random tactics and fixed vs variable tactics. Sequential socialization tactic helps newcomers clearly assume the role in contrast to random tactics. Fixed tactic provides them with specific information and a schedule of completion in each process. On the contrary, variable socialization tactics do not provide any information when newcomers reach a certain stage in the learning process; they learn through random situations without knowing a sequence of socialization stages. Therefore, using random and variable tactics possibly increases newcomers' uncertainty as they have no information about the organization's future. However, Bandura (1977) suggested that sequential tactics led to the conformity of roles, and variable tactics led to newcomers' motivation to achieve role conformity. As the newcomers feel uncertain about the organization through variable tactics, in-

novative responses to specific situations might help the organization rapidly grow. In contrast, fixed socialization tactics may limit innovative responses but ensure the same reaction from newcomers as they would rather follow a safe path than take a risk. The effects of fixed and variable tactics in orientations for newcomers will be further explained through empirical studies.

The last two dimensions are classified by social aspects, which are serial and disjunctive tactics. The serial tactic is defined as a process in which the newcomer is socialized by an experienced member that serves as a role model, preparing them to be organizational insiders. In contrast, the disjunctive tactic provides no role model and lets the newcomers find their own responses to specific situations because there is no proper response previously made. Therefore, we can expect a more active, innovative response from the newcomers with this tactic. Finally, the investiture tactics embrace all the differences in personal characteristics of the newcomers instead of denying them. At the same time, Divestiture may be used to form newcomers into forms that organizations require. The investiture tactics will strengthen the newcomers' belief in their competence which leads to innovations.

These six socialization tactics affect newcomers' role uncertainty and conflict. Jones (1986) later included Van Maanen and Schein's six tactics into Gestalt's institutionalized socialization theory, composed of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture tactics. The opposite side of each tactic is called individualized socialization, composed of individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics. Figure 1 concludes all tactics from Jones (1986).

Subsequently, Jones (1986) and other researchers have proved that Van Maanen and Schein's socialization's tactics affect newcomers' role orientation, role ambiguity, role conflict, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and supervisory role orientation.

D.C. Feldman (1976a, 1976b) developed the three-stage model of the new employee socialization process in a new organization. The first stage is Anticipatory Socialization. It is about all the learning that occurs before the recruit enters the organization. At this stage, the newcomer forms expectations about jobs, transmits, receives, and evaluates information with prospective employers and makes decisions about employment.

FIGURE 1
A Classification of Socialization Tactics^a

Tactics concerned mainly with:	INSTITUTIONALIZED	INDIVIDUALIZED
CONTEXT	Collective Formal	Individual Informal
CONTENT	Sequential Fixed ^b	Random Variable
SOCIAL ASPECTS	Serial Investiture ^b	Disjunctive Divestiture

^a Based on Van Maanen and Schein (1979: 232).

^b Indicates reverse of effects hypothesized by Van Maanen and Schein (1979).

Figure 2.1 Classification of Socialization Tactics

Accommodation is the second stage of socialization. The process is that period in which the individual sees what the organization is actually like and attempts to become a participating member of it. It is part of the change and acquisition and metamorphosis stages. New employees engage in four main activities at the accommodation stage: learning new tasks, establishing new interpersonal relationships with coworkers, clarifying their roles in the organization, and evaluating their progress in the organization. The third stage of socialization is called “Role Management”; the newcomer has already made progress in resolving issues within their workgroup and now faces the challenge of mediating conflicts between their own group and other groups, which may place demands on them. If the newcomer can resolve their role management in this stage, it will lead to general satisfaction and internal job involvement.

Newcomer socialization is the process by which newcomers try to acquire new knowledge, skills, attitudes, expectations, and behaviors in the new role and adjust to transition from being organizational outsiders to being insiders.

2.2 Socialization Outcomes

There are two types of outcomes, as found by Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina (2007) in their meta-analysis of former research on the results of the socialization process: proximal and distal outcomes. Proximal outcome or adjustment outcome results from newcomer adjustment after receiving the provided socialization tactic are role conflict, role ambiguity and perceived fit. Distal outcomes or the final socialization outcomes are organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance, and intention to quit (Bauer, Bodner, et al., 2007; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b; Wanous, 1992). Bauer, Bodner, et al. (2007) also indicate that proximal outcomes include role clarity, job performance, perceived job fit and perceived organization fit. This study has its focuses on a proximal outcome, work stress and three distal outcomes: performance, job satisfaction, and intention to stay, which will be described in detail as follows;

2.2.1 Performance

In the field of industrial and organizational psychology, researchers have researched a great deal related to performance (Landy & Conte, 2010). Performance is defined as “Action or behaviors relevant to the organization’s goals and measured in the term of individual proficiency. Performance is what the organization hires an employee to do and to do well” (Landy & Conte, 2010, p. 175). Therefore, individual performance is the effectiveness of work behaviour or the individual's output in a given period. As the organization hires the newcomer to perform the job, it is certainly the organisation's goal to have the newcomers be competent and deliver the performance as expected as quickly as possible.

According to Campbell (1988, cited in Landy & Conte, 2010), performance can be considered in 8 dimensions: 1) job-specific tasks proficiency, 2) maintaining personal discipline, 3) demonstrating effort, 4) facilitating peer and team performance, 5) non-job specific task proficiency, 6) communication task proficiency, 7) supervisor/leadership and 8) management administration. Dimension 1 to 3 is common to all jobs, and it requires declarative knowledge and skills to perform these

three dimensions of performance. Declarative knowledge is the understanding of job-related information and skills that are required to perform a task.

Later, Borman & Motowidlo (1993, as cited in Landy & Conte, 2010) classified performance into task performance and contextual performance in their research. Task performance is defined as the effectiveness with which job incumbents perform activities that contribute to the organization's technical core either directly by implementing a part of its technological process or indirectly by providing it with needed materials or services. While contextual performance is the individual contribution to organizational effectiveness that is not necessarily to be the core of the function of the organization, in which it could be in ways that shape the social, organisational and psychological context in which it serves as the supporter for task activities and processes to be accomplished in the way that organization wants. Some examples of contextual activities that are related to contractual performance are such as volunteering jobs to do activities that are not formally part of the job and helping and coordinating with others in the organization to get tasks accomplished while they may not be formally assigned.

This study focuses on newcomers' socialization outcomes in the early stage of entering a new company during the first-month orientation. In this stage, the newcomer is expected to gain declarative knowledge to learn how to perform their jobs, so the performance that is measured will be measured only in the task performance dimension. To measure performance, particularly in a manufacturing environment, is suggested to be productivity, quality, and flexibility in advanced manufacturing systems (Son & Park, 1987). Therefore, the newcomers' measurement performance dimension in this study will focus on productivity, quality, and overall performance that the newcomer gave the self-report.

2.2.2 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a positive attitude or emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Landy & Conte, 2010, p 423). Job satisfaction is a significant variable in organizational studies. There are several studies on job satisfaction in relation to organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), union representation election voting (Davy & Shipper, 1993), employee withdrawal

(Griffeth, 2000), and employee job performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Job satisfaction also is the most commonly investigated dependent variable in industrial-organizational psychology (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003) and occupational health (Kinicki & McKee, 1996).

Job satisfaction is also frequently measured in newcomer studies (Saks et al., 2007). It was found that newcomers who were successful in the socialization process would have job satisfaction which could lead to organizational commitment in the other stage. In contrast, negative job satisfaction will lead to employee withdrawal and resignation (Bauer, Bodner, et al., 2007). This study, therefore, considers job satisfaction as a socialization outcome

From previous research, many instruments were developed to measure job satisfaction. Some were for general and covered global measures, and some measured specific aspects (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). Some researchers used a direct method by interviewing employee information and attitudes in relation to the work dimension according to the selected scale designated within the research project. Other researchers applied indirect or traditional methods based on self-report to examine the level of job satisfaction (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997).

Two types of the job satisfaction scale are described here.

1) Facets of the job satisfaction

The facets approach assumes that job satisfaction has a multi-dimension structure. Some commonly used scales are shown in Table 1 and 2. The major characteristics of job satisfaction scales include pay, promotion, supervision, working conditions and relationships with co-workers. Table 1 contains the instruments used in general jobs, while Table 2 contains examples of instruments developed for job-specific. Some of the job facets added to address the particular environment of the job were customer-aspect for a salesman job, student aspect for a teaching job, and scheduling aspects for a nurse job.

Pioneer research measured multiple facets of job satisfaction; it resulted in a high number of questions or items in the instrument, which consumed participants' time to respond to the survey. Some of them contain up to 100 items. As the knowledge of job satisfaction is progressed and tested together with multiple variables, researchers tend to make the instrument more compact and yield the same

reliability. The first version of the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ) has 100 items. While the shortened version of the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (SMSQ) only picks the 20 items from the original questionnaire. Each item that was picked is to believe the best representative of each facet of job satisfaction. The SMSQ was tested in several studies to determine that it can represent job satisfaction in research settings.

2) The general level of the job satisfaction scale

Overall, job satisfaction appears to have been used in many research projects since 1951. The most commonly used one is Brayfield and Rothe (1951)'s job satisfaction scale. The general job satisfaction scales are used in different versions to ask about the participant's overall job satisfaction. Kunik (1995) suggested the face satisfaction scales, in which the participants will choose which face is close to their feeling about the job. The Figure below shows an example of the face scales of job satisfaction.

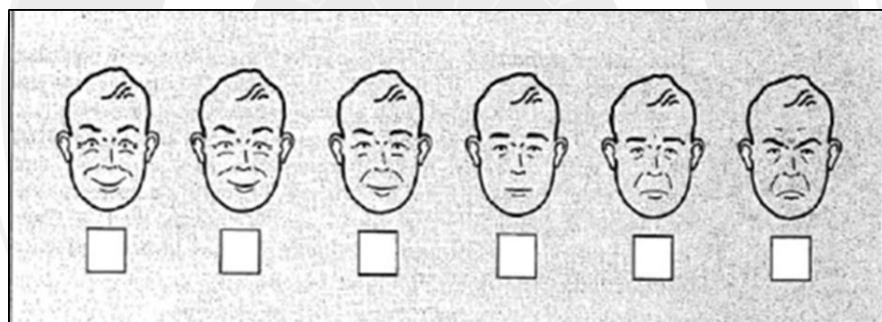


Figure 2.2 Kunin's Face Scale

Source : Kunik (1995)

Some researchers use the five-item scales developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1995, cited in Heller, Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). This scale measures overall job satisfaction by asking participants to evaluate their feeling of overall job satisfaction on five items. The five items are following ;

1. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job
2. Most days, I am enthusiastic about my work
3. Each day at work seems like it will never end
4. I find real enjoyment in my work
5. I consider my job to be rather unpleasant.

Many research found internal consistencies (i.e. alpha .45-.69 or above) depending on the research setting's assumption (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997).

Table 2.1 Example of Job Satisfaction in the General Job

Author	Survey Name	# Of facet	# Of Items	Major Characteristic
Yuzak (1961)	Job Satisfaction	8	72	Supervisor, Fellow employee, Work condition, Hour of work, Recognition, Communication, Evaluation and descriptive factors, Others
Cross (1973)	Job Satisfaction	6	48	Supervisor, Pay, Co-Worker, Promotion, Job itself, Firm as a whole
Hackman & Oldham (1975)	Job diagnostic survey	5	25	Supervisor, Pay, Social, Growth, Job Security
Scarpello & Cambell (1983)	Job Satisfaction	7	100	Supervisor, Job Reward, Co-worker, Nature of work Promotion, Control over work, Quality of physical
Macdonald & Macintyre (1997)	Generic Job Satisfaction Scales	10	100	Supervisor, Pay, Co-Worker, Recognition, Skill utilization in the job, Job in general, Physical health, Security, Firm as a whole, Management concern about me
Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969	JDI	5	72	Supervisor, Pay, Co-workers
Gopalkrishnan, Sliter & Withrow (2010).	JDI revised	6	90	Supervisor, Pay, Co-workers, Work, Job in General
Weiss Dawis & England (1967)	MSQ	20	20	Supervision--Human Relations, Supervision--Technical, Compensation, Social Status, Social Service, Advancement, Variety, Working Conditions, Responsibility, Authority, Creativity, Recognition, Independence, Security, Company Policies, Moral Values, Ability Utilization, Achievement, Activity
Spector, (1985)	JSS	9	10	Supervision, Pay, Compensation, Fringe Benefit, Coworkers Promotion, Promotion, Nature of the work, Operating Condition, Communication
Hirschfeld,	SMSQ	20	36	Supervision--Human Relations, Supervi-

Author	Survey Name	# Of facet	# Of Items	Major Characteristic
(2000).				sion--Technical, Compensation, Social Status, Social Service, advancement, Variety, Working Conditions, Responsibility, Authority, Creativity, Recognition, Independence, Security, Company Policies, Moral Values, Ability Utilization, Achievement, Activity

Table 2.2 The Example of Job Satisfaction in the Specific Job

Author	Survey name	# Of facet	# Of items	Major Characteristic
Tarabeh (1995)	Teaching job satisfaction	5	25	Cooperation with other teachers, Student achievement, Physical conditions of the school, Support of the supervisors, School budget
Churchill, Ford, & Wakker (1974)	Job Satisfaction of Industrial Salesmen	7	117	The job, Fellow workers, Supervisor, Company policy and support, Pay, Promotion and advancement, Customer
Tourangeau, Hall, Doran, & Petch, (2006)	Nurse job satisfaction scales	7	31	Work condition, Scheduling, Social opportunities, Collegial relationships, Scholarly opportunities, Salary and benefits, Support for family

Because job satisfaction is a wide interest among researchers and practitioners, job satisfaction has been examined in various aspects. Different researchers can take different approaches in using the value of overall job satisfaction and how it might be calculated (Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991). While there are many facet satisfaction measures, the Job Descriptive Index (JDI; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969 as cited in Landy & Conte, 2010) is used in research more frequently than the others (Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991; Spector, 1985). The JDI was designed to measure the construct of job satisfaction as the feeling an employee derives from his/her job (Smith and colleagues, 1969 as cited in Landy & Conte, 2010). The final version of the JDI

was structured around five sub-dimensions: satisfaction with work, supervision, coworkers, pay, and promotion (Kinicki, McKee-ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002).

According to Landy & Conte (2010), many researches took a different position than overall satisfaction results from combined satisfaction with specific important aspects of work. Simultaneously, some researchers pointed out the frequent high correlation between the measure of satisfaction and various facet of work. There are instances where the overall score works well when proving the hypothesis. Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy (1997) found that even single items measures of job satisfaction (e.g. "Overall, how satisfied are you with your current job?") might work well in many situations. At the same time, (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998) describe a simple five items scale and asked respondents to use an agree-disagree format to reflect their attitude.

In this research, job satisfaction will be measured by applying the generic job satisfaction scales. The employees will be asked to rate their feeling toward satisfaction to dissatisfaction in eight sub-dimensions: Supervisor, Pay, Co-Worker, Job in general, Security, overall satisfaction of the job, firm as a whole, mentor and training. More details of the measure will be presented in Chapter 3.

2.2.3 Intention to Stay

According to (Sweeney, 2012), millennials are expected to work for 18 months to 2 years in their first job. Both companies and newcomers will undergo socialization more often to reflect the millennials' attitudes toward changing new jobs. Newcomers' adaptation process during the beginning of their job in a new company is considered as their challenge. The socialization literature found that the positive result of socialization tactics leads to role clarity, self-efficacy of each individual, and social acceptance and have more strongly correlated with the intention to stay in the organization (Bauer, Bodner, et al., 2007). In the process of newcomers adapting to the new environments, they have to decide whether they want to continue working with the organization or quit the job.

Intention to Stay has been examined in the field of psychology as an antecedent variable of the emotional or attitude of an employee toward the job, i.e. job satisfaction, organization commitment, engagement, stress, burnout from work, etc. The

opposite quantum of the Intention to Stay variable is an Intention to Quit variable. Furthermore, many researchers consider these two variables as two ends of a single continuum, while many researchers consider only one variable at a time (Landy & Conte, 2010). Research about positive variables such as job satisfaction, organization commitment, and engagement usually focuses on intention to stay. While research about the negative impact, such as burnout or stress, is aimed at the intention to resign variable. This study focuses on the positive result of the socialization process or positive socialization outcome. This study, therefore, aims to measure the intention to stay as an outcome variable.

2.2.4 Performance, Job Satisfaction and Intention to Stay

Job performance has been studied as a preferred outcome behaviour. However, there are studies that consider job performance as an antecedent of other outcomes. In Mowday and Steers' model (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982 and Steers & Mowday, 1981 as cited in Lance, 1998), performance was reported as a moderator of relations among processes leading up to the decision to quit. Furthermore, in Jordan nursing hospitals, the nurse with high performance would get better recognized, resulting in less stress and cope with stress better and job stress was found negatively relate to intention to stay (Abualrub & Al-Zaru, 2008). Besides, (Tourangeau & Cranley, 2006) found that in the nursing job environment, among many antecedence factors, job satisfaction is the strongest predictor of intention to stay in the job. In contrast to the intention to stay, it is the intention to turnover. A meta-analysis of antecedents and correlates of employee turnover for the millennium generation confirmed that work satisfaction is also the most robust prediction of turnover (Tourangeau & Cranley, 2006). In this study, performance, job satisfaction and intention to stay are the three outcomes that will be considered in their relationships. The following hypotheses can be stated in this study:

Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction positively relates to intention to stay.

2.3 Personality Trait and State

Many literatures related to the newcomer socialization process indicate that the socialization process makes the newcomer experience work stress. Hughes (1958 cited in Jones (1986) and Meryl Reis Louis (1980) stated similarly that newcomers might experience a reality shock or surprise when the interpretation and response of other organizational insiders towards different situations are not in conformity with their assumptions. Therefore, newcomers sometimes have to reconsider their assumptions about these organizations and seek a reason why people behave like that to reduce the uncertainty or anxiety during the entry process (Jones, 1983; Van Maanen, 1977 as cited in Jones, 1986). Saks and Ashforth (1997a) briefly summarizes former studies on newcomers' received information, organization support, learning socialization tactics; socialization training; proactive socialization; socialization learning, content; group socialization; moderators; mediators, and individual differences, into three socialization theories which are (1) social cognitive theory; (2) uncertainty reduction theory; and (3) cognitive and sense-making theory. The theories denote the significance of work stress and personality. While work stress is a psychological state that is impacted by the environment and situation, personality trait works related to behaviour. Besides, the previous meta-analyses indicated that personality traits are among the best predictors of subject well-being (Cattell, 1945). Also, the study of newcomers found that a proactive personality was positively related with employee creativity, and employee creativity was positively related with career satisfaction and perceived insider status (Kim, Hon, & Crant, 2009). In this research, the aspect of interest is personality traits and states that impact socialization outcomes. Self-Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence are considered personality traits, and work stress is defined as a psychological state.

2.3.1 Self-efficacy

In socialization literature, the social cognitive theory (SCT) and self-efficacy theory of Bandura (Bandura, 1986, 1997) are most often referred to. According to SCT, behaviour, cognitive and personal factors, and environmental events interact with each other (Bandura, 1986, 1997), and human behaviour and psychosocial func-

tioning can be predicted within the framework of triadic reciprocal causation. Vicarious learning and mastery modelling, goal systems, and self-regulatory mechanisms are three aspects of SCT that are recognized as particularly relevant to organizational functioning. Wood and Bandura (1989) stated that the positive attitudes of the newcomers, which were related to their abilities, are the most important. They defined their studies as “Self-efficacy”, refers to the “beliefs in one’s proficiencies to drive the motivation, cognitive resources, and sets of action required to meet certain situational demands” (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p.408). Based on self-efficacy theory, four sources of information affect self-efficacy perceptions: enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. They also affect the behaviour and physiological conditions of the individual (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Among the literature review of several studies, the theory of Bandura is best to clarify the socialization process. In those papers, the role of self-efficacy is defined as a direct, moderating, and mediating variable. Saks (1995) stated that self-efficacy theory had also been applied in the socialization and training literature. According to (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 2006), interpretation based on social cognitive theory, newcomers usually acquire information from their role models, which could be their supervisors and peers, through observation and experimentation related to their roles and responsibilities. Besides, the studies on behavioural self-management by (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a) are based on the self-regulatory element of social cognitive theory.

2.3.2 Self-efficacy and its Relation to Socialization Outcomes

Self-efficacy is considered a trait-like and personal dispositional characteristic. The general concept of self-efficacy has been used in empirical research on work motivation, such as the study of Stajkovic and Luthans (2003) and many others. Although two views of efficacy may appear similar, self-efficacy and general self-efficacy represent very different constructs regarding concept and measurement methods. Based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (1997), self-efficacy is considered as specific cognition from a task and situation (specific self-efficacy), while general self-efficacy is defined as a generalized trait that represents his/her ability to per-

form a wide variety of tasks under different conditions. The measurement method of the two variables comprises self-efficacy scales and questions regarding a specific task or job. However, general statements such as "I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life." can be used to measure both variables (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001).

According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy can guide successful socialization outcomes. The self-efficacy influence individual in four aspects: 1) choice behaviour in which self-efficacy influences the situations and activities that individuals choose; 2) effort expenditure and persistence, whereas self-efficacy influences those who put their effort needed to get through obstacles and be emotionally stable when facing with an undesirable situation; 3) thought patterns and emotional reactions as the self-efficacy influences individuals' stress and anxiety; and 4) self-efficacy predicts performance and stress-coping behaviour.

Furthermore, Bauer and his colleagues (2007) conducted a meta-analysis and confirmed that self-efficacy is positively related to newcomer socialization outcomes such as performance, intention to stay and turnover. Many socialization literatures suggest that self-efficacy has a strong relationship that impacts newcomer learning. Gist and Mitchell (1992) found that training method and self-efficacy impact performance, while several studies outside newcomer socialization literature show that self-efficacy impacts performance and results in job satisfaction in several professions, such as the study of Jex, Bliese, Buzzell, and Primeau (2001). In addition, Saks (1995) found that self-efficacy moderated the effects of formal and tutorial training on newcomers' anxiety. At the same time self-efficacy also moderated and mediated the relation between the amount of formal training and work adjustment. Hence, based on the information mentioned above, the following hypothesis can be stated for this study.

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy positively relates to performance.

2.3.3 Emotional Intelligence and Cognitive and Sense-Making Theory

The socialization study of Meryl Reis Louis (1980) used a cognitive approach; the newcomers try to find a reason to clarify the surprising situation they have during the socialization phase. Regarding the information-seeking and acquisition of

newcomers, sense-making in the studies of Meryl Reis Louis (1980) and Reichers (2017) can be described as a thinking process that the newcomers interpret and give a reason to an unforeseen situation through interaction with other insiders, attributional processes, and the alteration of cognitive scripts. Ashforth and Sake (1996) stated that newcomers attempt to define organizational events and acquire organizational roles through social interaction. It is often called the development of interpretive schema or cognitive map of newcomers (Weick, 1995). However, the cognitive and sense-making theory needs further clarification as current research on information seeking and acquisition has not included cognitive factors related to information processing and sense-making. Baker (1995) suggested that the interaction with the actual responsible person was an important hidden factor of socialization tactics and how the interactions were cognitively transformed into organizational definitions were to be further clarified. Weick (1995) broadens the scope of socialization study with causal mapping to trace newcomers' socialization development from their sense-making activities. Although the cognitive approach of sense-making is referred to in several studies, seeking behaviours and interactions are often the subject studied. The cognitive processes and interpretations of the newcomers are not the central focus of former research.

According to these processes, newcomer socialization is how the newcomer interacts with the people around them. At the same time, Emotional Intelligence (EI) was claimed that it predicted successful interpersonal interaction (Day & Carroll, 2004). In addition, changing the new job makes newcomers uncertain and stressed (Katz, 1978), which are unpleasant moods and emotions. Moods and emotions play a crucial role in cognitive processes and behavior. From researches on emotional Intelligence, there are four major aspects of emotional intelligence: the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision-making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions, that can has correlation in strengthen individual effectiveness during stress circumstance (George, 2000). With the concern, it is worth explore how EI will pay the role during newcomer socialization process.

2.3.4 Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Socialization Outcomes

Beginning to work in a new organization and passing through the socialization process to adjust to the new environment is a stressful process. According to Katz (1978), new employees who are going through the organisational transition will face high anxiety incidents. Nelson & Sutton (1991) found that newcomers who underestimated job difficulty had more adjustment difficulty; moreover, they had more distress than those who overestimated job difficulties. At the same time, stress plays an important role; another literature that has been widely studied is that EI negatively impacts stress or reduces stress and anxiety. Each individual has a different skill in identifying and controlling their feelings and others' feelings and taking advantage of feelings to motivate themselves for positive behaviour. These competencies have been classified into a framework called emotional intelligence (Mayer, 1993; Mayer & Caruso, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990b; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995; Salovey, Stroud, Woolery, & Epel, 2002). A core meaning of emotional intelligence is the ability to manage emotions. Mayer and Gaschke (1988) indicated that individuals behave according to their monitoring, evaluating and controlling feelings or managing emotions.

Emotional intelligence literature generates several theoretical models based on acceptable measurement methods (Freudenthaler & Neubauer, 2005). However, there is an argument about differences in measurement approaches leading to different research lines (Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). Ashkanasy and Daus (2017) summarized the three main methods of EI measurement, which are the following;

- 1) EI model with four branches by (Salovey & Mayer, 1990a), who conceptualized EI as the ability to perceive, evaluate and express emotions property, use feelings to generate thought, understand emotions and control for optimal expression
- 2) Self-perception model created by Salovey and Mayer model (1990), which focused on the continued reflexive process associated with mood, which is continuously received and evaluated according to the state of mood

3) Mixed model of Salovey and Mayer (1990a) integrating other social and personal skills, considering EI as a group of stable traits of social-emotional skills, cognitive abilities and personality (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995).

These models denoted different measures of EI according to their theory. Joseph and Newman (2010) found EI performance-based ability, self-reports of emotional abilities and self-reports (for mixed EI models).

When the EI literature grows, and even though EI was tested outside the newcomer's socialization process, empirical studies show that EI positively impacts performance and job satisfaction. Besides, the study by Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Härtel (2002) shows that EI positively moderates negative coping behavior which could lead to exit behavior and the intention to stay during job insecurity because of merging and acquisition. Similarly, in nurse working environment, EI was positively correlated with nurses' intent to stay (Al-Hamdan et al., 2020). In a study by Chiva (2008), EI was also found to moderate between learning capability and job satisfaction. Also, Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) reported that EI positively impacts job satisfaction, and EI was mediated by positive and negative affection at work. Furthermore, Magro (2016) reports that EI could support refugees who are learning the new cultures in the resilience dimension and suggest building an emotional Intelligence curriculum to help refugees learn the new culture or learn new socialization to the new culture. The other study in the police environment found that emotional intelligence leads to job satisfaction and well-being, with positive path relationships leading to employee engagement and organizational commitment, thereby affecting turnover intentions (Brunetto et al., 2012). EI also shows mediation role of employee satisfaction and intention to stay. Employee who has low EI tends to associate with difficulty in responding to job demands, burnout and reduced commitment (Nel, Jonker, & Rabie, 2013). Employee who has optimistic level of emotional intelligence will enhance the management of job stress in being able to control of his stress (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018). Employee who has lower job stress will have higher likelihood to stay such as in Nursing sector (Al-Hamdan et al., 2020). Based on cognitive and self-making theory, as mentioned above, the following hypotheses can be stated for this study.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional Intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction

2.3.5 Work Stress

Beehr and Franz (1986) indicated that there are three types of work stress: 1) Stimulus-based type, which considers stress as a situational or environmental-based stimulus affecting such person, 2) Response-based type, which defines stress as an individual's psychological states or physiological response to environmental or situational forces and 3) Stressor-strain type which gathers the concepts of the first two definitions as it defines stress as both stimulus and the response. Theories based on the third definition are usually considered more reliable as they offer a broader view of the dynamics of stress and can explain several documented differential experiences from a single situation (J. Arnold, Cooper, & Robertson, 1998).

During the socialization phase, uncertainty and stress play an important role (Nelson et al., 1988) as newcomers learn to adapt to their new responsibilities. The studies conducted by Abraham (2008) and Singh (1998) also explored newcomers' stress from a role stress perspective, which consists of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. According to a role theory, an important source of learning and adjustments for newcomers is the interactions of superiors and colleagues. This was supported by the study of Nelson and Sutton (1991) as well. Besides, (Adkins, 2017; Bauer & Green, 1994, 1998; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995) agreed that the relationships with superiors and co-workers affect newcomers' perceptions and adjustment to their role, including the possibility of stress decrease. Miller and Jablin (1991) also suggested that newcomers improve their understanding of the role through interactions with superiors and coworkers. If the task is clarified for the newcomers by their supervisors, the role stress tends to be lower, and the newcomers are likely to put more effort into improving themselves (Ashforth & Sake, 1996; Baker, 1995). Abraham (2008) and Singh (1998) conducted research on the stress of newcomers in their roles given by the organization. They suggested that role stress consists of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

2.3.5.1 Role Ambiguity

Breaught and Colihan (1994) stated that role ambiguity is not yet well clarified. However, it is generally accepted that role ambiguity occurs when

newcomers acquire unclear information on expectations from their role and the method of work to achieve the goal (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Abramis (1994), Handy (1993), and Lysonski and Andrews (1990) agreed that the lack of clarification could affect the job performance, authority or responsibility in the supervisor's thoughts or the mind of those working with newcomers. Because managers may not fully understand the requirement of the newcomers' jobs (Walker Jr, Churchill Jr, & Ford, 1975), they may sometimes encounter role ambiguity. As new to the organization, the lack of clear instruction and understanding may affect the newcomers' decisions. This ambiguity is a significant reason for job dissatisfaction. Also, research on uncertainty conducted by (Meryl Reis Louis, 1980) showed that uncertainty correlates the job dissatisfaction as it causes newcomers high levels of stress and burnout and the possibility of leaving the organization.

2.3.5.2 Role Conflict

Role conflict is defined as an incompatibility of job requirements and expectations. Rizzo and colleague (1970) define role conflict as compatibility as a set of corresponding conditions affecting role performance. Perhaps it may be incompatible with performing as the requirements cannot be done simultaneously due to their characteristics (Handy, 1993; Sohi, 1996). Role conflict is likely more obvious in jobs where requirements are hardly defined and need flexibility (Menon & Akhilesh, 1994). When newcomers do not require to perform their tasks or the expectation of several supervisors contradicts the requirement of their job, role conflict tends to occur (Handy, 1993; Lysonski & Andrews, 1990; Walker Jr et al., 1975) Role conflict is a source of dissatisfaction as it correlates with high stress and burnout. The newcomers suffering from role conflict would likely leave the organization (Louis, 1980).

2.3.5.3 Role Overload

Role overload can be defined as a situation where individuals perceive that the requirement exceeds their abilities and motivation to successfully perform the job (Peterson et al., 1995; Singh, 1998). Because newcomers generally expect a number of tasks, if duties exceed their expectations, it will cause negative impacts on the socialization phase of the newcomers, who will suffer from stress and burnout. Behrman and Perreault Jr (1984) and Handy (1993) suggested that the tasks

must be clearly defined and ensured that all requirements are compatible. There might be stress due to the variety of work.

The stress of newcomers in their role given by the organization and suggested that role stress consists of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Uncertainty Reduction Theory (URT) may be the most common theory referred to in socialization research (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). In studies related to URT, newcomers have a high level of uncertainty at the beginning of employment. They are forced to reduce their uncertainty like members in every organization to make situations become more predictable, understandable and controllable. Such uncertainty can be reduced by information and experience received through different communication channels between superiors and peers (Miller & Jablin, 1991). If uncertainty is reduced, the newcomers will perform their tasks more efficiently, and their satisfaction with their job will be higher; subsequently, they are likely to work for the organization for the long term (Morrison, 2002). Hence, a socialization program is made to reduce the level of anxiety and uncertainty of newcomers during the beginning of employment. URT is a foundation of research on socialization tactics, training, and information seeking. According to Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden (1995), socialization tactics reduce newcomers' uncertainty as it helps them acquire the necessary information that can be used to make situations more predictable. Baker (1995) indicated that newcomers' uncertainty plays an important role in socialization tactics. Saks (1995) found that the number of training and helpfulness during the entry training was correlated to a lower level of anxiety and positive work outcomes. This can be seen in Miller and Jablin's (1991) model as the model is based on newcomers' desires to reduce their uncertainty by using information seeking tactic.

While the organization has a set of organizational tactics in dealing with the newcomers, it could cause newcomer frustration because the tactic prevents them from engaging in the behaviours they prefer to use to learn the job and reduce uncertainty. Simultaneously, the relationships between newcomers and co-workers, supervisors, or mentors have also been essential means of successful socialization, whether the relationship is formal or informal (Louis, 1980). These relationships can support the newcomer in the socialization process by providing information, advice,

and social support; hence the relationship positively impacts stress reduction (Griffin, Colella, & Goparaju, 2000).

2.3.6 Work Stress and its Relation to Socialization Outcomes.

The former section outlines that the most common theoretical socialization framework is possibly the uncertainty reduction theory. Based on the cognitive socialization approach conducted by Louis (1980), newcomers generally put their effort into understanding the surprises they encounter during the socialization phase. This idea has been studied subjects in several research on information seeking and acquisition. Sensemaking is a process of thought and interpretation of newcomers through interaction with insiders, work process and his/her cognitive process (Meryl Reis Louis, 1980), 1980). Newcomers generally put effort into understanding situations occurring in the organization and their role identities through social interactions, the so-called development of interpretive schema or cognitive map of newcomers (Weick, 1995). Furthermore, Baker (1995) suggested that the interaction with the actual responsible person was an important latent factor of socialization tactics, and the process of how the interactions were cognitively transformed into organizational definitions should be further studied.

Newcomer stress and socialization outcome have been interesting topics for researchers. Generally, organizations have tried to offer training and orientation to support newcomers, but the results may not be as expected. Nelson and Quick (1991) and Louis et al. (1983) found that the most frequent formal socialization tactic being used was the employee orientation program, whereas offsite training sessions were rated as one of the least available. Although the orientation program was the most frequently used, it was not related to newcomers' adjustment. At the same time, offsite training was only related to psychological distress symptoms. In comparison with newcomers whom offsite training was not offered reported greater psychological distress. Neither formal orientation which were typically offered to newcomer during starting nor offsite training was related to newcomers' adjustment (Saks, 1996).

In addition, Katz (1978) and Nelson (1987) had a discussion on organizational socialization and new employee adjustment from the perspective of stressed people. Nelson combined organizational socialization and organizational stress literature and

initiated a socialization stress model. Katz (1982) summarized that, in his research, the most significant idea “is that individuals undergoing a transition into a new organization are placed in a high anxiety-producing situation” (p. 137). The situation determinants of newcomers' anxiety and distress symptoms later were studied in several studies. For example, Nelson et al. (1988) evaluated the socialization and adjustment of new employees from the perspective of stressed people. It was found that stress symptoms were related to the intention to resign positively. Nelson and Sutton (1991) noticed that new employees underestimating job difficulty had more adjustment difficulty and concluded that they had more distress than those overestimating job difficulties. Fisher (1985) found in his study a negative relationship between work adjustment and unmet expectations of newly graduated nurses and a positive relationship between stress and turnover (intention to leave the organization and the profession). The study therefore will examine the negative relationships between stress and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Work stress negatively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 6: Work stress negatively relates to job satisfaction.

2.3.7 Work Stress as a Mediator

As mentioned above, stress has a negative relation to socialization outcomes. In the early psychological literature, psychological stress was found to be dependent on cognitive mediation (M. Arnold, 1960; Grinker & Spiegel, 1945). Lather Lazarus (1993) summarized that stress is a parallel problem of the cognitive mediation of emotions. In the newcomer socialization context, organizations try to offer orientation training to reduce newcomers' stress. Some studies found that anxiety reduction mediated the relationship between training and work outcomes. Saks (1996) and Saks and Ashforth (1997b) reported that the relationship between behavioural self-management and ability to cope and task-specific anxiety were mediated by newcomers' entry anxiety and stress. Therefore, stress can be considered a mediator, particularly in the following relationships.

2.3.7.1 Mediating the Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Performance

Based on a cognitive stress model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), the self-efficacy of newcomers is essential for evaluating demands from the organization they are applying to. Newcomers may consider a task as a threat or a challenge. A person with a high self-efficacy level obviously considers an unfamiliar task a challenge (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). When a task is considered a challenge, newcomers tend to properly select a strategy to deal with the task. Bandura (1995) indicated that self-efficacy affected the perception of external demands and showed a relation between external stress factors and psychological stress. Chemers et al. (2001) studied by deploying a path analytic model and found that considering whether a task is a threat or challenge reflects the self-efficacy in the academic sample group, which was aligned with the finding from Pajares (1995). Torres and Solberg (2001) agreed that physiological stimuli associated with stress and anxiety possibly affect self-efficacy judgments. During the socialization process, newcomers deal with learning new roles that can cause stress. Then stress plays a role as a mediator of self-efficacy and its relation to socialization outcomes. Therefore, the following hypothesis can be stated:

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.

2.3.7.2 Mediating the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction.

Furthermore, studies on emotions have become more popular as it involves a cognitive orientation in which emotion and cognition work jointly when appraising a specific situation. Emotions can help warn individuals, protect them from danger, and help guide them towards an achievement (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Lazarus, 1984; Slaski & Cartwright, 2003). In the experimental study of Mayer & Caruso (2001), they aimed to clarify how people adapt themselves to the organization by emotional abilities. The researchers evaluated the ability that individuals can identify their feelings and the feelings of others, control these feelings, and use the information provided by their feelings to motivate adaptive behavior. These emotional skills comprise the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) as well

Newcomers with high EI levels tend to have emotional skills allowing them to handle challenges and lead to job stability. The EI role in research provides a significant advantage as EI always correlates with a positive outcome in many aspects, such as life and work satisfaction, interpersonal functioning, healthy relationships, job performance, psychological well-being, physical health, and psychophysiological measures (i.e., cortisol levels, blood pressure) (Ciarrocchi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001; Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010; Peter Salovey, Bedell, & Detweiler, 1999; Peter Salovey et al., 2002). Research on the relationship between emotional intelligence and stress coping, well-being, and professional performance in high-job stress, such as nurses and policemen, showed a significant decrease in stress. Besides, Evans, Brown, Timmins, & Nicholl (2007); Evans & Kelly (2004) indicated that EI increases the ability to control feeling and help nursing students select proper managing strategies when facing a stressful situation. This ability ultimately ensures individuals' good mental and physical health in the nursing sample group (Por, Barriball, Fitzpatrick, & Roberts, 2011) and the police officers group (Brunetto et al., 2012). Both studies revealed that EI relates to the level of stress.

Based on sense-making theory (Weick, 1995), newcomers utilize their cognitive process and evaluate contextual influences around them and try to make sense of and adjust themselves accordingly. The newcomers may process their actions to replicate the current practices of the existing stakeholder or utilize their past experience and determine the new practices that support the newcomers in familiarizing themselves with the new organization (Harris, Cooper-Thomas, Smith, & Smollan, 2020). This action could result in newcomers' satisfaction with jobs as perceived as organization and job fit. During this phase, newcomers attempt to define organizational events and require organizational roles through social interaction (Ashforth & Sake, 1996). Former research found that individuals with Emotional Intelligence have better social interaction and perceived social support (Metaj-Macula, 2017). The newcomers who have good interaction and perceived social support lead themselves to positive adjustment, including job satisfaction (Nelson & Quick, 1991). Former researchers found that the higher the newcomers' occupational stress, the more negative impact they exert on job statisticians. The teacher participants show that role stress (role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload) and emotional exhaustion result

in negative job satisfaction (Richards, Washburn, & Hemphill, 2019). Since the newcomers in this study face high stress during the socialization process, those with high Emotional Intelligence could be more job satisfaction. Therefore, this research aims at testing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress.

2.4 Stress Coping

In the literature related to stress, coping is frequently studied as a strategy to reduce stress. Coping strategy refers to methods or processes that an individual utilizes or applies when dealing with stress or potential stressors. There are two processes, cognitive appraisal and coping, which play a role as a critical mediator of stressful person-environment relation and their immediate and long-range outcomes (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen Rand, 1986).

Cognitive appraisal is a cognitive process by which individuals assess the significance of a specific interaction with their environment is relevant to his or her well-being, and if so, in what ways.

Coping is the process of managing a potential stressor or a stressful event so as to minimize its harmful consequences. Coping is dependent on the cognitive appraisal of the potential stressor, the stressful event and the coping resources at the disposal of the concerned individual (Srivastav, 1999, p. 125).

Once coping is effective potential stressors get dissolved, and the individual will no longer have stress. Researchers have proposed several coping strategy models and scales in order to understand how individuals put discretionary reactions to stressful situations. One of the most frequently cited coping literature is the two main categories of coping: problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, from the theory of stress and coping (Folkman, 2013). In a study, the two categories of coping are described as follows;

Problem-and-emotion-focused coping includes both cognitive and behavioural strategies. Problem-focus coping, for example, includes strategies directed at

analyzing the situation and strategies involving action. Similarly, emotion-focused coping includes cognitive strategies such as looking on the bright side of things as well as behavioural strategies such as seeking emotional support or having a drink (Folkman, 1982, p. 99).

Whereas in Latack 's (1986) study, coping strategies can be categorized into two main categories: control coping and escape coping. Control coping is characterized as proactive and positive cognitive reappraisals and actions. In contrast, escape coping is characterized as evasive actions and cognitive appraisals in that individuals put the effort to avoid dealing with a stressor. Besides, Pereek (1987 as cited in Pareek, 2004) developed a coping strategy model that applies three aspects as per below:

- 1) Mode; refer to the ways how an individual intends to address the problem, which breaks down into two subcategories:
 - (1) Avoidance mode refers to the way that an individual intends to consciously avoid the problem
 - (2) Approach mode refers to an individual who intends to confront and solve the problem.
- 2) Internality; refers to the degree to which an individual actively involves themselves in concerned engages the self with the problems
- 3) Externality; refers to the degree to which an individual actively involves others in concerned engages the self with the problems.

These three aspects of coping strategy can apply to eight coping strategies that have a different impact as a summary in the model in Figure 2.3

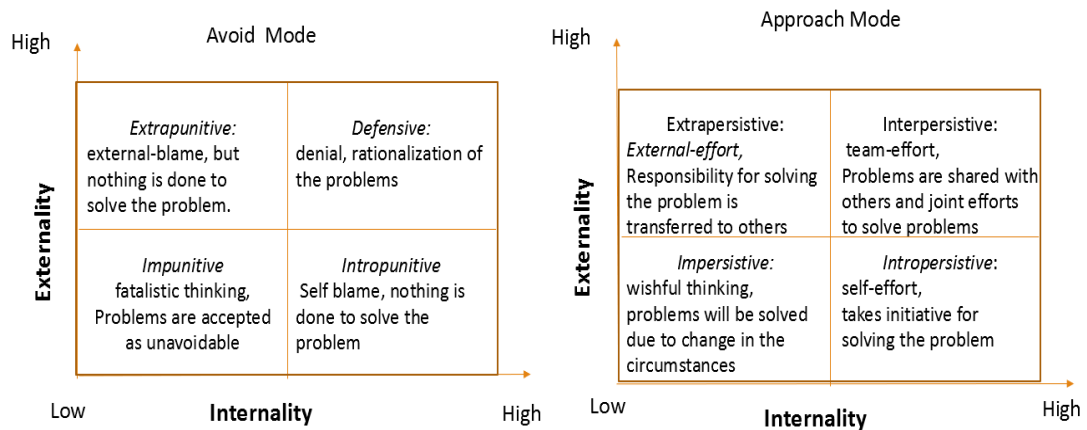


Figure 2.3 Coping Strategy

While the coping strategy has been an interesting topic of researchers for many decades, mindfulness also has been researched for its role as a coping strategy. Weinstein, Brown, & Ryan (2009) found that participants with mindfulness reported less frequent use of avoidant coping strategies and higher use of approach coping and more adaptive stress responses.

A study concludes that, consistent with prior research that mindfulness supports better acceptance and positive reframing (Gibbons & Morgan, 2017). However, the key finding in the research was that mindfulness was the strongest influence not just in promoting these qualities but, in its own right, in promoting well-being and effective coping. As a result, it can be concluded that mindfulness is one of the coping methods that have a positive impact on reducing stress

2.5 Mindfulness and its Role in Coping with Stress

Mindfulness, in this study, is defined as the quality or state of mind in being conscious or aware of something while utilizing memory and wisdom for the ability to discriminate emotional phenomena. Individuals use cognitive and affective dimensions of the mind to be mindful (G. Feldman, Hayes, Kumar, & Laurenceau, 2007). From this definition, there are four components of mindfulness 1) the ability to regu-

late attention, 2) an orientation to present or immediate experience, 3) awareness of experience, 4) an attitude of acceptance or nonjudgment towards experience

Originating in Pāli, the meaning of mindfulness or “Sati” is literally “memory” (Hwang & Kearney, 2015; Monier-Williams, 1872; Rhys Davids & Stede, 1999). The technical term “Sati” in Buddhism refers to the awareness that creates a healthy mind (Davids, 1881 as cited in Davids and Stede (1999), initiated the word “mindfulness” as an English translation of Sati. It became generally accepted in 1910 (Gethin, 2011). Mindfulness has been gradually absorbed into the English lexicon over the years. From the scope of Theravāda Buddhism to the wider secular world, while being adopted in Western culture, the Sati of the Buddha has been defined as mindfulness used to design the contemporary mindfulness-based therapy (MBT), mentioned in works related to psychology and related fields. MBT comprises mindfulness-based cognitive therapy (MBCT)(Segal, Teasdale, Williams, & Gemar, 2002). In addition, mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) (Kabat-Zinn, 1982) became a popular method of contemporary psychotherapy (Bear, 2011; S. C. Hayes, 2004; Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Salmon, Sephton, & Dreeben, 2011). Several MBT practices, e.g. MBCT, were performed to prevent poor mental health conditions in the past of the patients rather than reduce acute symptoms.

As a memory, Sati (mindfulness) showed Buddha links Sati with wisdom (Paññā). Sati is to focus on the present experience, leading to emotional understanding. Besides, Buddha closely associates Sati with sampajañña, which means “clear comprehension” (Bodhi, 2000, as cited in Grossman et al., 2004, p.37). The compound term “sati-sampajañña” is often used as they are similar and work closely. From the verb “pajānāti”, which means to know or to understand (Davids & Stede, 1999) with the prefix “sam-,” as an intensifier, the word “sampajañña” defines an ability to understand the present emotional phenomena. This understanding ranges from the basic to the sophisticated. Practising mindfulness of breathing is an example of a basic sampajañña as they understand whether or not any given breath is long or short. An example of a sophisticated level is when the same practitioner reaches the understanding of hindrances (nīvaraṇa) and understands their mind and awakening factors (bojjhaṅga) which leads to a healthy mind (Anālayo, 2006). It is the remembering of the present moment and the understanding of the continuity of

presence. Monitoring what is experienced as a present, Sampajañña can be understood as an intelligence implicit in presence. The compound term “sati-sampajañña” could, therefore, be translated as an “Intelligence Presence” (Hwang & Kearney, 2015).

A researcher can approach the two definitions provided by the Buddha in the Nikāyas based on this theoretical background (Anālayo, 2006), and practitioners define both meanings. Sekha Sutta (The Trainee) says that the practitioner has Sati, which is “Nepakka,” possessing supreme Sati and discrimination, as he can recall what was done and said long ago. It shows how Sati connect with memory and wisdom for the ability to discriminate emotional phenomena. The memory of the past is influenced by Sati- the strength of attention to the present. The second definition derives from systematic practice or “satipaṭṭhāna” as outlined in Satipaṭṭhāna Sutta in the establishments of Mindfulness that “Here a practitioner, surrendering longing, and sorrow for the world, lives to track body as body, ... feeling as feeling ... heart-mind as heart-mind ... phenomena as phenomena, ardent, clearly understanding and mindful” (Hwang & Kearney, 2015, p.6). Therefore the Satipaṭṭhāna is the practice of mindfulness.

As mentioned in Bodhi’s article (2000 as cited in Grossman et al., 2004), the practice of tracking experience over time is the core of satipaṭṭhāna. As tracking something over time requires that we remember to be present to it and maintain that awareness over time, the practice linked Sati to memory. Sati, as a guarding of mind, based on their definition, maintains awareness of the flow of experience over time. The practitioners will learn what kind of experience should be encouraged or discouraged. As Sati is related to wisdom, when one keeps following the flow of emotional phenomena, the person gradually learns to understand them and how it works as the person reveals him or herself.

One of the important aspects of the socialization processes study is reducing newcomers’ uncertainty and stress related to their adjustment and development during the process (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). As explained in the former section, there are several pieces of evidence that stress plays a vital role in socialization adjustment outcomes. As a result, the organizations put their effort into helping the newcomers to adapt themselves to become productive workers (Feldman & Brett, 1983; Katz, 1978, 1982). Some socialization programs found buddy systems, mentoring programs,

social support networks and coaching are useful for newcomers (Meryl Reis Louis, 1980; Louis et al., 1983). These methods are possibly helpful in improving their efficiency (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). While research has tried to find effective methods and tactics to support newcomers, only one study was conducted to test the effectiveness of training intervention on newcomer adjustment using the actual experiment method (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). Waung (1995) conducted an experimental study comparing groups of new hires in entry-level service jobs. The experimental group received coping strategy training, which included realistic information, feelings likely to be experienced, providing specific coping behaviours, and cognitive restructuring such as self-talk and self-efficacy bolstering statements. Both groups were provided with information about the negative aspects of the job and coping with the situation training. Although, the experimental group reported higher levels of feeling experience of organizational supportiveness immediately after the training (but not four weeks later in the second measurement)–and higher job satisfaction. However, both groups had higher turnover after four weeks; thus, knowledge so far still has limited support for self-regulatory training to cope with stress.

Meanwhile, mindfulness gradually becomes popular, especially in stress coping (Kang & Whittingham, 2010). However, mindfulness intervention was primarily tested in psychological treatment in the clinical context (Grossman, Niemann, Schmidt, & Walach, 2004; Joseph et al., 2015), and there is limited testing of mindfulness in the work environment. This research-aims to prove the role of mindfulness as a stress-coping strategy provided to new employees during the early socialization process.

The proof of mindfulness's effectiveness as an additional clinical treatment is rapidly growing. Kang & Whittingham (2010) states that the application of mindfulness practice in clinical psychology treatment starts from the Buddhist dialogue. The practice of mindfulness is now used in clinical therapy in order to relieve stress and physiological dysfunctions. Kotanski & Hassed (2008) proposes that there are four well-known programs in the WEST; mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR), Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT), Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT), and Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT).

Batchelor (2011), in his peer review article, writes about his experience in practicing Korean Zen meditation and how mindfulness helps people become mindful, even though his work does not contain the term “mindfulness.” Therefore, he suggests that the essential factors of meditation in Buddhism are Samatha (Concentration) and Vipassana (Experiential inquiry). No matter which Buddhist denomination they practice, Samatha and Vipassana will form an individual’s mindfulness. Batchelor (2011) also describes how “Four great efforts,” which are “1) to cultivate conditions so that negative states that have not arisen do not arise. 2) To let go of negative states once they have arisen 3) To cultivate the conditions that enable positive states to arise, and 4) To sustain positive states once they have arisen and the four great efforts is significantly close to treatment methods of MBCT” (Batchelor, 2001 p.160), which obviously help patients manage their stress. The purpose of Buddhist mindfulness meditation is also aimed to reduce stress through practice. Mindfulness intervention in this study will be described in chapter 3.

Therefore, this research aims at testing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: Mindfulness negatively relates to work stress.

2.5.1 Brief Mindfulness Practices

As mentioned above, mindfulness-based practices are found to help the participants to increase their mindfulness level. As a result, it is found both clinically and academically to reduce stress, improve psychological and mental health and improve brain performance. However, typical mindfulness interventions and practices take a long session, for example, 2-3 months, and retreat in a private setting. To be more practical, there is increasing research exploring brief mindfulness practices in a real-life setting. Brief mindfulness training is an intervention that has taken a number of forms, ranging from 1 - 2-week programs and in a short session starting from 5 min (Schumer, Lindsay, & Creswell, 2018). It is found that it also yields a better result than the group that the control group that does not participate in mindfulness practices. For example, the 25 min per week for five sessions in the study of Bergen-Cico, Possemato, and Cheon (2013) can yield better psychological health.

Nurse participants had lower stress when practicing 10 min per session five days a week for four weeks in the study of Mackenzie, Poulin, & Seidman-Carlson, (2006). Cleirigh & Greaney (2015) found that participants that participated in 10-minute-brief practices had a better group task performance. Calma-Birling & Gurung (2017) found that students that were provided with 20-minute mindfulness knowledge and practiced 5 minutes of mindfulness before a class for alternative weeks for 15 weeks could briefly enhance students' knowledge retention of lecture content. Campillo, Ricarte, Ros, Nieto, & Latorre (2018) suggested that a brief 30 min mindfulness intervention influenced positive changes in the performance of attention and memory tasks. In a study of While, the study of Zeidan, Gordon, Merchant, & Goolkasian (2010a), a brief mindfulness practice of 20 min for three days was found to enhance the ability to focus on the present moment, which is one element of mindfulness.

In this study, the experiment group is provided with the newcomer socialization program that includes 3 hour of learning about the Sampajañña mindfulness knowledge and practices 15 min sessions with their trainers for two weeks of 6 days working week and were asked to practice by themselves for 15 min each day for the followed two weeks, while the control group which is not provided with mindfulness are provided with on-the-job training at the same amount of time that experimental group get the mindfulness training and practice. The test of the effectiveness of mindfulness practices designed for this study is discussed in appendix G.

2.5.2 Mindfulness as a Moderator

2.5.2.1 Moderating the Relationship between Work Stress and Performance

Intensive neuroscience research shows that traits and mindfulness-based meditation practices activate brain activity, resulting in better performance in memory tests and enhancing brain functioning in emotion regulation and facilitating access to affirmative knowledge (Shao & Skarlicki, 2009). Shao and Skarlicki (2009) found that mindfulness interacts to have a better academic performance by having gender difference as a moderator. Leung, Liang, and Yu (2016) found that mindfulness, directly and indirectly, impacts construction work performance in various ways. The obversion component of mindfulness helps reduce stress from the discrepancy

between perceived and actual ability to do the job, and emotional stress is relieved by observation and awareness. Physical stress is reduced by awareness which lead to better safety performance. While description and observation elements directly improve construction workers' performance. Based on the job demands-resources (JD-R) model, mindfulness was examined as a personal resource to reduce stress (Grover, Teo, Pick, & Roche, 2017). In a nursing work environment with high emotional labour and emotional exhaustion, mindfulness relates directly and negatively to work stress and perceptions of emotional demands and buffering the relation of emotional demands to psychological stress (Grover et al., 2017). Accordingly, during the socialization process, newcomers learn new knowledge to improve their ability to perform the jobs and have learned mindfulness practices to help reduce the emotional demand from work stress, ultimately supporting the newcomer to yield better performance. Therefore, the below hypothesis can be developed for this study.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.

2.5.2.2 Moderating the Relationship between Work Stress and Job Satisfaction

Stressor emerges from an event itself and from the appraisal of the event as being negative and exceeding a person's coping capacity (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Weinstein, Brown, & Ryan, 2009). Previous research has found that mindfulness support adaptive stress appraisal (Weinstein, Brown, & Ryan, 2009). Individuals can observe stressful events more objectively and refrain from attaching a meaning or evaluation to them by utilising mindful attention to the present moment and non-judgment. In a working environment where employees confront challenges every working day, mindfulness help employees to appraise the negative events as less stressful and have positive affective reactions that lead to a more positive evaluative judgment of one's work situation, which includes job satisfaction. (Hülshager, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013). Hülshager, Alberts, Feinholdt, and Lang (2013) found that mindfulness promotes job satisfaction for employees working in emotionally demanding jobs and helps prevent burnout in terms of emotional exhaustion. Therefore, mindfulness practices training newcomers during the socialization process

can regulate newcomers' emotions and make them appraise and accept the stress situation, which yields better job satisfaction. Thus, the below hypothesis can be stated.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between work stress and job satisfaction is moderated by mindfulness.

2.5.2.3 Moderating the Indirect Effect of Self-Efficacy on Performance through Stress and Influencing Intention to Stay

Several findings in normal work settings indicate that self-efficacy is positively related to the performance of employees, as those stating Hypothesis 3. A meta-study found the impact of self-efficacy on the motivation and performance of employees, while the relationship between self-efficacy and performance was found to be mediated by several factors, such as the organizational behaviour of the skeptical practicing professionals and complexity of the tasks as well as performance locus (Campillo, Ricarte, Ros, Nieto, & Latorre, 2018).

Self-efficacy has an impact on an individual's emotional reactions and thought patterns and can be described as a function of self-beliefs with which individuals can accomplish a task (Bandura, 1986). Thus, it can be said that high perseverance that is associated with self-efficacy leads to increase perform (Campillo et al., 2018) . Also, as stated in Hypothesis 7, the relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress, and in Hypothesis 9, the relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness. It seems mindfulness plays an intervention role in the relationship between stress and socialization outcomes. This effect role is labelled as moderated mediation (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Accordingly, it can be stated that mindfulness has moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress. The relationship also indicated that self-efficacy has some impact on performance during the newcomer socialization process.

As stated in Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay. Besides, Pelser-Carstens, Keyser, & Surujlal (2015) found that sport coaches' anxiety indirectly mediates the relationship between perceived performance and intention to quit, demonstrating that perceived performance influences the intention to quit. Previously self-efficacy was found as a stronger predictor of job performance and intentions to stay (Bauer and colleagues, 2007). In this study, the impact of moderated

mediation of mindfulness on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance is expected when mindfulness is high; thus, it will have a positive influence on intention to stay. Accordingly, hypothesis 12 could be stated as follows.

Hypothesis 12: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress and consequently affects intention to stay.

2.5.2.4 Moderating the Indirect Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction through Stress and Influencing on Intention to Stay

As stated in Hypothesis 8: The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress. And Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and job satisfaction is moderated by mindfulness. Furthermore, work stress during the newcomer socialization process is high and has a negative mediation impact on the socialization outcome. Mindfulness is an intervention during the socialization outcome. This study will study the absolute level of trait and socialization outcome related to stress, which will relate to mindfulness in a condition way. Furthermore will investigate the eventual effect on the intention to stay

The prior studies on the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction had mixed results. The evidence that supports that emotional intelligence positively impacts job satisfaction is from jobs that have high emotional labour, such as policemen in the study by Campillo et al. (2018), bank customer services in the study by Adil & Kamal (2016) and nurses in the study of Gong, Wu, Huang, Yan, & Luo, (2020). Emotional intelligence is found to influence job satisfaction through an individual's capacity to comprehend affect-rich information and hence be able to utilize emotional knowledge appropriately through the capability of accessing and generating feelings for facilitating cognition and the skill of emotional regulation for positive developing intellectual and emotional development and well-being (Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, & Mayer, 2000). Employee with high level of EI are more likely to effectively solve emotional problems arising during their work hence impacting the accumulation of affective experiences and resulting in job satisfaction (Adil & Kamal, 2016).

As the literature review above shows that emotional intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction during the newcomer socialization process (Hypothesis 4), this study also treats emotional intelligence as an influencer to job satisfaction during the newcomer socialization process for the same mechanism as during a normal job setting. Stress during socialization is high. Emotional intelligence will positively support employees in solving emotional situations during the socialization process. As stated in Hypothesis 8: The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress. It seems mindfulness plays an intervention role in the relationship between stress and socialization outcomes. This effect role is labelled as moderated mediation (Preacher et al., 2007). Accordingly, it can be stated that mindfulness has moderated mediation effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction through work stress.

As stated in Hypothesis 2: Emotional intelligence positively relates to the intention to stay. Besides, Bang (2015) also found that volunteers in nonprofit sports who were not paid for their services but rather had positive experiences in these organizations, leading to their satisfaction with volunteering. The positive level of job satisfaction leads to increased intention to stay. In this study, the impact of moderated mediation of Mindfulness on the relationship a positive indirect effect between absolute levels of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction when mindfulness is high; thus, it will positively influence intention to stay. As a result, hypothesis 13 is formed.

Hypothesis 13 : Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction through work stress and consequently affects intention to stay.

2.6 Hypotheses and Research Framework

This study was aimed at proving the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy positively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional Intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Work stress negatively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 6: Work stress negatively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress.

Hypothesis 9: Mindfulness negatively relates to work stress

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between work stress and job satisfaction is moderated by mindfulness.

Hypothesis 12: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay.

Hypothesis 13: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay.

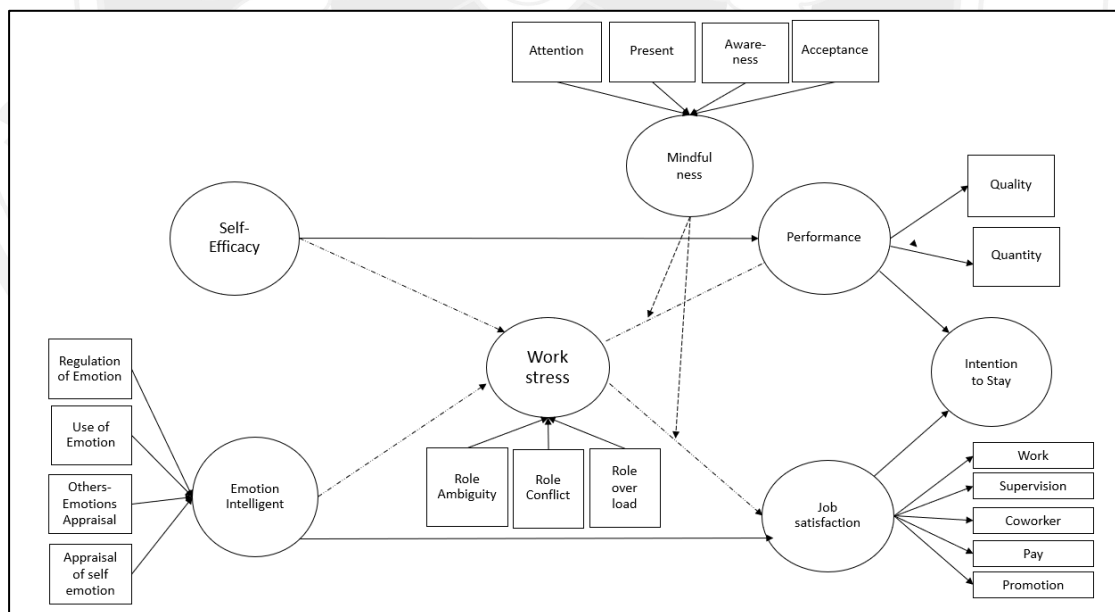


Figure 2.4 Conceptual Framework of the Present Study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purposes of this study are to examine whether individual traits and states, including self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, and stress, are related to such socialization outcomes as performance, job satisfaction and intention to stay of the newcomers to an organization. It is also aimed to investigate the moderation effect of mindfulness practice on those relationships. The study was designed to apply a quasi-experimental method, collecting data from 2 groups; the experimental group received pre-post mindfulness practice, which was trained during the socialization process. This chapter then provides details of the procedure conducted in each step: participants, variables and measurement, socialization program, data collection, and data analyses.

3.1 Participants

This study focuses on newly hired frontline operators in the electronics sector of a manufacturing company. This company's turnover was high at 50% during the first 4-month probation period. Half of the total newcomers that left the company during the probation period left in the first month. The payment strategy of the company is at the 60th percentile, which is higher than the surrounding companies. This company has 6200 employees in total, of which 4000 employees are frontline operators. From the focus group of new employees and direct supervisors, the primary cause of turnover was job complexity leading to high stress during the probation period. Those passing the probation period continue to work on average for 2.5 years in the company.

Based on Krejcie & Morgan (1970), the sample size should be composed of 384 participants. Approximately 20-50 operators were hired every week. They were

alternately assigned by week to participate in the control group (CG) and the experimental group (EG). In the beginning, the study aimed to include 650 participants. Because many newcomers left the organization during data collection, the final sample consisted of 360 participants.

3.2 Variables and Measurement

There were seven variables in this study: 1) self-efficacy, 2) emotional intelligence, 3) work stress, 4) mindfulness, 5) job satisfaction, 6) performance, and 7) intention to stay. The operational definitions and corresponding questionnaires to measure the variables are described below.

3.2.1 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, in this study, was defined following Wood and Bandura (1989) as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands” (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408). General self-efficacy is defined as “one’s belief in one’s overall competence to effect requisite performances across a wide variety of achievement situations” (Eden, 2001) or as “individuals’ perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations” (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 2017 ; Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998, p. 170). General self-efficacy is defined, according to Chen, Gully, & Eden (2001, p. 63), as “an enduring” personal trait that (supposedly) generalizes and successfully applies to a wide range of different situations”. The General self-efficacy scales were developed by Sherer et al. (1982 as cited in Chen et al., 2001). It evolved to be the New General Self-efficacy measure developed by Chen et al. (2001). The scale was based on social cognitive theory and self-efficacy by Bandura (1997, as cited in Chen et al., 2001). The new general self-efficacy was selected to be used in this study. The scale has eight items and found high reliability ($\alpha = .86$) in its original study. Examples of the questions were “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.” and “Even when things were tough, I can perform quite well.” The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to

rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). A higher score indicated a higher level of self-efficacy.

3.2.2 Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) in this study was defined as “the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Mayer, 1990, p. 189 as cited in Mayer & Caruso, 2001). Also, EI has a constellation of emotional self-perceptions at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). According to Davies, Stankov, Roberts, Air, & Base (1998), EI is a set of abilities that include the four dimensions as follows:

1. Appraisal and expression of emotion in the self (Self Emotional Appraisal; SEA). This relates to an individual’s ability to understand their deep emotions and be able to express them naturally. People who have high ability in this area will sense and acknowledge their emotions well before most people.
2. Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (Other’s Emotional Appraisal; OEA). This relates to an individual’s ability to perceive and understand the emotions of the people around them. People who are high in this ability will be much more sensitive to the feelings of emotions of others as well as reading their minds.
3. Regulation of emotion in the self (Regulation of Emotion; ROE). This relates to a person’s ability to regulate their emotions, thus enabling more rapid recovery from emotional climax and distress. A person who has a high ability in this aspect is able to keep their behaviour under control when they have extreme moods.
4. Use of emotion to facilitate performance (Use of Emotion; UOE). This relates to the ability of a person to make use of their emotions by directing them.” (Wong, 2004, pp. 536-537)

This study used the emotional intelligence measure developed by Wong and Law (2002) Emotional intelligence may provide vary based on culture because culture can influence the experience and expression of emotions. The Wong & Law emo-

tional intelligence or WLEIS has been tested in eastern contexts such as China, Hong Kong and Singapore. The original WLEIS has 16 items and uses a five-point Likert rating scale. It comprised 4 constructs and was found to have high reliability in its original study; appraisal (SEA) ($\alpha = 0.81$); others-emotions appraisal (OEA) ($\alpha = 0.83$); use of emotion (UOE) ($\alpha = 0.72$); regulation of emotion (ROE) ($\alpha = 0.87$); the total items were 16 ($\alpha = 0.86$). The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). Examples of the questionnaires were “I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time. (SEA)”, “I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others. (OEA)”, “I would always encourage myself to try my best (UOE)”, and “I have good control of my own emotions (ROE)”. A higher score indicated a higher level of emotional intelligence.

3.2.3 Work Stress

Work Stress in this study was defined as role stress. Role stress is the stress caused by stressors that generate pressure on the individual by the role of the job they resume in an organization. In this study, there were three role stresses: role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

Role ambiguity (RA) is the situation when a role is not always well defined, and it occurs when individuals lack a clear definition of the expectations of their role and lack of clear methods that require to fulfil their duties (Rizzo et al., 1970)

Role conflict (RC) is the situation when a role is incompatible with requirements and expectations for the role, where compatibility is judged relative to a set of conditions with an impact on role performance (Rizzo et al., 1970)

Role overload (RO) occurs when individuals perceive that the cumulative demands exceed their abilities and motivation to successfully perform the tasks related to their job (Veloutsou & Panigyrakis, 2004).

Because the newcomer resumes the new role, this study measured the stress that resulted from the role. According to Lusch and Serpkenci (1990) job tension is the collective outcome of role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict resulting from the nature of those expectations. The role ambiguity and role conflict questionnaires were adapted from the work stress scale developed by Rizzo and others (1970).

The role overload questionnaire was adapted from a scale based on the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Nadler, Jenkins, Cammann, & Lawler, 1975; Beehr, Walsh, & Thomas 1976). Because the operator job in this study was entry-level in the organization, the questions were selected and adjusted to be relevant to the operator's role. The work stress, therefore, was measured by the questions above, totally composed of 12 items. The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). Example questions of the questionnaires were “I feel uncertainty about the job that I am responsible for (RA), “I have to do the job differently from what I was taught by the trainer (RC)” and “I feel that my job load was high and cannot finish within a working day (RO)”. The six-point Likert rating scale was used. The participants were asked to rate their experience in each question item from “not at all to always. A higher score indicated a higher level of work stress.

3.2.4 Mindfulness

Mindfulness is defined as the quality or state of mind in being conscious or aware of something while utilising memory and wisdom for the ability to discriminate emotional phenomena. Individuals use both cognitive and affective dimensions of the mind to achieve the state of being mindful (Feldman, Hayes, Kumar, & Laurenceau, 2007). There were four components:

- 1) The ability to regulate attention
- 2) An orientation to present or immediate experience,
- 3) Awareness of experience
- 4) An attitude of acceptance or nonjudgment towards experience.

This study measures mindfulness by the revised cognitive and affective mindfulness scale, CAMS-R (Feldman et al., 2007). It was developed based on a definition from the panel (Bishop et al., 2004). It has 12 items in four constructs, and its reliability level shown in the original study was high (Sample 1: $\alpha = .74$; Sample 2: $\alpha = .77$). The reliabilities of the four constructs found in Sample 2 were varied: regulate attention (Attention) ($\alpha = 0.81$); present focus (Present) ($\alpha = 0.53$); awareness of experience (Awareness) ($\alpha = 0.46$); acceptance or nonjudgment towards experience (Acceptance) ($\alpha = 0.71$). However, the CAMS-R strongly correlates to other well-

known mindfulness scales: Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) and the Freiburg Mindfulness Inventory (FMI). This study therefore used the CAMS-R. Examples of the questions were “It is easy for me to concentrate on what I am doing.(Attention)”, “I am able to focus on the present moment.(Present).”, “I can accept things I cannot change.(Acceptance)”, and “I try to notice my thoughts without judging them. (Awareness)”. The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). A higher score indicated a higher level of mindfulness.

3.2.5 Socialization outcomes

Socialization outcomes in this study are distal outcomes or final socialization outcomes, including job satisfaction, job performance, and intention to stay.

3.2.5.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a positive attitude or emotional state response toward components of the work situation in general (Landy & Conte, 2010; Larry & Stella, 1991). The job satisfaction scale used in this study is applied to an overall job satisfaction approach. The participants were asked to rate their satisfaction level in ten areas. The first eight items cover supervisor, pay, co-worker, job content, work environment, job security, opportunity to progress in career, and overall satisfaction with the job. The next two items concern mentor and training provided during the first month, which is considered part of the socialization program. Total job satisfaction in this study comprised ten items using the six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). A higher score indicated a higher level of job satisfaction.

3.2.5.2 Performance

Job performance is the behaviour of an individual contributor to organizational goals and objectives (Landy & Conte, 2010). This study measured the self-perceived performance of work roles. The term “work role” refers to an individual's performance responsibilities at work (Griffin, Andrew, & Parker, 2007). Three items were generated to cover three aspects of the work role performance of the participant: 1) quantity, 2) quality 3) overall performance. These three aspects were

generated from the expectation of workers in an advanced manufacturing system (Son & Park, 1987). The questions were “I feel that the quantity of my job is not as per standard” (negative direction), “I feel that the quality of my job is not as per standard” (negative direction), and “I feel that Overall my job meet the standard that expected on me (positive direction).” The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). Then the scores of negative direction questions were converted (from 1 point to 6 points, 2 to 5, 3 to 4, 4 to 3, 5 to 2, and 6 to 1) before adding up to obtain the overall performance score of each participant. The higher score indicated a higher performance level as perceived by each individual.

3.2.5.3 Intention to Stay

Intention to stay is defined as the feeling or emotional state that an individual thinks about to continue doing the same job within a company for a period of time (Wanous et al., 1992). The Intention to Stay scale in this research was adapted from the Intention to Stay scale by Waung (1995). It consists of 4 items. Example questions were “I am searching for a new job” (negative direction) and “I will continue to work with the company.” (positive direction). The six-point Likert rating scale was used. Participants were asked to rate their experience in each item from not at all (1 point) to always (6 points). Then the scores of negative direction questions were converted (from 1 point to 6 points, 2 to 5, 3 to 4, 4 to 3, 5 to 2, and 6 to 1) before adding up to obtain the overall performance score of each participant. The higher score indicated a higher performance level as perceived by each individual.

3.3 Socialization Program

The socialization program in this study includes a 3-day orientation for employees by the Human Resources Department. The orientation aims to introduce the new employees, the company, its general policy and other useful information for newcomers. Then employees learn the skill to perform their jobs in the classroom for two weeks with operation trainers. Later the new employees were assigned a mentor and began to work in the actual work environment under the support of the mentor and supervisor.

3.3.1 Socialization Program with Mindfulness Practice

The mindfulness practice program was developed for this study and offered as an intervention program during processing socialization with newcomers. Prior to this study, a focus group comprising officers and supervisors was set up and interviewed. The exit interview of the frontline operator found that the potential root cause of the problem was stress and anxiety, so intervention was needed to help reduce stress and anxiety. The one-month mindfulness practice program was designed by an experienced teacher from a leading Thailand Buddhist organization based on the Budhsim way using Sampajañña or clear comprehension (Bodhi, 2013) way. This 3-hour mindfulness practice was trained to employees in an experimental group as an additional practice at the beginning. An example of the Sampajañña mindfulness practice program is shown in Appendix F. The 3-hour mindfulness program was pilot tested with thirty newcomers, supervisors and the operation trainers, who later evaluated the program on a 6-point rating scale of 'how useful the program is as a stress-coping technique' (1 = absolutely nothing; to 6 = a great deal). The result was 5.3 out of a 6-point scale. This study, therefore, used this mindfulness practice program to train participants in the experimental group.

3.4 Data Collection

As quantitative applied research, the study was designed to apply a quasi-experimental method, using questionnaires to collect data from participants in both control and experimental groups. To assign newly hired employees to participate in the experiment or control group, the sampling technique was used in accordance with the organization hiring procedure, which was processed at the beginning of the week. The new employees were assigned to experiment, group and control group every other week. For example, newcomers who were hired in the first week, at the beginning of this study, were assigned to the experimental group (EG), those being hired in the second week were assigned to the control group (CG), the third week was in EG, then CG and so on. All participants in both experimental and control groups received training as provided in the standard socialization program. The experimental group

got training on mindfulness, meditation Sati Sampajañña for 3 hours and during the first two weeks of classroom training, the experimental group got practice mindfulness meditation Sati Sampajañña, for 15 min before starting and after finishing the work-skill training each day. Then they were asked to practice mindfulness meditation by themselves for the following two weeks. Contamination of treatment was unlikely because new hires do not enter the organization in cohort groups but rather enter individually and across three locations. The control group, which was not provided with the mindfulness practices, instead received the on-the-job training at the same time that the EG received mindfulness training and practices.

The first set of questionnaires was used to measure the self-efficacy, EI and mindfulness of the new hires who joined the company on day one (T1). After completing four weeks of the socialization program (T2), the second set of questionnaires was distributed to the participants to measure their self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, mindfulness, work stress, job satisfaction, performance and intention to stay.

3.5 Data Analysis

In this quasi-experimental study, data was collected from participants in both the control group (CG) and the experimental group (EG). Data were processed and analyzed at the group level (Sorod, 1995), applying the following statistics by using SPSS 23.

- 1) A descriptive statistic was used to analyze the characteristics of the participants: gender, age and education level.
- 2) Paired sample *t*-test was used to profile EG and CG analysts for self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, mindfulness, and work stress.
- 3) Cronbach's alpha was computed to denote the reliability of the questionnaire, CFA was computed to examine the factors of all questionnaires as needed.
- 4) A correlation coefficient was employed to calculate the value of the relationship between 2 variables, as stated in Hypothesis 1 - 6 and 9
- 5) Multi-level hierarchical regression was employed to test mediation and moderator impact as stated in Hypothesis 7 - 10

6) Multi-level hierarchical regression and path analysis (by Hays (2017) – process conditioned analysis) were computed to test moderated mediation impact of Mindfulness over Work stress with Job Satisfaction and Performance as stated in Hypothesis 11 and 12

7) Multi-level hierarchical regression and part analysis by AMOS was employed to the overall antecedence variable to the final variable outcome – intention to stay as stated in Hypothesis 11 and 12

8) One-Way ANOVA and the Welch's F-test were employed to test the mean-variance between the groups, while Games-Howell was used for the post hoc procedure to determine which pairs of differences between the group.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents empirical results from data analysis to clarify the demographic characteristics of the participants and to test the hypotheses on the relationships between variables and the effect of mindfulness practice on those relationships.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants

The participants in this study were 360 newly hired frontline operators. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 37 years old; the average age was 24 years old, the millennial generation. Most were female (330, or 91.7%) due to the nature of the job. The majority of participants graduated from high school (60%). The summary of the participant demographic is shown in Table 1. In addition, the experimental and control groups consisted of a similar percentage of demographic. At time 1 (T1) both groups had the same level of knowledge in mindfulness (Experimental group (EG) mean = 3.44, SD = 1.24 while the Control group (CG) mean = 3.46, SD = 1.18) of which the two groups had the same level of mindfulness (two-sample t-test, $t < 0.01$)

4.2 Reliability of Questionnaire

All the questionnaires were tested of their reliabilities by using Cronbach's alphas technique. The Cronbach's alphas of Self-Efficacy, Emotional Intelligence, Work Stress, Performance and Job Satisfaction measures used in this study were found to be high ($> .80$ as shown in Table 4.2), indicating high reliabilities. However, the reliabilities of Mindfulness, both Time 1 and Time 2, were moderate (.55 & .69 are shown in Table 4.2)

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Demographic	Variable	Total (N = 360)	Experimental Group (N = 236)	Control Group (N =124)
Age in year [M(SD)]		24.39 (4.21)	24.53 (4.47)	24.11 (3.69)
Gender: Female		330 (91.7%)	220 (93.2%)	110 (88.7%)
Male		30 (8.3%)	16 (6.8%)	14 (11.3%)
Education: Grade 9		66 (18.3%)	50 (21.2%)	16 (12.9%)
Grade 12		216 (60.0%)	138 (58.4%)	78 (62.9%)
Vocational		78 (21.7%)	48 (20.3%)	30 (24.19%)

Table 4.2 Cronbach's Alphas of the Measurements

Measurement	Cronbach's alphas
Mindfulness T1	0.55
Mindfulness T2	0.69
Self-Efficacy	0.93
Emotional Intelligence	0.93
Work Stress	0.93
Performance	0.83
Job Satisfaction	0.98
Intention to Stay	0.85

4.3 The Differences between the Experimental Group and Control Group

First and foremost, the differences between mindfulness and key studied variables: self-efficacy, EI, performance, work stress and intention to stay of participants in experimental group and control group. Measured at the beginning (Time 1 or T1) as compared to those measured at the end of the socialization program (Time 2 or T2) were examined. The analysis using a Pair sample t-test was conducted across the groups. Results, as shown in Table 4.3 indicated that the emotional intelligence (EI)

of all participants measured at T1 as compared to those measured at T2 were not different ($t(359) = 1.09$, $p = 0.275$), while self-efficacy and mindfulness of all participants measured at T1 in comparison with those measured at T2 were different ($t(359) = 3.48$, $p < 0.01$ and $t(359) = 2.97$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.3 The Paired Mean Differences of the Variable Measured at T1 and at T2 Across the Groups

Variable	T1	T2	Paired Difference	df	<i>t</i>
	Mean [std]	Mean [std]	[T2 - T1] Mean [std]		
Mindfulness	3.85 [0.48]	3.77 [0.56]	0.08 [0.52]	359	2.97***
Self-Efficacy	4.38 [0.74]	4.42 [0.63]	0.17 [0.85]	359	3.48**
Emotional Intelligence	4.42 [0.63]	4.37 [0.7]	0.04 [0.75]	359	1.09
Remark * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$,					

The differences of mindfulness levels held by participants in the experimental group and by those in the control groups were compared using a t-test. In the beginning, considering at Time 1 (T1), results found a non-significantly difference in mindfulness levels between experimental and control groups (Means = 3.85 and 3.84, $t = .014$, $p > .01$). After one month of working in the company, measuring at Time 2 (T2), the control group dropped down in their level of mindfulness (Means = 3.57 dropped from 3.84). In contrast, the experimental group held a similar level of mindfulness (Means = 3.87 as compared to 3.85) even though both groups were working on the job with physical and mental demands (as a graphic shown in Figure 4.1). The analysis revealed that the two groups possessed significantly different levels of mindfulness at Time 2 ($3.87 > 3.57$, $t = 4.31$, $p < .001$, as shown in Table 4.4). The result demonstrated that participants in the experimental group who received mindfulness practice could hold strong on to their mindfulness level. In contrast, the mindfulness level of those in the control group got lessened. The result, therefore, indicated the positive effect of the mindfulness program.

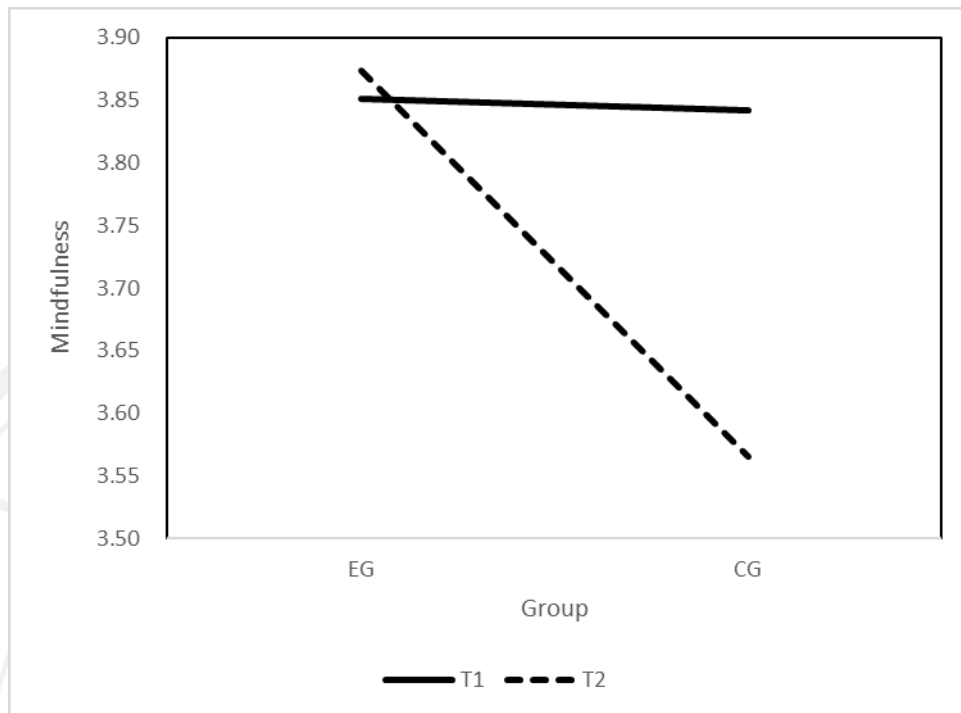


Figure 4.1 Comparison of Mindfulness Means between Experimental Group and Control Group Measured at Time1 and Time2

This training also demonstrates the improvement of mindfulness components as “ability in attention” (Mean different 0.43, $t(177)= 4.07, p<0.001$), “ability in present focus” (Mean different 0.38, $t(202)= 4.04, p<0.001$) and “acceptance” (mean different 0.43, $t(202)=4.45, p<0.001$). However, it does not improve the “awareness” (mean different 0.01 $t(194)=-0.31, p>.10$). On work stress, a mindfulness training program helps to reduce stress components as “role overload” (mean different -.30 $t(202)= -2.42, p<0.05$) and “role ambiguity” (mean different -.24 $t(202)= -2.25, p<0.05$). As a result, hypotheses 15, 16 and 18 are supported. Therefore, the results support the feasibility and effectiveness of a Satipaṭṭhāna mindfulness training program on reducing stress while inducing performance and intention to stay.

4.4 Relationships between Studied Variables

Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was computed to investigate the relationship between each pair of variables measured at T2. The results, as shown in Table 4.5, indicate the relationships described below.

1) The correlation coefficient between performance and intention to stay was positive and significant ($r = .493, p < .01$). The result supports Hypothesis 1, that performance was positively related to intention to stay.

2) The correlation coefficient between job satisfaction and intention to stay was very low and not significant ($r = .044, p > .05$). The result, therefore, does not support Hypothesis 2, which indicated that the job satisfaction of new employees in this study was not related to their intention to stay.

3) The correlation coefficient between employees' self-efficacy and their performance was positive ($r = .559, p < .01$). It confirms that self-efficacy positively relates to performance, as predicted in Hypothesis 3.

4) The correlation coefficient between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was very low and not significant ($r = .0024, p > .05$). The result, therefore, does not support Hypothesis 4, which indicated that the emotional intelligence of new employees in this study was not related to their job satisfaction.

5) The correlation coefficient between work stress and performance was negative and significant ($r = -.243, p < .01$). It confirms that work stress negatively relates to performance, as predicted in hypothesis 5.

6) The correlation coefficient between work stress and job satisfaction was very low and not significant ($r = .0045, p > .05$). The result, therefore, does not support Hypothesis 6, which indicated that the work stress of new employees in this study was not related to their job satisfaction.

7) The correlation coefficient between work stress and mindfulness was negative and significant ($r = -.567, p < .01$). It confirms that work stress had a negative correlation to mindfulness, as predicted in hypothesis 9.

In addition, the correlation coefficient between mindfulness collected at time one and mindfulness collected at time two from all participants was significant ($r = 0.522, p < .01$). Also, the 2-time mindfulness was found positively correlated with

self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, performance, and intention to stay, all of which measured at Time 2 or after a one-month period, ($r(360) > .32, p < 0.01$) and negatively correlated with work stress ($r(360) < .40, p < 0.01$) but not significantly correlated to job satisfaction ($r(360) < .08, p > 0.05$) which also had no statistically significant correlation to any other variables. There was a notice that mindfulness collected at Time 2 was lower when compared with Time 1. This was because the control group had declined in mindfulness. In contrast, the experimental group can hold the same level of mindfulness as the detail reported in the prior section.

Table 4.4 The Analysis of Mean-Variance of Key Variables between the EG and CG

Variable	Experimental Group M (SD)	Control Group M (SD)	Mean Different	df	<i>t</i>
Self-Efficacy T2	4.3 (0.69)	4.09 (1.16)	0.09	199	0.95a
EI T2	4.4 (0.65)	4.31 (0.77)	0.09	215	0.26a
Mindfulness T1	3.85 (0.37)	3.84 (0.67)	0.01	165	0.14a
Attention T1	4.43 (0.65)	4.22 (0.88)	0.21	196	2.34*a
Present Focus T1	3.67 (0.8)	3.67 (0.96)	- 0.00	214	-0.04a
Acceptant T1	3.7 (0.65)	3.84 (0.94)	-0.14	186	-1.49a
Awareness T1	3.61 (0.72)	3.64 (0.75)	-0.03	358	-0.37b
Mindfulness T2	3.87 (0.42)	3.57 (0.73)	0.31	166	4.31***a
Attention T2	4.28 (0.62)	3.85 (0.97)	0.43	177	4.47***a
Presence Focus T2	3.84 (0.71)	3.46 (0.92)	0.38	202	4.04***a
Acceptant T2	3.84 (0.73)	3.41 (0.94)	0.43	202	4.45***a
Awareness T2	3.54 (0.63)	3.55 (0.86)	-0.01	194	-0.13a
Total Work Stress	2.79 (0.79)	3.04 (1.05)	-0.26	197	-2.38*a
Role Ambiguity	3.51 (0.94)	3.75 (1.03)	-0.24	358	-2.25*b
Role Conflict	2.74 (0.96)	2.92 (1.14)	-0.18	215	-1.52a
Role Overload	2.45 (0.95)	2.75 (1.2)	-0.30	206	-2.42*a
Performance	4.85 (.83)	4.44 (1.34)	.41	174	4.31***b
Job satisfaction	2.85 (1.37)	2.49 (.98)	.36	324	2.86**b

Variable	Experimental Group M (SD)	Control Group M (SD)	Mean Different	df	<i>t</i>
Intention to stay	4.8 (0.86)	4.4 (1.23)	0.39	187	3.16**a

Remark * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, a = Equal variances assumed, b = Equal variances not assumed

4.5 Mediation Effect of Work Stress

Prior to conducting a hierarchical multiple regression and the macro, this statistical analysis's relevant assumptions were tested. However, as the collinearity statistics (i.e., Tolerance and VIF) were all within acceptable limits, the assumption of multicollinearity was deemed to have been met (Coakes, 2005; Hair, Tatham, and Black, 1998). Extreme univariate outliers identified in initial data screening were modified by applying the Mahalanobis distance score, which indicated four multivariate outliers. In addition, the test of collinearity statistics was within the limited (VIF < 10, tolerance < 0.1), and the simple correlation coefficients between two variables are greater than 0.8 or 0.9 (Midi, Sarkar, & Rana, 2010), so all of the records were continued to be used. Residual and scatter plots indicated the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were all satisfied (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2001).

To analyze the mediation effect of stress on the relationship of self-efficacy to performance, the regression analysis using process macro (Haye, 2017) was performed. The first was tested by control input one independence variable, self-efficacy, and the result showed a significant coefficient ($R^2 = .1819$, $F(1,359)=3.47$ $p<0.001$). While testing together with the mediator (work stress), there was a significant increase in the coefficient values ($R^2 = .5624$, $F(2,357)=229.40$, $p<0.001$). The overall total effect was also significant ($R^2=0.2502$, $F(1,358)=119.42$ $p<0.001$). The standardized indirect effect was 0.32, and the significance of this indirect effect was tested using

Table 4.5 Inter-Correlations and Descriptive Statistics of Studied Variables

Variable	Mean (Std)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Mindfulness T1	3.85 (0.49)	(.55)							
2 Mindfulness T2	3.77 (0.56)	.522**	(.69)						
3 Self-Efficacy	4.22 (0.88)	.483**	.601**	(.93)					
4 Emotional Intel- ligence	4.37 (0.7)	.338**	.541**	.676**	(.93)				
5 Work Stress	2.87 (0.89)	-.415**	-.567**	-.435**	-.243**	(.93)			
6 Performance	4.71 (1.05)	.388**	.559**	.500**	.354**	-.721**	(.83)		
7 Job Satisfaction	2.73 (1.26)	0.019	0.075	-0.089	0.024	0.045	-0.056	(.98)	
8 Intention to Stay	4.66 (1.02)	.323**	.510**	.435**	.371**	-.514**	.493**	0.044	(.85)

Note: n=360, **p < .01. Numbers in parentheses are reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) of the questionnaire

bootstrapping procedures. Unstandardized indirect effects were computed for each of 5,000 bootstrap samples which had a 95% confidence interval (CI [.2256,.4065]).

Thus, the indirect effect was statistically significant. So, this study found support for Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.

The result, as shown in Table 4.6, indicated that the relationship between self-efficacy and performance was mediated negatively by work stress. The standardized regression coefficient between self-efficacy and work stress was statistically significant ($b=-0.44$, $t(358) = -9.14$ $p<0.001$). The detailed result is provided in Appendix A.

Table 4.6 Regression Analysis of Work Stress Mediation on the Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Performance

		Consequence			Y (Performance)			
		M (Work stress)						
Antecedent		Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>		Coeff.	SE	<i>p</i>
X (self-efficacy)	a	-0.44	0.05	<0.001	c'	0.27	0.05	<0.001
M (Work stress)	-	-	-	-	b	-0.73	0.05	<0.001
Constant	im	4.74	0.21	<0.001	iy	5.65	0.28	<0.001
$R^2 = 1.819$				$R^2 = .5624$				
$F(1,358)=3.47, p<0.001$				$F(2,357)=229.40, p<0.001$				
Total impact X on Y						0.60	0.50	<0.001
Direct effect X on Y						0.27	0.05	<0.001
Indirect effect X on Y						0.32	0.05	<0.001*

Remark : * Computed from Z value for 5000 bootstraps by Sorbet test

4.6 Moderation Effect of Mindfulness

To analyze the moderation effect of Mindfulness on the relationship between work stress and performance, the regression analysis by using process macro (Hayes, 2017) was performed. Work stress and mindfulness were entered in the first step of

the regression analysis on performance. In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term between work stress and mindfulness was entered. Results, as shown in Table 4.7, found a significant increase in variance in performance ($r^2 = .5648$, $f(1,358)=154.01$, $p < 0.001$) and interaction of mindfulness as moderator was statistically significant ($b = -.17$, $t(356) = 3.15$, $p < 0.01$, more detailed results were provided in Appendix B). Thus, mindfulness was a significant moderator of the relationship between stress and performance. Results also demonstrated the significant predicting values of mindfulness ($b = .27$, $t(356) = 2.94$, $p=0.035$), indicating that for every 1 unit increase in mindfulness, performance was higher by .27 unit, while work stress was lower .67 unit ($b = -.67$, $t(356) = -13.29$, $p < 0.01$). The conditional effect of work stress on performance outcomes at different level values of mindfulness is shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.7 Regression Analysis of Moderation Effect of Mindfulness

	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model 1				
$R^2 = .5648$, $MSE = .4855$, $F(1,358)=154.01$, $p < 0.001$				
Constant	4.76	0.04	119.96	<0.001
Work stress (X)	-0.67	0.05	-13.29	<0.001
Mindfulness (W)	0.27	0.09	2.94	0.0035
Interaction (XxW)	0.017	0.05	3.15	0.0018

The unstandardized simple slope for participant 1 SD below the mean of stress was -0.77, the unstandardized simple slope for the participants with a mean level of negative affect was -0.67, and the unstandardized simple slope for participant 1 SD above the mean of negative affect was -0.58 (see Table 4.8). The data showed that the effect of mindfulness levels between the three groups was less different at a low level of work stress. When the situation is at the level of high work stress, the group that had high mindfulness showed the least drop down in the level of performance. Therefore, this study was found to support Hypothesis 10: The relationship between work stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.

Table 4.8 The Conditional effect of Work Stress on Performance Outcome at Different Level Values of The Mindfulness

Mindfulness	Effect of stress	se	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Confident level 95%	
					LLCI	ULCI
-1SD	-.7668	.0542	-14.1354	<.0001	-.8735	-.6601
mean	-.6728	.0506	-13.2928	<.0001	-.7724	-.5733
1SD	-.5789	.0629	-9.1966	<.0001	-.7026	-.4551

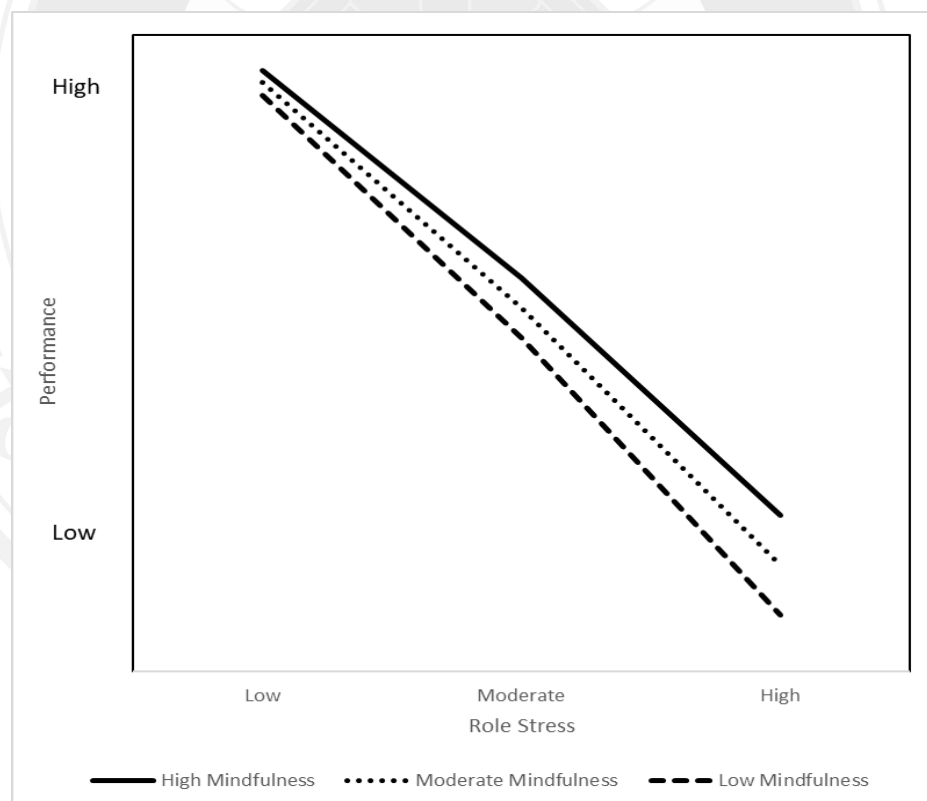


Figure 4.2 Performance Score as a Function of the Interaction between Work Stress and Mindfulness.

4.7 Moderated Mediation Effect of Mindfulness

To analyze the moderated mediation effect of mindfulness through work stress, first, work stress as the mediator on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance was entered into the regression model, and then mindfulness and interaction of mindfulness and work stress were entered as a subsequence. The result, as shown in Table 4.9 and its detail shown in Appendix D, indicated the combined impact of the mediator (work stress) and moderator (mindfulness) differently from the direct effect of self-efficacy on performance was computed as the index Hayes (2015). The index of moderated mediation for this model is ($b = -0.05$ se(.02), 95% CI [-.098, -.011]) as per detail in appendix D. The confidence interval was significantly different than zero, which indicated the moderated mediation of mindfulness through work stress on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance. At the same time, mindfulness interaction as moderator was statistically significant ($p < .05$) to be a predictor of the model ($t(355) = 2.247$, $p < 0.05$), results also revealed that mindfulness alone was not a unique predictor of performance ($t(355) = 1.73$, $p = 0.06$).

Therefore, the results support part of Hypothesis 12 that Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress.

4.8 The Overall Effect on Intention to Stay

To test the effect on intention to stay of self-efficacy, performance, work stress and mindfulness, a hierarchical multiple regression by using AMOS was conducted. The model, as shown in Figure 4.3, was drawn following Hayes's process (2017). The detailed report from the program can be referred to in Appendix IV. Results, as shown in Table 4.10, indicated that most relationships among studied variables were statistically significant, which included the relationships between self-efficacy and work stress, work stress and performance, and performance and intention to stay (coefficient estimated = -0.44, -0.66, -0.48 respectively, $p < .05$). In addition, the relationship between the interaction of moderated mediator mindfulness and work stress was significant (.061, $p < 0.05$), while the relationship between mindfulness and performance

was not significant ($p = 0.082$). The results are summarized in Figure 4.3, showing the standardized estimate of the correlation of the model. This supports Hypothesis 12, as presented above that mindfulness moderates the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress and consequently affects intention to stay.

Table 4.9 Model Coefficient for Moderated Mediation of Mindfulness on Work Stress to Performance and Self-Efficacy

		Consequence						
		M (Stress)			Y (Performance)			
Antecedent		Coeff.	SE	p	Coeff.	SE	p	
X (Self-efficacy)	a	-0.44	0.05	<0.001	c'	0.18	0.05	<0.01
M (Work Stress)		-	-	-	b1	-0.66	0.05	<0.001
W (Mindfulness)		-	-	-	b2	0.17	0.10	0.0629
M x W		-	-	-	b3	0.12	0.05	<0.05
Constant	iM	1.86	0.21	<0.001	iY	4.01	0.50	<0.001
$R^2 = 1.819$					$R^2 = .577$			
$F(1,358)=60.45, p<0.001$					$F(2,357)=121.26, p<0.001$			

Also, results, as shown in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.4, indicated that the relationship between work stress and performance shows the strongest influence on intention to stay ($b=-0.60$), followed by the relationship between performance and intention to stay, and between self-efficacy and stress ($b=0.46$ and -0.43 respectively).

To confirm the causal relationship that was reported by AMOS, a four-stage hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to evaluate intention to stay as the dependent variable, and its relationship with self-efficacy, performance, work stress and mindfulness, self-efficacy was entered at stage one of the regressions to control for intention to stay. The performance variables were entered at stage two, work stress at stage three and mindfulness at stage four.

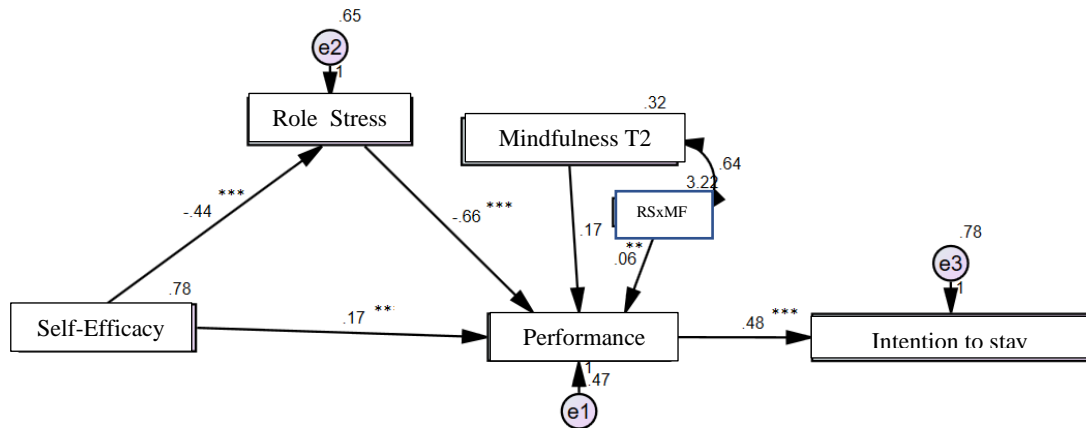


Figure 4.3 Unstandardized Estimate of Total Impact of Variables to Intention to Stay during Newcomer Socialization after First Month Period

Remark : ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$,

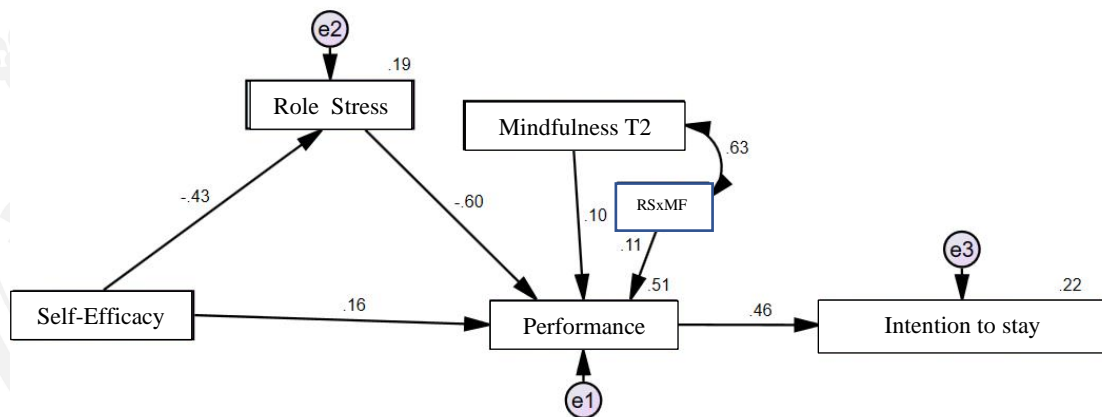


Figure 4.4 Standardized Estimate of Total Impact of Variables to Intention to Stay during Newcomer Socialization after First Month Period

The hierarchical multiple regression, as shown in Table 4.11, revealed that stages 1 - 4 were statistically significant to the regression model in segueing. Stage one accounts for 18.92% of the variation for intention to stay ($F(1,358)=83.53$, $p < 0.001$). Stage two accounts for 29.03% of the variation for intention to stay with ($F(1,357)=50.85$, $p < 0.001$). Stage three accounts for 33.16% of the variation for In-

tention to Stay with $F(1,356)=22.04, p < 0.001$. In stage four, when all five independent variables were included in the regression model, all variables; self-efficacy, self-report performance, work stress, and mindfulness were significant predictors of intention to stay, which account for 35.71% of the variation for intention to stay ($F(1,355)=14.06, p < 0.001$). In stage five, when the moderated mediator was included in the regression model, all variables, including self-efficacy, performance, work stress and mindfulness, were significant predictors of intention to stay, which accounted for 36.4 % of the variation for intention to stay ($F(1,355)=14.06, p < 0.01$). Although the ΔR^2 in the last stage was small, it statistically confirms the moderated mediation effect of mindfulness with stress to the overall model of prediction. Therefore, the results support Hypothesis 12 that mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress and consequently affects the intention to stay.

Table 4.10 Generalized Least Square Estimated of the Relations of Variables in the Model

Relation	Estimate		S.E.	C.R.	<i>p</i>
	Unstandardized	Standardized			
Self-Efficacy → Work Stress	-0.441	-0.435	0.048	-9.149	<.001
Work Stress → Performance	-0.656	-0.603	0.05	-13.142	<.001
Self-Efficacy → Performance	0.175	0.159	0.054	3.269	0.028
Mindfulness → Performance	0.165	0.096	0.095	1.739	0.082
Interaction MxW → Performance	0.061	0.113	0.027	2.253	0.024
Performance → Intention to Stay	0.477	0.464	0.044	10.732	<.001

Remark: W = Work Stress, M = Mindfulness

Table 4.11 Regression Analysis of Overall Model Impact to Intention to Stay.

Variable	β	t	sr^2	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.435	.189	.189***
Self-Efficacy	.435	9.14***	.435			
Step 2				.539	.290	.101***
Self-Efficacy	.251	4.88***	.250			
Performance	.367	7.13***	.353			
Step 3				.576	.332	.041***
Self-Efficacy	.222	4.4***	.227			
Performance	.169	2.58***	.135			
Work Stress	-.296	-4.69***	-.241			
Step 4				.598	.357	.025***
Self-Efficacy	.133	2.41***	.127			
Performance	.134	2.06***	.109			
Work Stress	-.234	-3.65***	-.190			
Mindfulness	.223	3.75***	.195			
Step 5				.604	.364	.007**
Self-Efficacy	.980	1.74	.065			
Performance	1.050	1.61	.063			

Variable	β	t	sr^2	R	R^2	ΔR^2
Work Stress	-.229	-3.66***	.072			
Mindfulness	1.690	2.70**	.113			
Moderated Mediator	-.150	-2.6*	.031			

Note. N = 360; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p = 0.05$

4.9 Post Hoc of Job Satisfaction Study

Prior to this study, the job satisfaction was found that related to many variables, including EI, and intention to stay, as described in the literature review section. However, in this study job satisfaction did not relate to any variable at all. The pot hoc analysis found that job satisfaction in this study had an abnormal distribution that it had two curves, as shown in Figure 4-5. This study used 6 scales, so participants were asked to evaluate whether they felt dissatisfied or satisfied, with no neutral scale. Participants judged the current work event compared to their expectations. These two cures represent that participants either like or dislike the new environment during this one month of service. Not many represent a neutral feeling. Job satisfaction was found not correlated to EI as Hypothesized. Further explore study was done by separating EI (independent variable) into two groups, high and low EI.

EI in this study has an average score of 4.37. A further analysis of the correlation between EI of a higher group ($EI > 4.37$) shows in Table 4-13. The group of lower EI ($EI \leq 4.37$) results is shown in Table 4-14.

For EI high group ($x > 4.37$), it shows that job satisfaction is also on the low side ($r = 2.72$). EI in this group does not correlate to job satisfaction. For EI low group ($r \leq 4.37$), data shows that job satisfaction is on the low side ($r = 2.74$). EI in the group does not correlate to job satisfaction either. Both groups, high EI and low EI, all have low job satisfaction. Because the job is in a challenging condition, as prior shown, the turnover rate is very high in this company, resulting in low job satisfaction in both EI groups. While during the socialization process, the job requires high emotional labour demand, many other factors could determine job satisfaction. An exam-

ple of external factor was in the study of a hospital internship in Taiwan context that found that “emotional job demand and emotional awareness were positively associated with emotional display rules, and emotional display rules were positively associated with job satisfaction, with social support playing a moderating role” (Chen, Ku, Shyr, Chen, & Chou, 2009). It is worth studying more about job satisfaction which will be discussed in recommended research.

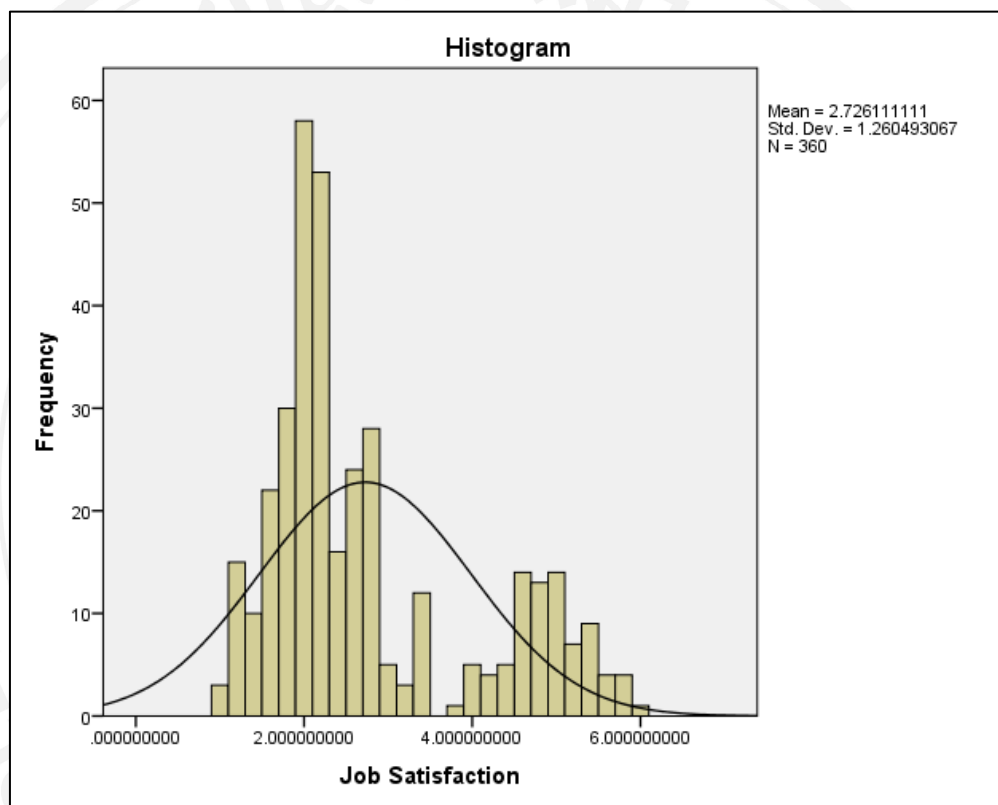


Figure 4.5 Histogram of Job Satisfaction

For EI high group ($x > 4.37$), it shows that job satisfaction is also on the low side ($r = 2.72$). EI in this group does not correlate to job satisfaction. For EI low group ($r \leq 4.37$), data shows that job satisfaction is on the low side ($r = 2.74$). EI in the group does not correlate to job satisfaction either. Both groups, high EI and low EI, all have low job satisfaction. Because the job is in a challenging condition, as prior shown, the turnover rate is very high in this company, resulting in low job satisfaction in both EI groups. While during the socialization process, the job requires high emo-

tional labour demand, many other factors could determine job satisfaction. An example of external factor was in the study of a hospital internship in Taiwan context that found that “emotional job demand and emotional awareness were positively associated with emotional display rules, and emotional display rules were positively associated with job satisfaction, with social support playing a moderating role” (Chen, Ku, Shyr, Chen, & Chou, 2009). It is worth studying more about job satisfaction which will be discussed in recommended research.

Table 4.12 Correlation EI Group and Job Satisfaction

EI group	Correlation	Job Satisfaction
EI > 4.38 (n=196)		
Mean 4.89(Std 0.37)	-0.10, ($p<.05$)	Mean 2.72(Std 1.32)
EI ≤ 4.37 (n=164)		
3.75(0.44)	0.08, ($p<.05$).	Mean 2.74 (Std 1.18)

4.10 Summary of the Results

The results presented above are summarized in Table 4.13, which indicate support for the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy positively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 5: Work stress negatively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.

Hypothesis 9: Mindfulness negatively relates to work stress

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.

Hypothesis 12: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay.

Table 4.13 Summary of Hypotheses and Test Results

Hypothesis	Method of analysis	Results	Comment
Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to Intention to Stay.	Correlation	$r = 0.493, p < 0.05$	Supported
Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction positively relates to intention to stay.	Correlation	$r = 0.044, p > 0.05$	Not supported
Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy positively correlates to performance.	Correlation	$r = 0.500, p < 0.05$	Supported
Hypothesis 4: Emotional Intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction.	Correlation	$r = 0.024, p > 0.5$	Not supported
Hypothesis 5: Work stress negatively relates to performance.	Correlation	$r = -0.721, p < 0.05$	Supported
Hypothesis 6: Work stress negatively relates to job satisfaction.	Correlation	$r = 0.045, p > 0.5$	Not supported
Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.	Mediation Model Bootstrapping	Total effect $b = 0.59, p < 0.001$. Indirect effect 0.32 CI [.2256, .4065]	Supported
Hypothesis 8: The relation-	Cannot be tested		Not sup-

Hypothesis	Method of analysis	Results	Comment
relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress.	because job satisfaction did not correlate to emotional intelligence		ported
Hypothesis 9: Mindfulness negatively relates to work stress	Correlation	T1: $r=-0.415$, $p<0.05$ T2: $r=-0.567$, $p<0.05$	Supported
Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.	Moderation Model	Interaction of Work stress x Mindfulness R^2 change = 0.021, $p=0.018$	Supported
Hypothesis 11: The relationship between work stress and job satisfaction is moderated by mindfulness.	Cannot be tested because job satisfaction did not correlate to emotional intelligence		Not supported
Hypothesis 12: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay	Moderation Mediator Model Bootstrapping Hierarchical multiple regression	$R^2=.5774$, $p<0.001$ $b = -0.05$, CI $[-.10, .01]$. R^2 at final stage = .3571, $p<0.001$ $F(1,355)=14.06$, $p<0.001$.	Supported
Hypothesis 13: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation	Cannot be tested because job satisfaction		Not supported

Hypothesis	Method of analysis	Results	Comment
effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay		faction did not correlate to emotional intelligence	



CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarizes this research work, a conclusion and discussion, and recommendations for future research and practice.

5.1 Summary

This section briefly summarizes the current research process, including the purposes, research methods and findings.

5.1.1 Purposes

The primary purposes of this research are to find some solutions to help new employees to stay longer in the company as well as to improve their work outcomes through the organizational socialization process. The research then aims at (1) examining the relationships among the three socialization outcomes, which include performance, job satisfaction, and intention to stay working within the organization; (2) studying the roles of personal traits and states as self-efficacy, emotional Intelligence and work stress in relations to the three socialization outcomes; and (3) evaluating the effect of mindfulness practice which were trained during newcomers' socialization as a stress-coping strategy to improve the relations for better socialization outcomes. Accordingly, three research questions were set as follows:

- 1) Are the socialization outcomes, performance, and job satisfaction, related to intention to stay?
- 2) Whether new employees' traits and state, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and work stress, related to their expected socialization outcomes?
- 3) Whether mindfulness practices work as a stress coping strategy, helping newcomers to gain better outcomes?

5.1.2 Research Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, a research model was developed with 18 hypotheses, being stated as follows.

Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction positively relates to intention to stay.

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy positively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional Intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Work stress negatively relates to performance.

Hypothesis 6: Work stress negatively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress.

Hypothesis 8: The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is mediated by work stress.

Hypothesis 9: Mindfulness negatively relates to work stress

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between stress and performance is moderated by mindfulness.

Hypothesis 11: The relationship between work stress and job satisfaction is moderated by mindfulness.

Hypothesis 12: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay.

Hypothesis 13: Mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction through work stress, and consequently affects intention to stay.

5.1.3 Research Method

To fulfil the above-mentioned purposes and find the answer to the four research questions, this study focuses on an organization by using an action research approach through a pretest-posttest control group quasi-experimental design and deploying the quantitative method to study the relationships among all study variables and the effect of mindfulness practice.

Participants in this study were 360 newly hired frontline operators. The participants' average age was 24, the millennial generation, most of whom were female (330, or 91.7%). To assign newly hired employees to participate in the experiment or control group, the sampling technique was used in accordance with the organization hiring procedure, which was processed at the beginning of the week. The new employees were assigned to experiment, group and control group every other week. All participants were required to join a socialization program which included basic knowledge and job skill training. Only participants in the Experimental Group received 3-hour mindfulness training and continued daily 15-minute mindfulness practice. The mindfulness program was developed by consulting with an instructor from a well-known Buddhist organization. The control group received on-the-job training for the same amount of time. At the beginning, as Time 1(T1), all participants were asked to answer a package of questionnaires to measure self-rating their self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, work stress, and mindfulness. At the completed one-month period, the two groups were collected data by answering questionnaires (Time 2) by self-rating their self-efficacy, emotional intelligence, work stress, mindfulness, job satisfaction, performance and intention to stay.

5.1.4 Findings

Results from data analyses found support to some but not all hypotheses. The findings, however, provided clear answers to the 3 research questions as following: First of all, the study found Hypothesis 1: Performance positively relates to intention to stay, is supported, while Hypothesis 2: Job satisfaction positively relates to intention to stay, is not supported. Hence, the findings provided answer to the first research question that only performance is related to the intention to stay, while job satisfaction is not related to the intention to stay.

Secondly, Hypotheses 3 – 6 were formed to answer research question 2: Whether new employees' traits and states, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and work stress, are related to their expected socialization outcomes? The results found support to Hypothesis 3, that self-efficacy positively relates to performance and to Hypothesis 5 that work stress negatively relates to performance. However, the results reveal no support to Hypothesis 4 and 6, that Emotional Intelligence does not posi-

tively relate to job satisfaction, and work stress negatively relate to job satisfaction. Therefore, this study found that only self-efficacy was related to performance ($r = .50, p < 0.01$) as per hypothesis 3.

Newcomers' state, which is stress, was tested thru the mediation model. Hypothesis 7 hypothesized that the relationship between self-efficacy and performance is mediated by work stress, was supported. The final model demonstrated that work stress negatively influences performance ($b = -0.60$), while the relationship between performance and intention to stay was also found to be positive ($b = 0.46$). The results align with prior findings that self-efficacy was a stronger predictor of job performance and intentions to stay in the study of Bauer and colleagues (2007). Furthermore the negative relation between self-efficacy and stress ($b = -0.43$). The regression path analyst shows that stress mediated the relationship between self-efficacy and R2 change = -0.37 with total indirect effect = 0.32 .

Lastly, there were two key results that support research question 3, mindfulness practices work as a stress-coping strategy, helping newcomers to gain better outcomes. First, the Satipaṭṭhāna mindfulness program was provided to the participant in the experimental group. At the beginning of the research, the mindfulness of the two groups was the same. After one month of the intervention, the control group found a drop in their level of mindfulness, while the experimental group had the level of mindfulness same, demonstrating the level of better level of mindfulness even though the job was both physically and mentally demanding. The crossed groups had mindfulness levels different at T2 (one month), which was equal to 0.31 units. The training helped newcomers' mindfulness in the area of presence focus, attention and acceptance, while there was no support in awareness level. At the same time, the control group had a higher level of work stress than the experimental group by 0.25 units, had a lower level of performance of 0.41 units, job satisfaction by $.36$ units and intention to stay by 0.40 units.

Second, mindfulness is tested thru the moderated mediation model. Hypothesis 12, which hypothesized that mindfulness exerts moderated mediation effect on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance through work stress and consequently affects intention to stay, was supported. Mindfulness was treated as a moderator of the mediator–work stress, mediated between self-efficacy and socialization

outcome – performance. Subsequently, the performance impacts the intention to stay. The hierarchical regression equation was tested by using Hayes (2017)' method. The first relationship of the mediator's stress between self-efficacy and performance was entered into the model, subsequently by mindfulness and interaction of mindfulness as moderator. The combined impact of the mediator (work stress) and moderator (mindfulness) different from the direct effect of self-efficacy on performance was $b = -0.05$, while mindfulness was found statistically significant to interact as moderator $R^2\text{change} = 0.01$, but mindfulness alone was not a unique predictor on the performance.

5.1.5 Discussion

Newcomer socialization is essential to both newcomers and organizations. The result of this research aligns with prior findings that self-efficacy was a strong predictor of job performance and intentions to stay the same as in the study of Bauer and colleagues (2007). Beside, this research found evidence that self-efficacy can lead to perceived performance. One vital finding is that perceived performance variables explain 46% of the dependent variable's variability; intention to stay. This knowledge confirms the importance of a socialization program that the organization prepare for the newcomers. The aim of the socialization program should focus on creating perceived confidence in their performance; hence it will have a greater impact on the intention to stay of newcomers in the organizations. Our finding add-on to the implication of the cognitive, social learning theory fear of failure could lead an individual to quit their task while feeling competence will motivate the individual to continue the task, in the same way, to continue in the organization.

However, EI was not found to be related to job satisfaction as hypothesized. EI is characteristic of how employees use their emotions wisely in appraisal circumstances around them in relation to the work context, including interpreting the work event effectively that can produce positive or negative emotions. While several studies support that EI positively impacts job satisfaction, other factors were found to mediate the relationship between EI and job satisfaction. A meta-analysis of EI and work attitudes by Miao, Humphrey, and Qian (2017) found that the relationship between self-report EI and job satisfaction is higher when emotional labour demand is high.

However, emotional labour was not a moderator for EI. Besides, the relationships between all three types of EI and job satisfaction are mediated by state effect and job performance. This may be because emotional labour is used in a wide variety of jobs (Humphrey, Ashforth, & Diefendorff, 2015). In addition, perceived organizational support and positive and negative affect at work substantially mediate the relationship between EI and job satisfaction (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). In previous EI studies were not tested during the newcomer socialization process. In the finding of this study, EI was not related to job satisfaction. It could be that the stress or emotional labour demand during the newcomer socialization process is different from other settings. Also in this study, job satisfaction has an abnormal distribution that has two curves, as shown in figure 4.5. Newcomers judged the current work event compared to their expectations. These two curves represent that participants evaluated either like or dislike the new environment during this one month of service. Not many represent a neutral feeling. Both groups, high EI and low EI levels, have low job satisfaction. Because the job in this study is in a challenging condition, as prior shown, the turnover rate is very high in this company, resulting in low job satisfaction in both EI level groups. However, although it is not in the main study, this study showed alignment with the research of Al-Hamdan and colleagues (2020) that EI correlated with the intention to stay, which tested the nursing environment in Jordan.

Furthermore, work stress is an occupational strain that could cause fatigue and dissatisfaction and leave the organization in the future. The organization should continue to access their newcomer socialization tactic and adjust to help reduce the newcomer's occupational stain, which in return will reduce the turnover of newcomers for the organization. Furthermore, the finding in this study gives a general assertion that mindfulness has an impact on reducing stress. It was found that the higher level of mindfulness, the lower level of stress, as found in our moderation effect analysis of the relationship between stress and perceived performance level. Hence, lower mindfulness has higher-level stress, which leads to lower levels of performance. However, the analysis shows that mindfulness alone will not help predict performance. Only when the presence of stress that mindfulness will have a moderator impact on performance. Work stress plays a mediator role between self-efficacy and socialization out-

come – performance. Subsequence, the performance impacts the intention to stay. Saks and Ashforth (2016) hypothesized that those with higher self-efficacy would have a lesser impact from a stressor. When the individual had lessor work stress, they would be able to have better performance; however, at that time, the hypothesis was not supported. However, the result of this research aligns with prior findings that self-efficacy was a stronger predictor of job performance and intentions to stay in the study. In addition, work stress was mediated negatively on a relationship between self-efficacy and performance. Those with higher self-efficacy would have lessor stress which results in higher performance.

Although the mediation effect of work stress during the socialization process on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance it shows the effect as partial mediation. While work stress has a negative influence on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance, it does not explain the whole impact. In the existence of stress in the mediation model, mindfulness confirmed its moderated effect on the mediation relationship. While other researches confirm the negative relationship between work stress and mindfulness, the important finding of this study is confirmed an additional effect of moderated mediation mechanism of mindfulness on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance.

Lastly, this research study established evidence that Satipaṭṭhāna mindfulness practices positively affect the socialization process, and it is significantly statistically proven. The finding in this research supports the knowledge that mindfulness practices can be done in a brief session as same as the other brief mindfulness program in prior research (Creswell, Pacilio, Lindsay, & Brown, 2018; Manotas, Segura, Eraso, Oggins, & McGovern, 2014; Schumer et al., 2018; Zeidan, Gordon, Merchant, & Goolkasian, 2010), instead of other long mindfulness practices such as MBSR courses, and Vipassana meditation etc. The design of Satipaṭṭhāna mindfulness intervention used in this study teaches the participant to have the skill of dealing with stress by using brief mindfulness-awareness meditation to be appropriate to the daily work. This brief mindfulness practices program practices 15 minutes before starting in the first 15 days and asks the participant to practice by themselves 15 min each day for another 15 days. Mindfulness programs sometimes self-report as intensive time commitment, such as the intensive 10-day retreat of Vipassana meditation, and some time with

Mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) programs are currently the most widely implemented meditation interventions examining pain outcomes. MBSR programs are usually eight weeks long, include daily homework assignments, require a trained professional, and include a day of silent retreat. As the body of mindfulness knowledge growing, there are variations in mindfulness meditation training; most interventions teach participants how to maintain focus on a dynamic and automatic stimulus while allowing thoughts or feelings to be acknowledged but not judged (Zeidan et al., 2010). The intervention in this study emphasizes regulating attention, presenting focus and acceptance or nonjudgment towards the healing of emotion of stress through the Satipaṭṭhāna Mindfulness. Our results support the notion that Satipaṭṭhāna Mindfulness Practices could have a significant positive effect as well. Via a quasi-experimental research design, the experiment group showed a higher level of mindfulness, by the level of mindfulness remained the same. At the same time, the control group have the level of mindfulness drop down significantly. Simultaneously, the experimental group shows a higher level of self-report performance, mindfulness, and intention to stay while having a lower level of work stress. The higher level of work stress of the control group results is in accord with other studies performed on groups of American office-based employee subjects (n=96) who practiced mindfulness at work, a brief stress management program courses (Wolever et al., 2012) as well as other mindfulness meditations, such as Vipassana meditation. The experimental group's result in a higher level of performance was similar to the study of Canadian MBA student subjects (n=149), which had a higher level of academic performance in a female group (Shao & Skarlicki, 2009) while the majority (n=98%) of the experimental group was female as same as this study. The finding also align with study of Cheung and colloques (2020) that a brief mindfulness intervention (called a PIT-STOP) to reduce procedural stress and improve simulator performance for medical intern in their 1 year of the program while this study using Satipaṭṭhāna Mindfulness in the flirt month during socialization process.

5.2 Limitations of Study

There are some limitations of this study that can be improved further in future

research. First, this sample was conducted in an actual work setting and dealt with a large group of people (original 650 newcomers initially). The possible random sampling procedure was to assign the new hired alternately to join the experimental and control groups every other week. In addition, the pre and post-test of the critical variable - mindfulness- were collected to set up the baseline at the beginning of the study. Both groups got orientation/skill training in the socialization process, except the EG got mindfulness training and practices while the CG receive the additional on the job training time in the same amount of time. Because the study is voluntary, the control group may not quite understand the underline benefit of the study because they did not get any treatment by mindfulness, so many of them did not return the survey questionnaire. Hence, it causes the number of two groups of is significantly different. In addition, job satisfaction at the time of 1 month has abnormal distribution by having two curves. This research is done in a real job setting that has physically demands that cause the newcomers to have high uncertainty while the 6-level scale has no neutral rating for newcomers that were unsure that presuming would have a lot of this category while during one month of services when newcomer still try to observe sense-making whether they will continue with the organization.

In addition, when conducting hierarchical multiple regression to test the overall model to assess the level of mindfulness-mediated moderation on stress which influences performance and subsequence influences the intention to stay, the result show statistically significant to support the hypotheses. However, it is observed that the influence intention to stay is at a very mild level. Perhaps, there could be because the mindfulness in this study is very brief, only a 15-minute session a day in one month, so the participants may not absorb and understand the benefit of mindfulness practices well enough.

5.3 Implication and Recommendations for Practice

The mindfulness meditation program, a stress-reduction intervention, is a non-pharmacological approach that teaches skills in emotional regulation. Its emphasis on regulating attention, present focus and acceptance or nonjudgment towards the healing of emotion makes it an effective intervention for stress management and reducing

burnout among newcomers. Mindfulness meditation can provide the newcomer with a simple, effective way to cope with work stress and achieve socialization, thus remaining with the company. Organizations can design longer hours of mindfulness practices to be trained to the newcomers and observe closer on its benefit.

The study also shows that self-efficacy is positive related to performance and demonstrates the ability to cope with stress, which subsequently results intention to stay in the organization. Organizations can apply to add self-efficacy assessment into the selection package or provide a program to improve self-efficacy to the newcomers.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

Future research is needed to find a more effective mindfulness program and/or continuous method as an intervention to support newcomers to perform well and stay longer in the organization or become long-term employees. A longitudinal study is worth to be conducted in order to examine the impact of continuous meditation practices to the employees.

Lastly, the study finds that job satisfaction did not relate to any other variable; hence, the model of structural relationship cannot be tested. Future research may focus on developing appropriate questionnaire to measure job satisfaction of newcomers or otherwise measuring job satisfaction after 2 months in the organization. Then the relationship of EI and SE with job satisfaction need to be restudied.

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Appendix A

SPSS result of Mediation effect of Stress on relationship between Self-Efficacy and Performance

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.3 *****

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4

Y : TPerFM

X : T_SF_A

M : T_Stress

Sample

Size: 360

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

T_Stress

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.4348	.1891	.6508	83.4728	1.0000	358.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.7349	.2081	22.7537	.0000	4.3256	5.1441
T_SF_A	-.4407	.0482	-9.1363	.0000	-.5355	-.3458

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
T_SF_A	-.4348

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A
constant	.0433	-.0098
T_SF_A	-.0098	.0023

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.7499	.5624	.4868	229.3969	2.0000	357.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.6522	.2815	20.0787	.0000	5.0986	6.2058
T_SF_A	.2745	.0463	5.9249	.0000	.1834	.3656
T_Stress	-.7296	.0457	-15.9595	.0000	-.8195	-.6397

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
T_SF_A	.2304
T_Stress	-.6205

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A	T_Stress
constant	.0792	-.0117	-.0099
T_SF_A	-.0117	.0021	.0009
T_Stress	-.0099	.0009	.0021

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.5002	.2502	.8319	119.4416	1.0000	358.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2.1978	.2353	9.3416	.0000	1.7351	2.6605
T_SF_A	.5960	.0545	10.9289	.0000	.4887	.7032

Standardized coefficients

	coeff
T_SF_A	.5002

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A
constant	.0554	-.0126
T_SF_A	-.0126	.0030

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Total effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
	.5960	.0545	10.9289	.0000	.4887	.7032	.5666
							.5002

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
	.2745	.0463	5.9249	.0000	.1834	.3656	.2610
							.2304

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
T_Stress	.3215	.0463	.2256	.4065

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
T_Stress	.3057	.0370	.2263	.3700

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
T_Stress	.2698	.0407	.1871	.3452

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

----- END MATRIX -----



Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.3

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 1
Y : TPerFM
X : T_Stress
W : T_MindFu

Sample
Size: 360

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
TPerFM

Model Summary

	R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
	.7515	.5648	.4855	154.0143	3.0000	356.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.7623	.0397	119.9572	.0000	4.6842	4.8404
T_Stress	-.6728	.0506	-13.2928	.0000	-.7724	-.5733
T_MindFu	.2686	.0913	2.9418	.0035	.0890	.4481
Int_1	.1664	.0528	3.1493	.0018	.0625	.2703

Product terms key:

Int_1 : T_Stress x T_MindFu

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_Stress	T_MindFu	Int_1
constant	.0016	.0001	-.0007	.0008
T_Stress	.0001	.0026	.0018	.0005
T_MindFu	-.0007	.0018	.0083	-.0024
Int_1	.0008	.0005	-.0024	.0028

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
X*W	.0121	9.9181	1.0000	356.0000	.0018

Focal predict: T_Stress (X)
Mod var: T_MindFu (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

T_MindFu	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.3507	-.7312	.0509	-14.3705	.0000	-.8312	-.6311
.0660	-.6618	.0513	-12.8969	.0000	-.7628	-.5609

.4826 -.5925 .0604 -9.8110 .0000 -.7113 -.4738

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

T_Stress T_MindFu TPerFM .

BEGIN DATA.

```

-.8263  -.3507  5.2723
-.0613  -.3507  4.7129
.8137   -.3507  4.0732
-.8263  .0660   5.3269
-.0613  .0660   4.8206
.8137   .0660   4.2415
-.8263  .4826   5.3815
-.0613  .4826   4.9283
.8137   .4826   4.4098

```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

T_Stress WITH TPerFM BY T_MindFu .

Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:

Conseqnt Antecdnt

COL1 TPerFM constant

COL2 TPerFM T_Stress

COL3 TPerFM T_MindFu

COL4 TPerFM Int_1

***** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	4.7623	4.7630	.0419	4.6789	4.8442
T_Stress	-.6728	-.6754	.0576	-.7884	-.5594
T_MindFu	.2686	.2675	.0800	.1131	.4330
Int_1	.1664	.1681	.0469	.0791	.2600

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional Tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

T_MindFu T_Stress

NOTE: Standardized coefficients not available for models with moderators.

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.
Shorter variable names are recommended.

----- END MATRIX -----





Appendix C

Run MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.3

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 4

Y : TPerFM

X : T_SF_A

M : T_Stress

Sample

Size: 360

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

T_Stress

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.4348	.1891	.6508	83.4728	1.0000	358.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.7349	.2081	22.7537	.0000	4.3256	5.1441
T_SF_A	-.4407	.0482	-9.1363	.0000	-.5355	-.3458

Standardized coefficients

coeff	
T_SF_A	-.4348

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A
constant	.0433	-.0098
T_SF_A	-.0098	.0023

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.7499	.5624	.4868	229.3969	2.0000	357.0000	.0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	5.6522	.2815	20.0787	.0000	5.0986	6.2058
T_SF_A	.2745	.0463	5.9249	.0000	.1834	.3656
T_Stress	-.7296	.0457	-15.9595	.0000	-.8195	-.6397

Standardized coefficients

```

      coeff
T_SF_A   .2304
T_Stress -.6205

```

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

```

      constant  T_SF_A  T_Stress
constant   .0792  -.0117  -.0099
T_SF_A     -.0117   .0021   .0009
T_Stress   -.0099   .0009   .0021

```

***** TOTAL EFFECT MODEL *****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

Model Summary

```

      R    R-sq    MSE      F    df1    df2    p
      .5002   .2502   .8319  119.4416  1.0000  358.0000  .0000

```

Model

```

      coeff    se      t      p    LLCI    ULCI
constant  2.1978   .2353   9.3416   .0000   1.7351   2.6605
T_SF_A     .5960   .0545  10.9289   .0000   .4887   .7032

```

Standardized coefficients

```

      coeff
T_SF_A   .5002

```

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

```

      constant  T_SF_A
constant   .0554  -.0126
T_SF_A     -.0126   .0030

```

***** TOTAL, DIRECT, AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Total effect of X on Y

```

      Effect    se      t      p    LLCI    ULCI    c_ps    c_cs
      .5960   .0545  10.9289   .0000   .4887   .7032   .5666   .5002

```

Direct effect of X on Y

```

      Effect    se      t      p    LLCI    ULCI    c'_ps    c'_cs
      .2745   .0463   5.9249   .0000   .1834   .3656   .2610   .2304

```

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

```

      Effect  BootSE  BootLLCI  BootULCI
T_Stress   .3215   .0463   .2256   .4065

```

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

```

      Effect  BootSE  BootLLCI  BootULCI
T_Stress   .3057   .0370   .2263   .3700

```

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

```

      Effect  BootSE  BootLLCI  BootULCI
T_Stress   .2698   .0407   .1871   .3452

```

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

----- END MATRIX -----





Appendix D

un MATRIX procedure:

***** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.3

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

Model : 14
Y : TPerFM
X : T_SF_A
M : T_Stress
W : T_MindFu

Sample
Size: 360

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
T_Stress

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.435	.189	.651	83.473	1.000	358.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1.861	.208	8.944	.000	1.452	2.270
T_SF_A	-.441	.048	-9.136	.000	-.536	-.346

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A
constant	.043	-.010
T_SF_A	-.010	.002

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
TPerFM

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
.760	.577	.473	121.258	4.000	355.000	.000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	4.011	.235	17.103	.000	3.549	4.472
T_SF_A	.175	.054	3.251	.001	.069	.281
T_Stress	-.656	.050	-13.068	.000	-.755	-.557
T_MindFu	.165	.096	1.730	.085	-.023	.353
Int_1	.121	.054	2.240	.026	.015	.227

Product terms key:

Int_1 : T_Stress x T_MindFu

Covariance matrix of regression parameter estimates:

	constant	T_SF_A	T_Stress	T_MindFu	Int_1
constant	.055	-.012	-.001	.007	.004
T_SF_A	-.012	.003	.000	-.002	-.001
T_Stress	-.001	.000	.003	.002	.000
T_MindFu	.007	-.002	.002	.009	-.002
Int_1	.004	-.001	.000	-.002	.003

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F	df1	df2	p
M*W	.006	5.020	1.000	355.000	.026

 Focal predict: T_Stress (M)
 Mod var: T_MindFu (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

T_MindFu	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-.351	-.699	.051	-13.644	.000	-.799	-.598
.066	-.648	.051	-12.756	.000	-.748	-.548
.483	-.598	.060	-10.027	.000	-.715	-.481

There are no statistical significance transition points within the observed range of the moderator found using the Johnson-Neyman method.

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

T_MindFu	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2.767	-.991	.151	-6.562	.000	-1.288	-.694
-2.555	-.965	.140	-6.884	.000	-1.241	-.689
-2.342	-.939	.130	-7.252	.000	-1.194	-.685
-2.130	-.914	.119	-7.676	.000	-1.148	-.680
-1.917	-.888	.109	-8.168	.000	-1.102	-.674
-1.705	-.862	.099	-8.740	.000	-1.056	-.668
-1.492	-.837	.089	-9.406	.000	-1.012	-.662
-1.280	-.811	.080	-10.175	.000	-.968	-.654
-1.067	-.785	.071	-11.044	.000	-.925	-.645
-.855	-.760	.063	-11.978	.000	-.884	-.635
-.642	-.734	.057	-12.871	.000	-.846	-.622
-.430	-.708	.052	-13.520	.000	-.811	-.605
-.217	-.682	.050	-13.652	.000	-.781	-.584
-.005	-.657	.050	-13.089	.000	-.755	-.558
.208	-.631	.053	-11.927	.000	-.735	-.527
.420	-.605	.058	-10.468	.000	-.719	-.492
.633	-.580	.064	-8.996	.000	-.706	-.453
.845	-.554	.072	-7.665	.000	-.696	-.412
1.058	-.528	.081	-6.524	.000	-.688	-.369
1.270	-.503	.090	-5.565	.000	-.680	-.325
1.483	-.477	.100	-4.765	.000	-.674	-.280

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:

Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/

T_Stress T_MindFu TPerFM .

BEGIN DATA.

-.826 -.351 5.269
 -.061 -.351 4.734

```

      .814   -.351   4.123
     -.826   .066   5.296
     -.061   .066   4.800
      .814   .066   4.233
     -.826   .483   5.323
     -.061   .483   4.866
      .814   .483   4.343

```

END DATA.

GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=

T_Stress WITH TPerFM BY T_MindFu .

***** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y *****

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
.175	.054	3.251	.001	.069	.281

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:

T_SF_A -> T_Stress -> TPerFM

T_MindFu	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-.351	.308	.044	.217	.391
.066	.286	.043	.198	.366
.483	.263	.043	.178	.347

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
T_MindFu	-.053	.022	-.098	-.011

Pairwise contrasts between conditional indirect effects (Effect1 minus Effect2)

Effect1	Effect2	Contrast	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
.286	.308	-.022	.009	-.041	-.005
.263	.308	-.044	.018	-.081	-.009
.263	.286	-.022	.009	-.041	-.005

Bootstrap estimates were saved to a file

Map of column names to model coefficients:

```

Conseqnt Antecdnt
COL1  T_Stress constant
COL2  T_Stress T_SF_A
COL3  TPerFM  constant
COL4  TPerFM  T_SF_A
COL5  TPerFM  T_Stress
COL6  TPerFM  T_MindFu
COL7  TPerFM  Int_1

```

***** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

T_Stress

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1.861	1.852	.240	1.328	2.276
T_SF_A	-.441	-.438	.056	-.537	-.318

OUTCOME VARIABLE:

TPerFM

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	4.011	4.004	.270	3.456	4.535
T_SF_A	.175	.177	.063	.052	.302
T_Stress	-.656	-.656	.058	-.768	-.542
T_MindFu	.165	.166	.087	-.005	.338
Int_1	.121	.122	.049	.025	.223

***** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS *****

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:

95.0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional Tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:

T_MindFu T_Stress

NOTE: Standardized coefficients not available for models with moderators.

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.

Shorter variable names are recommended.

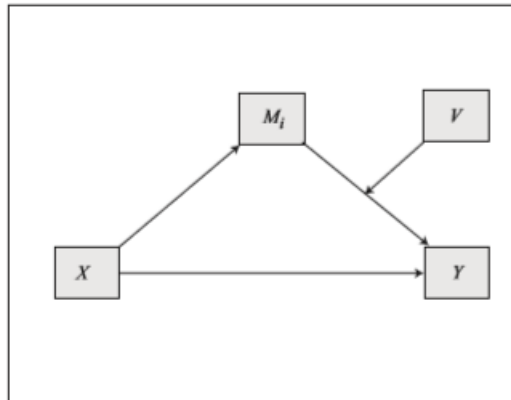
----- END MATRIX -----



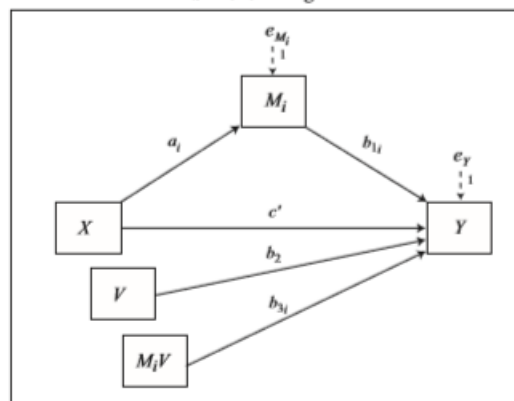
The graphic display moderated mediation as per recommended by Hayes, 2016

Model 14

Conceptual Diagram



Statistical Diagram



Conditional indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = a_i (b_{1i} + b_{3i}V)$

Direct effect of X on $Y = c'$

Note: Model 14 allows up to 10 mediators operating in parallel.



Appendix F

Example of Satipaṭṭhāna mindfulness training



การฝึกสติเพื่อความสุขในงาน

พระพุทธเจ้าบอกว่า การทำบุญคือการทำสุขทางใจ
เราจะทำบุญทุกวันโดยการให้รอยยิ้ม ให้มิตรภาพกับเพื่อนร่วมงานทุกคน
เราจะทำบุญโดยการทำการงานที่มีประโยชน์
ทำงานให้ถูกต้องเพื่อความสุขของทุกคน

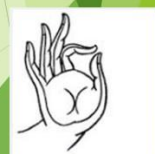





เราจะมีสติ เมื่อกลัวเมื่อวิตกเมื่อเหนื่อยใจ เราจะรู้ว่ามันอยู่ที่เราคิด
ความสุขก็อยู่ที่เราคิด
เมื่อกลัวเมื่อวิตกเมื่อเหนื่อยใจ รู้ว่าถ้าเราคิดบวกก็ไม่กลุ่มงานไม่บั่นทอนใจ
เมื่อกลัวเมื่อวิตกเมื่อเหนื่อยใจ เมื่อรู้ตัวแล้วจะหยุดคิด
เราจะทำสมาธิ 5 นาทีก่อนเรียนและหลังเรียน หรือทำด้วยตัวเองช่วงเบรค
ด้วยการ หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3
ในขณะเดียวกันคิดถึงกลับมาจับที่ลมหายใจ นี่ก็ถือว่า เมื่อรู้สติก็ไม่ทุกข์
ไม่กลัวไม่วิตกไม่เหนื่อยใจ แล้วทำใจให้นิ่งไว้
(ถ้าหลับตาไม่ได้ ก็ลืมตาก็ได้แล้วบีบนิ้วหัวแม่มือและนิ้วชี้เข้าด้วยกัน)
หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3
หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3
หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3
หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3
หายใจเข้าลึกๆ นับ 1,2,3 แล้ว ผ่อนหายใจออก นับ 1,2,3 ทำต่อไปเรื่อยๆ



ยิ้มมีความสุขได้แม้ลำบาก





Appendix G

Test of experiment

In this study, the experiment group is provided with the newcomer socialization program that includes 3 hours of learning about the Sampajañña mindfulness knowledge and practices 15 min sessions with their trainers for two weeks of 6 days working week and were asked to practice by themselves for 15 min each day for the followed two weeks, while the control group which is not provided with mindfulness, are provided with on-the-job training at the same amount of time that experimental group get the mindfulness training and practice. To test the effectiveness of mindfulness practices designed for this study, the below Hypothesis is formed.

Hypothesis G1: Newcomers who received the mindfulness practice will have a higher level of mindfulness level than those who did not receive mindfulness practices.

Referring to the above-literature review in Chapter 2 and in regarding the positive moderator effect of mindfulness on stress, which resulted that mindfulness has a negative relationship to work stress (Mackenzie, Poulin, & Seidman-Carlson, 2006). Once the stress is reduced, the mindfulness practice will have a positive relation to the socialization outcome, which are performance (Reb, Narayanan, Chaturvedi, & Ekkirala, 2017), job satisfaction (Mackenzie et al., 2006) and intention to stay (Reb et al., 2017). As a result, the below Hypotheses were formed.

Hypothesis G1: Newcomers who received the mindfulness practice will have a lower level of work stress than those who did not receive mindfulness practices..

Hypothesis G2: Newcomers who received the mindfulness practice will have a higher level of performance than those who did not receive mindfulness practices.

Hypothesis G3: Newcomers who received the mindfulness practice will have a higher level of job satisfaction than those who did not receive mindfulness practices.

Hypothesis G4: Newcomers who receive the mindfulness practice will have a higher level of intention to stay than those who did not receive mindfulness practices.

Results

The result demonstrated that participants in the experimental group who received mindfulness practice could hold strong on to their mindfulness level. In contrast, the mindfulness level of those in the control group got lessened. The result therefore indicated the positive effect of the mindfulness program.

In comparison to the control group, the experimental group who received mindfulness practice training reported lower work stress ($2.79 < 3.04$, $t = 2.38$, $p < .05$) (as shown in Table 4.4) as predicted in Hypothesis G1, higher performance ($4.85 > 4.44$, $t = 4.31$, $p < .001$) as predicted in Hypothesis G2, higher job satisfaction ($2.85 > 2.49$, $t = 2.83$, $p < .001$) as predicted in Hypothesis G3, and higher intention to stay ($4.8 > 4.4$, $t = 3.16$, $p < .01$) as predicted in Hypothesis G4.



BIOGRAPHY

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Academic Background

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Experience

34 years of experience in Human Resources Management and development in multinational companies; Siam Compressor Thailand Limited, Weatherford KSP Co.,ltd., Halliburton Thailand, General Electric Asia Pacific, Linde Gas Indo-China, , UTAC Thailand limited and Amapcet Asia Pacific

