



134
891
THS



This is to certify that the
thesis entitled
ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES TO SOCIALIZING
NEWCOMERS AND NEW EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

presented by
Stacie Anne Beery

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

M.A. degree in Communication


Major professor

Date 12-14-00

PLACE IN RETURN BOX to remove this checkout from your record.
TO AVOID FINES return on or before date due.
MAY BE RECALLED with earlier due date if requested.

DATE DUE	DATE DUE	DATE DUE
DEC 08 2003		
AUG 30 2004		

ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES TO SOCIALIZING NEWCOMERS AND NEW
EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

By

Stacie Anne Beery

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Communication

2000

ABSTRACT

ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACHES TO SOCIALIZING NEWCOMERS AND NEW EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

By

Stacie Anne Beery

Organizational socialization is the process by which newcomers learn their roles and adapt to new organizations. While few scholars would dispute the importance of socialization, there is debate over the most effective way to socialize newcomers. Four approaches to socializing newcomers (socialization context, message content, socialization agent supportiveness, and organizational effort) currently dominate the research literature, with each providing alternative explanations for achieving similar outcomes. Applying the Yale model of persuasion to current socialization research provided a framework for organizing the approaches and their relationship to organizational commitment. The study sought to determine which of the four approaches, or which approaches when combined, have the most influence on organizational commitment. Correlation analyses were performed and each approach had a significant relationship to organizational commitment. Further analysis determined source support and organizational effort at recruitment as the strongest predictors of new hire organizational commitment.

Copyright by
STACIE ANNE BEERY
2000

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES.....	iv
LIST OF FIGURES.....	v
INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 1	
SOCIALIZATION AS A PERSUASIVE EVENT.....	4
Source factors.....	6
Supervisors and coworkers.....	6
Socialization effort.....	7
Message factors.....	9
Socialization content.....	10
Socialization context.....	11
Organizational Commitment.....	14
CHAPTER 2	
METHODS.....	19
Participants.....	19
Survey Measures.....	20
Source factors.....	20
Source support.....	20
Organizational recruitment effort.....	25
Message factors.....	25
Socialization content.....	25
Socialization context.....	26
Organizational commitment.....	27
CHAPTER 3	
RESULTS.....	29
CHAPTER 4	
DISCUSSION.....	34
Limitations.....	37
Future Research.....	39
REFERENCES.....	43

LIST OF TABLES

Primary Item Factor Loadings and Tests of Internal Consistency.....	21
Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Matrix.....	30

LIST OF FIGURES

Path Model of Socialization Antecedents to Organizational Commitment.....	33
---	----

INTRODUCTION

The process by which new hires acquire the social knowledge and skills to assume roles and “learn the ropes” of an organization is critical to organizational success and individual adaptation (Brim, 1966; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Scholars often link socialization experiences to newcomers’ propensity for turnover (e.g., Jones, 1986; Louis, Posner & Powell, 1983), organizational commitment (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Laker & Steffy, 1995; Louis et al., 1983), and role innovation (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). However, organizational socialization efforts at times are ineffective (Brim, 1966; Zurcher, 1983) or, worse, may in fact accentuate uncertainty (Louis, 1980) and the perceived lack of fit to the job and organization (Kristoff, 1996). While few scholars would dispute the potential value of organizations socializing newcomers, questions remain regarding what makes socialization effective.

Presently, four approaches characterize the measurement of new hires’ socialization (Miller, Harden-Fritz, & Hart, 1999). The predominant approach posits that the organizational context shapes newcomers’ orientation to their role. A combination of socialization tactics and experiences leads new hires to custodial or innovative role orientations, thereby sustaining or creating new approaches to the role (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). A second approach, based on Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner’s (1994) research on newcomer knowledge, focuses on the content or information received by newcomers during the organizational entry process. A third approach focuses on the sources, or who provides information and support critical to new hires’ socialization experiences. Newcomers report that supervisors and coworkers are

considerably more helpful than formal onsite orientation sessions in “learning the ropes” (Louis et al., 1983). A fourth approach contends that the degree of organizational effort at socializing employees (through interviewing, training, role modeling and such) creates a culture of involved employees (Caldwell, Chatman, & O’Reilly, 1990; Chatman, 1991; Pascale, 1985). These approaches do not discount gains from individual information seeking behaviors (Ashford, 1986; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993), but rather depict the information environment in which newcomers learn and adapt to organizational values and norms.

Ultimately, these approaches share a common, persuasive goal - to influence new employees’ attitudes and behaviors (Brim, 1966). In some cases, organizations’ persuasive goals are ambitious and involve the inculcation of new knowledge, skills, and values (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In other cases, new employees largely fit the organization’s desired attitudinal and behavioral profile (Kristoff, 1996) and socialization goals are minimal. At present, scholars are largely unable to conclude which of the various approaches to socialization, when viewed comparatively, have the greatest impact on employees. This lack of knowledge is due, in part, to the absence of studies comparing the relationship of socialization context to organizational effort or even the influential nature of incumbents (Miller et al., 1999). Nonetheless, socialization is deemed to be a critical element in establishing new hire expectations for their roles, tasks, and citizenship (Katz, 1980). Employees who quickly adapt to organizational expectations minimize personal and organizational frustration from poor performance and low levels of organizational knowledge and values. In short, socialization holds the long-term promise of saving time and energy and minimizing negative outcomes.

The lack of understanding of the comparative influence of socialization approaches on new hire attitudes is also due, in part, to the failure to measure socialization from a persuasive model. One such model, the Yale Model of Persuasion (Hovland, Janis, & Kelly, 1953), offers a helpful exemplar in understanding the contribution of each socialization approach to employee commitment. In fact, source, content, context, and effort approaches on employee attitudes roughly parallel the classic source and message analyses of “Who said What to Whom with what Effect” (Hovland et al, 1953, p. 12). As such, Hovland et al.’s (1953) model provides a framework to assess the comparative influence of socialization approaches on new employees as well as the relationship among the approaches. Such knowledge may, in turn, provide valuable guidance to socialization agents responsible for newcomer integration.

Accordingly, this investigation examines the interplay of four approaches to organizational socialization and their impact on new hires. The first section of this manuscript discusses socialization as a persuasive process framed by the Yale model (Hovland et al., 1953) and incorporates the four approaches into the model. A methodology to test hypothesized relationships is then presented, followed by a report of the study’s results. The concluding section discusses these findings and directions for future research.

Chapter 1

SOCIALIZATION AS A PERSUASIVE EVENT

As noted by Hovland et al. (1953) and others (e.g. Fotheringham, 1966; Gordon, 1955; Reardon, 1981), executives often use persuasion to increase widespread acceptance of organizational goals. Many organizations go to great lengths to shape new employee attitudes and behaviors. Brim (1966) suggests that “role acquisition is probably the most important aspect of adult socialization” (p. 5) since this process turns “human raw material” (p. 5) into “good working members” (p. 5). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) also note that by teaching newcomers how to enact their new roles, organizations increase their stability and productivity. In effect, “the various socialization processes carried out within an organization represent the glue which holds together the various interlocking parts of an ongoing social concern” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 215).

Although Hovland et al. (1953) refer to persuasion broadly, the passage below illustrates how classic persuasion research applies to socialization:

We assume that opinions, like other habits, will tend to persist unless the individual undergoes some new learning experiences. Exposure to a persuasive communication which successfully induces the individual to accept a new opinion constitutes a learning experience in which a new verbal habit is acquired. This is to say, when presented with a given question, the individual now thinks of and prefers the new answer suggested by the communication to the old one held prior to exposure to the communication. (p. 10)

Accepting a new opinion as a result of persuasive communication is at the heart of intended socialization messages and experiences. Louis (1980) posits that socialization messages provide scripts to guide newcomers' behaviors and frameworks for solving problems. Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) note that messages from top management can reframe experiences, highlighting organizational values and shaping attitudes.

The Yale model posits that the key elements of the persuasion process are encompassed by, “Who said What to Whom with what Effect” (Hovland et al., 1953, p. 12). The Who refers to the source of the message; the What pertains to the message content; the Whom refers to the receiver; and the Effect is the resulting attitude, opinion, and/or behavior change. Each component of this model has a unique influence on the Effect, and classical operationalizations of the Yale model explore each component independent of the others. Stiff (1994) notes that research the Who of persuasive messages typically tests the implications of various source characteristics such as credibility and physical features such as race, sex and attractiveness. The characteristics of the Who in this model are generally referred to as source factors. The order of arguments and types of appeals used in persuasive messages illustrate the What studies and are typified as message factors. Research investigating to Whom the persuasive message is sent, also referred to as receiver factors, address the individual characteristics such as intelligence, self-esteem and initial position of the receiver. Finally, the Effect is characterized by the type of change, be it a change in opinion, perception, affect, or action.

This investigation applies three of the four components of the Yale model to organizational socialization. Specifically, this study considers socialization agents (Who)

at law firms and messages factors (What) as influencing recent law school graduates' organizational commitment (Effect).

Source Factors

In applying the Yale model to organizational socialization, the Who are primarily the incumbent socialization agents, specifically supervisors, and coworkers. Source factors also include the organization's overall socialization efforts, including the time and energy given by organizational members in selecting job prospects.

Supervisors and coworkers. In organizations, "others teach us the behavioral expectations they consider appropriate for the statuses we occupy or will occupy" (Zurcher, 1983, p. 12). They convey information essential to task mastery and making sense of unit and organizational environments (Brim, 1966; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). While persuasion research typically considers the credibility of information sources (e.g., Hovland et al., 1953), socialization research instead examines the availability and supportiveness of agents (Louis et al., 1983).

Among all incumbents, most critical to the socialization of newcomers are interactions with supervisors and coworkers. According to Katz (1980), these social relationships "are particularly important in shaping one's interpretive scheme of reality and in formulating a perspective about what is expected and accepted in a given role" (p. 95). Supervisors and coworkers are proximal influences who provide normative information daily while organization-level influences are more distal and occasional following a flurry of messages at organizational entry (Jablin & Krone, 1987). Consequently, it is of little surprise that newcomers report their interactions with peers, senior coworkers, and supervisors as most helpful during socialization compared to

formal onsite orientation, offsite training, other new recruits, mentors, support staff, social activities, and business trips (Louis et al., 1983).

Research indicates that supervisors' and coworkers' question-answering and encouragement reduces newcomers' role difficulties. For instance, the helpfulness of peers, senior coworkers, and supervisors is significantly correlated with newcomer job satisfaction and commitment (Louis et al., 1983). Major et al. (1995) find that leader-member exchange and team-member exchange relationships moderate the negative effects of unmet expectations and suggest that the nature of the supervisory and coworker relationships can ameliorate role conflicts associated with organizational entry.

Managers' clarifying the nature of assigned tasks contributes to newcomer role clarity and performance efficacy while managerial sharing of social information contributes to newcomers' feelings of acceptance (Bauer & Green, 1998). While incumbents can positively influence newcomers' entry experiences, without clarification and support newcomers are left to sink or swim alone (Katz, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

In short, organizations with unwelcoming coworkers and unsupportive superiors hinder newcomer adjustment, and organizational resources (in terms of money and effort) allocated for the ultimate goal of creating "effective" employees are likely to be ill spent. At the same time, overall organizational efforts toward selecting and socializing new hires in many ways set the parameters for the extent to which new hires can be influenced.

Socialization effort. In applying source characteristics of the Yale model to socialization, it is important to consider organizations' overall effort to socialize newcomers to their norms and values. Intensive socialization efforts may signify

recruits' importance to organizational success, the importance of indoctrination to desired outcomes, and expected effort by new hires to be reciprocated to the organization. Specific activities that may shape newcomers' perceptions of organizational effort include putting more effort into selecting and recruiting employees, along with messages that emphasize the type of person who would fit into the organization's culture (Pascale, 1985).

Pascale (1985) presents a prescriptive, seven-step socialization process that begins with organizational recruitment efforts at selecting candidates with salient traits. The second step advocates humility-inducing experiences to force newcomers to question their values and behaviors, thereby becoming more open to organizational values and norms. As a third step, employees receive "in-the-trenches" (p. 30) training in order to master core disciplines and improve their potential for success. Next, Pascale (1985) advocates creating reward and control systems that reward or sanction newcomers depending upon adherence to organizational values and rules. Fifth, the connection with and strict adherence to organizational transcendent values is critical to employees' personal adjustments. The sixth step emphasizes reinforcing folklore in an effort to validate the organization's culture and goals. A final step points to the value of consistent role models to demonstrate the benefits of conforming to organizational values. The incorporation of the seven-step model is likely "to establish a base of attitudes, habits, and values that foster cooperation, integrity, and communication" (Pascale, 1985, p. 37).

To date, two studies investigate Pascale's (1985) model. Chatman (1991) reports person-organization fit, or the congruency of personal and organizational values is

positively related to newcomer attendance at social activities, time with a mentor and the positive perceptions of recruitment. Caldwell et al. (1990) find that, when controlling for tenure and firm size, organizational emphases on recruitment, training, and clear value systems positively impact employee normative commitment (i.e., commitment based on shared values) while an emphasis on rewards is negatively related to normative but positively related to instrumental commitment (i.e., involvement in exchange for rewards).

In sum, only partial support for Pascale's (1985) model exists, suggesting that effort given to identifying and training newcomers facilitates employee adjustment and involvement. While organizational socialization effort has received the least attention among the four measurement approaches, its measurement is appealing because perceived effort in selecting and socializing employees may result in greater receptivity to messages regarding organizational values and preferred behaviors. Moreover, the careful selection of job candidates who fit in with existing organizational norms and values is in itself a form of socialization (Jablin, 1987; Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987). In addition to considering how information sources and organization effort constrain or facilitate new hires' adjustment, extant socialization research also considers the impact of what is said to newcomers.

Message Factors

The What of the Yale model as applied to organizational socialization pertains to information necessary for enacting a new role and for successfully integrating into the organization's culture. In addition, the manner or context in which the information is received is a critical aspect of message receiving. As noted earlier, classic persuasion

research typically focuses on message attributes, such as one- or two-sided messages (e.g., Hovland, Lumsdaine, & Sheffield, 1949), fear appeals, (e.g., Janis & Feshback, 1953) and order of presentation (e.g. Hovland & Mandell, 1957). Socialization research examines the messages newcomers receive regarding appropriate role behaviors, organizational norms, and career advice which are both memorable and appreciated (Stohl, 1986; Zurcher, 1983). In turn, the majority of recent research considers the context in which the organization imparts knowledge and shapes new employees' experiences. The type of information and the context of its delivery provide the basis for socialization messages in the Yale model.

Socialization content. As opposed to the first application of socialization approaches to the Yale model considers supervisor clarifying behavior and supervisory and coworker support as source factors, the content approach focuses on information, or What is conveyed to newcomers. In one of the few studies investigating knowledge received during socialization, Chao et al. (1994) measure newcomers' knowledge in six domains. *Performance proficiency* messages assist the learning of the knowledge, skills and abilities associated with new tasks or roles while messages about *people* orient newcomers toward helpful work relationships. Messages regarding *politics* shed light on formal and informal relationships and power structures that may assist advancement. *Language* messages relay the technical jargon associated with the new role, and *organizational goals and values* messages link written or tacit organizational norms to the individual. Finally, *history* messages, or information on organizational traditions, customs, myths, rituals, and stories, demonstrate behaviors that are appropriate or inappropriate.

Results of Chao et al.'s (1994) multi-year sample indicate that knowledge of performance proficiency, history, and language positively impact the resolution of newcomers' identity and that knowledge of the organization's history, along with organizational goals and values is positively related to newcomer job satisfaction. They also report that knowledge of organizational goals and values is associated with new hire career involvement and adaptability, while knowledge of organizational politics is also positively related to personal income.

Investigations of socialization content may provide insight into varying emphases on "what is important" or differences in the dissemination of information to newcomers across organizations. Even within one industry, organizations are likely to differ in information conveyed to newcomers due to their beliefs, resources, experiences, and type of new hire. The importance of providing adequate and appropriate information to newcomers is demonstrated in new hires' reports of seeking information on assigned tasks, the nature of their roles, work group norms, organizational culture, personal evaluation, and non-task behaviors (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999; Miller, 1996; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Additional research is necessary to discern the relationship between the perceived helpfulness of message sources (i.e., Who) and the content messages (i.e., What) during organizational entry (Miller et al., 1999).

Socialization context. A considerable amount of socialization research examines the context in which the organization imparts knowledge and helps employees chart their way through the organization's labyrinth. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) identify six tactical dimensions of socialization that, when taken together, influence employee role orientation. *Collective* versus *individual* tactics describe the gathering of newcomers

undergoing common learning experiences. Newcomers experiencing collective tactics may train, eat, and socialize together while those having individualistic tactics have unique and individualized learning. In *formal* tactics, newcomers are segregated from incumbents and undergo experiences specifically designed for them. Typically, in formal tactics newcomers are “trainees” and must go through set events indoctrinating them to the organization. When experiencing *informal* tactics, newcomers learn through trial and error and are not differentiated from incumbents.

Sequential versus *random* tactics refer to newcomers’ knowledge of the sequence leading to role competence, with random representing an unknown or continually changing sequence to role competence. *Fixed* versus *variable* tactics refer to known timetables bracketing the length of the entry process, where the timeframe is either clear and pre-set (fixed) or ambiguous (variable). *Serial* versus *disjunctive* tactics signify the availability of experienced members as potential providers of role and organizational information. Serial tactics indicate the availability of current or previous role occupants to serve as models or to provide information, whereas in disjunctive tactics newcomers are left without such referents. *Investiture* versus *divestiture* tactics indicate the extent to which new hires are valued for their skills and abilities (investiture) or the extent to which the newcomers’ identities are to be stripped away and replaced by the organization’s identity (divestiture).

Jones (1986) suggests that underlying Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) tactics are two types of socialization experiences, divided according to institutionalized or individualized socialization tactics. Institutionalized socialization tactics include collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial and investiture experiences and create

custodial role orientations where newcomers accept the given role with minimal alterations. Individualized socialization tactics encompasses individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture tactics and lead to innovative role orientation where new hires bring new approaches to the role and challenge the status quo. Jones' (1986) findings indicate that institutionalized socialization tactics are negatively related to role innovation and individualized socialization tactics are positively associated with role conflict and ambiguity.

Research using Jones' (1986) scale explores a number of outcomes related to socialization contexts. Laker and Steffy (1995) report that individualized socialization tactics are negatively related to organizational commitment. Ashforth & Saks' (1996) longitudinal investigation indicates that institutionalized tactics are positively related to employee commitment and satisfaction. As such, newcomers who undergo structured socialization experiences are more likely to have greater commitment to their organizations than those who are left on their own to learn aspects of their new roles.

In addition, Allen and Meyer (1990b) find institutionalized socialization practices are predictive of custodial role orientations. Ashforth & Saks (1996) report that institutionalized tactics are negatively related to role innovation. Black (1992) reports that collective socialization is associated with role innovation among expatriate managers with longer tenures while serial socialization decreases role innovation among those with shorter tenures.

In sum, these studies indicate that institutional tactics lead to higher levels of employee commitment, job satisfaction, and custodial orientation and provide a framework for understanding how certain contexts impact new employees. However,

this approach only provides less than adequate insight into socialization processes in organizations because it does not encompass what messages may be sent and from whom they are sent during this critical process.

Organizational Commitment

The Effect component of the Yale model refers to the desired change in the receiver as a result of source, message, and receiver characteristics. In socialization research, indicators of effectiveness are conceptualized in a variety of ways. For instance, indicators of socialization effectiveness include commitment to the organization (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1994; Laker & Steffy, 1995), job satisfaction (e.g., Bauer & Green, 1998; Major et al., 1995), the lack of stress (e.g., Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999), the absence of the intention to turnover (e.g., Louis et al., 1983; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), role conflict and ambiguity (e.g., Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986), performance (e.g., Chao et al., 1994; Morrison, 1993), and custodial or innovative role orientation (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Jones, 1986). This array of effectiveness indicators may reflect variability in researchers' estimation of organizational needs (e.g., create a skilled workforce; reduce voluntary turnover; inculcate values; enhance creativity) and employee readiness (e.g., "fit" to the job; work motivation). However, across multiple organizational contexts, organizational commitment provides a base threshold indicator of employee acclimation and allegiance to the organization, as well as a measure of employee investment in the organization's values and personnel. The following section considers the relationships of the four socialization approaches to organizational commitment.

In general, organizational commitment represents an affective, psychological

bond between employees and their organizations (Cohen, 1999). Organizations seek to instill commitment in new hires in the belief that this attachment will manifest itself in overt, positive behaviors (Brim, 1966), such as in levels of job performance and assisting others. At a minimum, commitment to the organization signifies that new hires are receptive to their future with the organization and are willing to exert their best effort toward fulfilling their role and the organization's mission.

Newcomers experiencing helpful and supportive supervisors and coworkers often form bonds and reciprocal feelings of attachment. The development of attraction to incumbents may be particularly strong in professions marked by competition and abandonment to sink or swim upon organizational entry. Across a variety of organizational settings, supervisor and coworker supportiveness is consistently positively related to organizational commitment (Bauer & Green, 1994; Bauer & Green, 1998; Louis et al., 1983; Major et al., 1995; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Furthermore, supervisory clarifying behavior is considered to be a key type of supportive behavior (Bauer & Green, 1998). In addition, organizations that emphasize their recruitment and training efforts are likely to better select and then equip newcomers to perform their jobs (Caldwell et al., 1990). As a consequence, carefully selected employees are likely to enter with positive attitudes toward the organization and have such attitudes reinforced through enhanced career experiences (Caldwell et al., 1990). Thus, this study hypothesizes:

H1: Supervisory support, clarifying behaviors, and coworker support as well as overall organizational recruitment efforts will be positively related to newcomer organizational commitment.

It is also easy to understand why organizations strive to build commitment among new hires by creating experiences that build linkages to organizational norms, values, goals, and colleagues (Brim, 1966). For professionals (such as lawyers and information technology specialists) who receive generous compensation and prestige based on unique skill sets and who have many employment options, organizations must find unique ways to retain their services. For example, employees with unique knowledge of internal systems will be better equipped to succeed within the organization and develop stronger bonds with the organization. In fact, Chao et al. (1994) report that newcomer knowledge of organizational goals and values and organizational history (from the six measures of socialization content) are significantly related to job satisfaction three years following entry. Given the positive relationship between measures of new hires' job satisfaction and commitment (Adkins, 1995), newcomers receiving messages about firm goals/values and history are likely to report higher levels of organizational commitment than those not receiving such messages.

Research exploring socialization context approaches generally finds institutional tactics to be positively related to organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Jones, 1986; Laker & Steffy, 1995). In particular, collective and formal tactics - which are key components of institutionalized tactics - create a context where messages are mostly like to produce uniform acceptance of organizational definitions and responsibilities (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In addition, investiture tactics lead to a socially supportive setting where newcomers may be more receptive to an organizational indoctrination, resulting in greater commitment to the firm. Thus, this study hypothesizes:

H2: Organizational goals and value messages and organizational history messages along with collective, formal, and investiture socialization contexts will be positively related to newcomer commitment.

An additional goal of this study is to identify which of these factors, when viewed comparatively, has the strongest relationship to organizational commitment. While source and message factors are hypothesized to lead to organization commitment, their relative contribution in the overall socialization process is unknown (Miller et al., 1999). The lack of comparative information on each approach's contribution to new hire socialization is surprising since socialization is widely acknowledged to be a multi-faceted process with multiple influence agents (Bauer et al., 1998; Jablin & Krone, 1987; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Zurcher, 1983). Without minimizing any one approach's contribution to organizational socialization, and consequently to organizational commitment, this study seeks to recognize the most influential socialization approach so that organizations may tailor new hire entry experiences accordingly. Given the reality of limited budgets, time frames, and personnel, it is likely that organizations desire to prioritize their socialization efforts in order to maximize the use of their resources. Consequently, this study asks,

RQ1: Which socialization factor (source or message) will be the strongest predictor of organizational commitment?

In addition to identifying the strongest predictors of organizational commitment, assessing the relationships between the source and message factors could further explain the nature of this complex process. Identifying possible links between these socialization approaches may enable organizations to build on their existing programs to enhance

organizational commitment. In addition to enabling scholars and practitioners to understand background relationships, an exploration of these relationships may shed light on approaches that are vital to the socialization process, but only indirectly contribute to organizational commitment. Therefore, this study asks,

RQ2: What are the relationships between the socialization factors as they lead to organizational commitment?

Chapter 2

METHODS

Participants

Participants in this investigation were new lawyers who were admitted to the State Bar of Michigan in either November, 1999, or May, 2000. In cooperation with the State Bar of Michigan, data were collected through mailed surveys. A letter from the State Bar of Michigan identified the research purpose of this study. A total of 724 surveys were mailed, with 39 returned unopened for incorrect addresses. One hundred and forty-one completed surveys were returned, for a response rate of 20 percent. An inspection of the surveys revealed that 23 surveys needed to be discarded because participants were either solo practitioners, had been with the organization before becoming licensed for over 28 months, or they provided insufficient information, thus resulting in 118 useable surveys. Participation in the study was voluntary, and participants' responses are treated as confidential.

Participants were 53% males and 47% females in their late twenties ($M = 29.88$, $sd = 5.01$, median = 28.00). At the time of completing the survey, participants on average had been in the organization on average four months before receiving their bar license ($M = 3.94$, $sd = 5.55$, median = 2.0) and had been working as a licensed attorney in the organization for approximately 7 months ($M = 6.72$, $sd = 3.2$, median = 8.00). Participants were asked to reflect back upon their experiences during their recruitment and entrance into their current place of employment. In addition, participants also responded to questions regarding socialization practices of the State Bar of Michigan.

The questions specific to the State Bar of Michigan were related to customer service and were placed at the end of the survey. Responses to the State Bar questions were not included in any analysis for this study.

Survey Measures

This study used eight established scales to assess new hire source supportiveness, organizational recruitment effort, socialization content, socialization context, and organizational commitment. Responses to these Likert-type scales were arrayed from “to a very little extent” = 1 to “to a very great extent” = 5. The dimensionality of the scales was assessed through confirmatory factor analysis tests of internal and external consistency (Hunter, 1980; Hunter & Gerbing, 1982), with the test of external consistency showing appropriate levels of parallelism (sum of squared errors = 3.033; $X^2(502) = 276.03$, $p < .05$). Factor loadings and tests of scale dimensionality are reported in Table 1.

Source factors. In applying the Yale model to socialization approaches, source factors included source support measures and a measure of overall organizational recruitment effort.

Source support. Supervisor and coworker relationships were assessed using three sub-scales of the Managerial Practices Survey (Yukl, 1990). The five-item supervisor support scale assessed the degree to which participants felt their immediate supervisor “backed them up” and offered encouragement and support. A confirmatory factor analysis indicated the scale to be unidimensional and to have reliability of $\alpha = .94$. The six-item supervisor clarifying behavior scale assessed the degree to which supervisors explained responsibilities and tasks. Results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated the

Table 1

Primary Item Factor Loadings and Tests of Internal Consistency

Item	Factor Loading
<u>Supervisor Support</u>	
Your immediate supervisor is sympathetic and supportive when you are worried or upset about something.	.86
Your immediate supervisor backs you up and supports you in a difficult situation.	.84
Your immediate supervisor gives you encouragement and support when you have a difficult and stressful task or responsibility.	.86
Your immediate supervisor offers to provide advice or assistance when you need help with a difficult task or problem.	.90
Your immediate supervisor is patient and helpful when giving complicated explanations or instructions.	.90
$\chi^2 (10) = 1.21, p > .05$	
<u>Supervisor Clarifying Behavior</u>	
Your immediate supervisor clearly explains my responsibilities with regard to a task or project that you are doing for him/her.	.79
Your immediate supervisor clearly explains what results are expected for a task or project.	.86
Your immediate supervisor clearly specifies a date or time when a task I am doing for him or her is needed.	.91
Your immediate supervisor meets with me to set specific goals for a task or project that I doing with him or her.	.75
Your immediate supervisor sets task goals that are clear and specific (e.g., quantitative targets to be attained in the next quarter or year; activities to be completed by a given date).	.84
Your immediate supervisor explains what objectives or aspects of the work have the highest priority for him or her.	.83
$\chi^2 (15) = 3.73, p > .05$	
<u>Coworker Support</u>	
Your coworkers are sympathetic and supportive when you are worried or upset about something.	.79
Your coworkers back you up and support you in a difficult situation.	.86

Table 1 (con't).

Support continued

Your coworkers give you encouragement and support when you have a difficult and stressful task or responsibility.	.91
Your coworkers offer to provide advice or assistance when you need help with a difficult task or problem.	.75
Your coworkers are patient and helpful when giving complicated explanations or instructions.	.83
$\chi^2(10) = 2.89, p > .05$	

Organizational Goal Content

<i>(Perceptions of receiving messages pertaining to...)</i>	
The goals of your organization.	---
The values set by my organization.	.81
What a good representative of your organization would be like.	.90
The ideology of your organization.	.88
Your organization's mission.	.93
$\chi^2(6) = .39, p > .05$	

History

<i>(Perceptions of receiving messages pertaining to...)</i>	
The history behind your work unit.	.87
The organization's customs, rituals.	---
The organization's long-held traditions.	.87
The background of your work group/department.	.90
The history of your organization.	---
$\chi^2(3) = 0.0, p > .05$	

Collective/Formal Context

In the last six months, I have been extensively trained in common, job related activities.	.76
Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand job requirements.	.55
This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.	.51
Most of the training has been carried out apart from other newcomers.	---
There is a sense of "being in the same boat" amongst newcomers in this organization.	---

Table 1 (con't).

Collective/Formal Context continued

I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job-related skills.	.81
During training for this job, I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members.	---
I did not perform any of his or her normal job responsibilities until he or she is thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods.	---
Much of my job knowledge is acquired informally on a trial and error basis. (R)	---
I am very aware that I am seen as "learning the ropes" in this organization.	---
$\chi^2(6) = 2.20, p > .05$	

Investiture Context

I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.	---
Almost all of my colleagues support me personally.	.82
I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. (R)	.65
Colleagues go out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.	.73
I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations. (R)	.69
$\chi^2(6) = 3.38, p > .05$	

Organizational Effort

Recruiters receive at least one week of intensive training.	---
Recruitment forms identify several key traits deemed crucial to the firm's success, traits are defined in concrete terms and interviewer records specific evidence of each trait.	.79
Recruits are subjected to at least four in-depth interviews.	.65
Company actively facilitates de-selection during the recruiting process by revealing minuses as well as plusses.	.57
$\chi^2(3) = .05, p > .05$	

Table 1 (con't).

Affective Commitment

I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	.76
I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	.75
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	.54
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.	--
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)	.77
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)	.83
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.68
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)	.78
$\chi^2 (20) = 90, p > .05$	

scale to be unidimensional and to have reliability of $\alpha = .93$. The five-item coworker support scale assessed the degree to which participants perceived that their coworkers “backed them up” and offered encouragement and support. Results of confirmatory factor analysis indicated the scales to be unidimensional with a reliability of $\alpha = .91$.

Organizational recruitment effort. The four-item “recruiting practices” sub-scale of Pascale’s (1985) socialization instrument was used to assess the effort organizations placed on selecting qualified newcomers. The recruiting practices sub-scale was selected in particular because it refers to the effort organizations place on the choosing newcomers, or “receivers” of socialization experiences. Participants were asked to report the degree to which they perceived that their organization carefully recruited and selected new members. Results from confirmatory factor analysis directed the removal of one item. The remaining three items were found to be unidimensional and to have a reliability of $\alpha = .71$.

Message factors. Message factors were measured using indicators of socialization content messages received and the socialization context.

Socialization content. As noted earlier, of the six dimensions of socialization content, only organizational goals/values and organizational history were significantly related to job satisfaction (Chao et al., 1994). Given theoretical and empirical links between job satisfaction and commitment and given the necessity of brevity in the survey, slightly modified organizational goals/values and history sub-scales from Chao et al.’s (1994) Socialization Content instrument were used to assess the extent to which employees report receiving messages about organizational goals and organizational history during entry. Following Hart (1999), the wording of the original scale was

modified to reflect newcomers' perceptions of receiving such messages upon entry into the organization.

The five-item organizational goals/values scale measured the extent to which participants reported receiving messages about group, department, and organizational goals, values and ideology. After the removal of one item as indicated by the confirmatory factor analysis, the four remaining items in the scale were determined to be unidimensional and to have a reliability of $\alpha = .93$. The history scale assessed the extent to which participants reported receiving messages about work group and organizational history. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that two of the original five items be removed. The three remaining items were determined to be unidimensional and have a reliability of $\alpha = .91$.

Socialization context. Socialization context was measured using three five-item scales within Jones' (1986) socialization tactics instrument: collective, formal, and investiture tactics. As noted earlier, collective, formal, and investiture tactics have been shown to be strongly related to organizational commitment (Jones, 1986). Given the need for brevity in the survey instrument presented to research participants, only these three of six possible socialization tactic sub-scales were included in the survey.

Confirmatory factor analyses indicated that collective and formal tactics shared a common dimensionality. These scales were combined into one collective/formal scale. Analyses pointed to the removal of two items from the collective scale and four items from the formal scale, resulting in a combined four-item measure subsequently named the collective/formal scale. This newly formed scale was unidimensional and had a reliability of $\alpha = .75$. The dropped items did not form a unique scale and were not

included in subsequent analyses. Confirmatory factor analysis of the investiture tactics scale indicated the to be unidimensional after the removal of one item. Cronbach's alpha for this scale was $\alpha = .81$.

Organizational commitment. The participants' level of organizational commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer's (1990a) eight-item affective commitment scale. Confirmatory factor analysis indicated that one item needed to be removed. The remaining seven items were found to be unidimensional and have a reliability of $\alpha = .87$.

In light of the theoretical model and conceptual relationships among the socialization measures, a second order factor analysis was conducted (Hunter, 1980). In keeping with an application of the Yale model to socialization approaches, a source second order factor was hypothesized to be composed of supervisor support, supervisory clarifying behavior, and coworker support. A message second order factor was hypothesized to include goals and value messages, history messages, formal-collective tactics and investiture tactics. While theorized to be a source factor, an organization's recruitment effort was considered to be distinct from supportive and clarifying behaviors and was not included in the hypothesized second order factor. By definition, recruitment effort and commitment scales remained first order factors and were not hypothesized to contain second order dimensionality.

Results indicated partial support for a second order factor structure. Supervisor support, supervisor clarifying behavior, and coworker support scales had factor loadings of .75, .82, and .92, respectively, and formed a higher order factor, subsequently named source support ($X^2(3) = .05, p > .05$). This variable had a coefficient alpha of .87. In

addition, organizational goals and history scales had factor loadings of .79 and .79, respectively, and formed a second order factor, subsequently named message content ($\chi^2(1) = .00, p > .05$), with a reliability of $\alpha = .77$. However, the collective/formal scale and investiture scale were determined to be independent factors. Organizational recruitment effort and organizational commitment were also determined to be independent factors. A test of the revised second order factor structure indicated a good fit of the model to the data ($\chi^2(6) = 5.36, p > .05$). Thus, the final factors to be tested in the hypotheses and research questions were source support, message content, collective/formal tactics, investiture tactics, recruitment effort, and organizational commitment.

Chapter 3

RESULTS

Variable means, standard deviations, and correlations are reported in Table 2. The first hypothesis, that source factors (supervisory clarifying behavior, supervisory support, coworker support, and organizational recruitment efforts) would be positively related to commitment, was supported. Source support was significantly and positively related to organizational commitment ($r = .63, p < .01$). Recruitment effort was also significantly and positively related to organizational commitment ($r = .48, p < .01$).

The second hypothesis predicted that message factors (organizational goals/values, organizational history, collective/formal tactics, investiture tactics) would be positively related to commitment. This hypothesis was also supported. Message content (organizational goals/values and organizational history) was significantly and positively related to organizational commitment ($r = .51, p < .01$). Collective/formal tactics were significantly, positively related to organizational commitment ($r = .53, p < .05$). In addition, investiture tactics were significantly, positively related to organizational commitment ($r = .21, p < .05$).

The first research question inquired as to which socialization factors had the strongest relationship with organizational commitment. Results of stepwise multiple regression revealed that socialization source support ($\beta = .52$) and recruitment effort ($\beta = .22$) were significantly predictive of organizational commitment ($F(2, 102) = 38.82, p < .0001, R^2 = .43$). Other socialization factors did not enter into the equation at $p < .05$.

Table 2

Variable Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Matrix^a

Variable	M	sd	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Source Support	3.36	.98	--	.79	.64	.26	.64	.72
2. Message Content	3.13	1.06	.65	--	.64	.30	.79	.62
3. Collective/Formal	2.64	1.04	.64	.49	--	.33	.79	.66
4. Investiture Tactic	2.72	.51	.22	.24	.26	--	.26	.25
5. Recruitment Effort	2.64	1.04	.50	.50	.60	.22	--	.72
6. Commitment	3.26	1.08	.63	.51	.53	.21	.48	--

^aCorrelations above the diagonal are corrected for attenuation. $r \geq .22$ is $p < .05$ $r \geq .24$ is $p < .01$

The second research question explored the relationships among socialization factors as they pertained to newcomer organizational commitment. Given findings from the first research question that indicated that source support and recruitment effort were significant antecedents to organizational commitment, the researcher used Hunter's (1980; Hunter & Gerbing, 1982) path analytic technique to determine the relationship of content messages, collective/formal tactics, and investiture tactics to source support and effort. Exploratory modeling was guided by Jablin and Krone's (1987) notion that organizational messages (such as goals/values, and history) and socialization contexts (e.g., collective/formal and investiture tactics) impact newcomers in a distal manner. Newcomers pay more attention to proximal factors such as their relationships to their supervisors, and since messages and context contribute to perceptions of supervisory support, a model was created whereby content messages and socialization contexts predicated source support. In addition, the model included recruitment effort as predicting organizational commitment in keeping with the stepwise regression results.

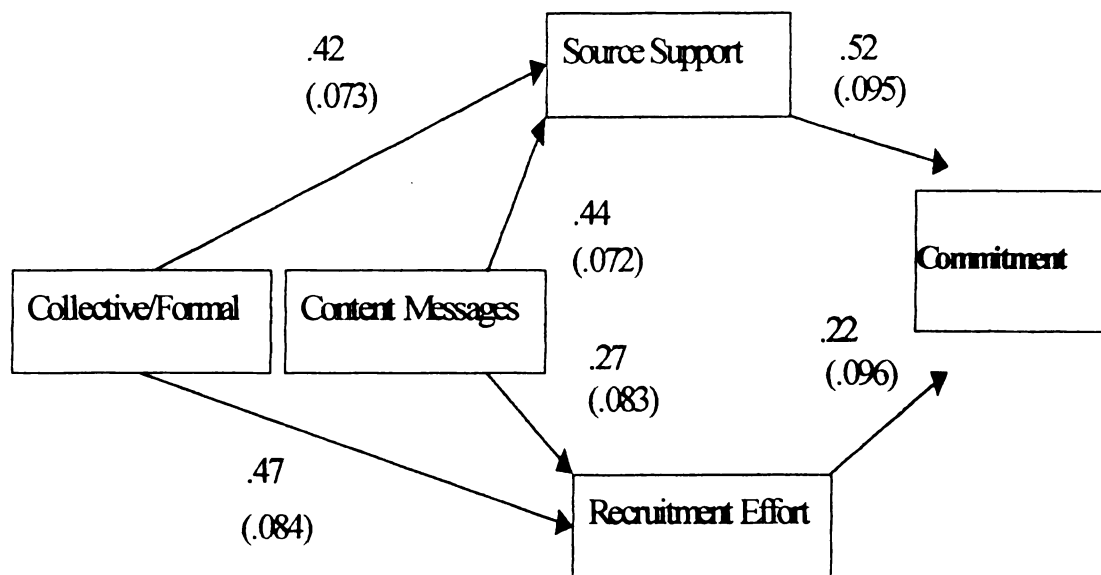
An initial test of the model described above indicated that collective/formal tactics and content messages (composed of organizational goal/values and history) predicted source support which, in turn, was predictive of organizational commitment. Organizational recruitment effort continued to predict organizational commitment. While this model produced an acceptable fit to the data (sum of squared errors = .0111; $\chi^2(4) = 5.55$, $p > .05$), results revealed two unaccounted for significant links. Namely, path analyses indicated that links from content messages and collective/formal tactics to recruitment effort were missing. In addition, analyses indicated that investiture was not significantly predictive of source support. Thus, investiture tactics were dropped from the

analyses.

A revised model was constructed that incorporated the above linkages. As indicated in Figure 1, results indicated significant paths from collective/formal tactics to source support and recruitment effort. Content messages were also significantly predictive of source support and recruitment effort. As before, paths between social support and recruitment effort to commitment were significant. The model was judged to have a good fit to the data (sum of squared errors = .0089; $\chi^2 (3) = .43$, $p > .05$).

Figure 1

Path Model of Socialization Antecedents to Organizational Commitment^a



^aAll path coefficients were significant at $p < .05$. Standard errors are reported in parentheses.

Chapter 4

DISCUSSION

While not all organizational socialization processes are effective or even functional (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), the general goal of socialization is to develop members who are committed to the organization and fulfill roles advancing the organization's mission. This study considers the current, popular approaches to socialization as framed by the Yale model in an effort to identify each approach's contributions to organizational commitment. Stiff (1994) states that, as participants in social systems, individuals are often in the process of "shaping, maintaining, and changing the thoughts and behaviors of those around us" (p. 24). Organizational socialization is then one way organizations may shape, maintain, and in some circumstances, change newcomers in an effort to meet organizational goals.

The findings of this study indicate that each approach outlined in our study was positively related to organizational commitment. In sum, supportive socialization agents, organizational efforts aimed at recruiting new employees, messages related to organizational goals and history, and collective/formal as well as investiture socialization contexts were positively related to new employee commitment. Findings also indicate that supportive supervisors and coworkers as socialization sources and recruitment effort are the best predictors of new employee commitment. Further, results suggest that structuring collective/formal socialization experiences and messages regarding organizational values/goals and history are vital elements in new hires' perceptions of the supportiveness of socialization agents and the organization's effort at recruitment.

The results of this study make three important contributions to our understanding of organizational socialization. First, this study offers one of the few comparisons of socialization approaches as they impact newcomers. As such, these results provide guidelines to those responsible for newcomers' entry experiences. Specifically, for the legal community, this study should shed light on how firms can retain sought-after professionals, thereby maximizing expensive recruitment and lengthy indoctrination periods.

How should executives allocate their resources in socializing new hires? Analyses suggest that organizations interested in developing organizational commitment should emphasize both the development of supportive source behaviors and careful selection of new members. With regard to the source supportiveness, the strongest predictor of organizational commitment, social relationships are critical in perception formation of new roles (Katz, 1980) and the influence of collective attitudes on individuals should not be overlooked (Stiff, 1994). Additionally, coworkers and supervisors often provide helpful messages during organizational entry (Jablin & Krone, 1987; Louis et al., 1983). Therefore, the relationship found between source supportiveness and commitment reaffirms the importance of organizations developing the interpersonal skills of their managers and subordinates.

It may be difficult, however, to simply create supportive managers and coworkers. Herein is the second contribution of this study-insight into the relationship among socialization approaches. If an organization wants to foster supportive relationships between socialization sources and newcomers, results suggest that both collective/formal socialization tactics and content messages about organizational goals/values and history

are significant predictors of source supportiveness. In short, structured socialization environments in which newcomers are collectively trained on specific tasks with prepared materials (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and receive messages about organizational goals/values and history (Chao et al., 1994) contribute to newcomers' perceptions that socialization agents are helpful and supportive. Newcomer observations of (and possible involvement in) formal/collective socialization settings, along with the expenditure of time and money on conveying messages about the organization, at the very least signal the importance of newcomer acclimation.

Finally, the organizational effort at recruitment also contributes to new hires' organizational commitment. Recruitment activities convey that the newcomer is highly sought after (i.e. prized) and thoroughly investigated. In turn, newcomers' commitment may be in reciprocation to such attention. In addition, carefully recruited newcomers are indeed a better fit to the organization than those who are not carefully screened and/or who are not exposed to realistic job previews. Chatman (1990) suggests that a rigorous selection process increases the likelihood of enlisting employees who share organizational values, which in turn enhances person-organizational fit.

For organizations that would like to enhance the perceptions of socialization effort at recruitment, the findings of this study also present a dilemma. Specifically, path analytic results indicated that collective/formal socialization settings along with organizational messages about goals and history lead to increased perceptions of organizational effort at recruitment. On one hand, it is possible that new hires perceive socialization message factors such as collective/formal tactics and organizational goal/values and history messages as the impetus for strenuous recruiting efforts toward

themselves and others. As such, socialization message factors and recruiting efforts reflect the organization's values and assimilation philosophy. On the other hand, the temporal displacement where recruiting efforts precede socialization contexts and messages in reality, but not in the path model, points to anomalous covariations. In the latter case, linkages between organizational goals/values and history and collective/formal tactics to recruiting efforts should be considered tenuous.

In general, results of this study suggest that resources be spent on creating structured entry experiences for new hires, during which organizational goals/values and historical information about the organization and workgroup can be conveyed to new members. Both of these activities should promote perceptions of source support that, in turn, directly lead to enhanced organizational commitment.

Limitations

One motivation for organizations to perfect their socialization practices is the desire to enhance the general "effectiveness" of new employees. However, due in part to the complexity of entry experiences, organizational priorities, and program evaluation, for some time in the future "the actual effect of programs on recruits will remain unknown, and there will be no clearly established linkage between programs and outcomes" (Laker & Steffy, 1995, p. 105). Therefore, while organizational commitment reflects an affective bond with an organization and is undoubtedly desirable to organizations, it only begins to encompass possible parameters of performance effectiveness.

A second limitation of this study is the use of single-source, retrospective data. Although the method of data collection provided information on a variety of legal

organizations, this method relies entirely on participants' recollection of events. It would be helpful, for example, to obtain organizational reports of recruitment practices or collective/formal entry experiences. Such data would avoid the limitations of retrospective, subjective data.

Another limitation resides in the use of stepwise regression to investigate the first research question. In stepwise regression the first variable entering the equation, source support in this sample, is determined by the strongest bivariate correlation with the dependent variable. The next variable to enter the regression is determined by the correlations between the other independent variables and the dependent variable, partialling out the effects from the first independent variable entered into the equation (Agresti & Finlay, 1997). Given the modest sample in this study and that four of five independent variables are moderately correlated with organizational commitment, it is possible that the stepwise regression capitalizes on chance covariations in this particular sample. Consequently, it is important that results suggesting that socialization context and messages are antecedents of recruitment effort be viewed with extreme caution. It is also important for future research to explore the interplay of the various socialization approaches with additional samples in order to investigate further the unique results of this study.

As previously noted, the interpretation of the results of this study is also limited by the lack of a temporal component in data collection. Future investigations should attempt to assess new employee perceptions of recruitment immediately following entry into the firm or gather such data from managers who may be in a better position to judge organizational recruitment efforts. Researchers should also consider staggering the

measurement of socialization context and messages apart from the assessment of socialization outcomes. By measuring context and messages shortly following entry and outcomes such as organizational commitment some months later (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990b), researchers may be able to overcome logical and empirical criticisms of concurrent survey measures.

Future Research

In general, socialization research has done little to explore the communicative nature of socialization. Despite the obvious notion that newcomers rely upon formal and informal communication to make sense of new roles (Jablin, 1987), much development in this area is needed. As mentioned earlier, some research has investigated information-seeking tactics by newcomers (Ashford, 1986; Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), but not information-giving by organizations. Jablin (1987) notes that "... while there is a considerable amount of theoretical speculation as to the purposes of the (unsolicited) messages that newcomers receive from their supervisors during the encounter [breaking-in] period, almost no empirical research has directly explored the issue" (p. 700). Consequently, future research should expand investigations into messages sent to and/or received by newcomers. Chao et al.'s (1994) identification of socialization content areas appears to be a fruitful place to begin.

Future research should also consider applying additional aspects of the Yale model to socialization research. For instance, this investigation did not consider receiver factors. To Whom, the third component of the Yale model, typically depicts the individual characteristics of receivers, and classic investigations examine how individual

differences such as personality characteristics and individual motives influence the acceptance of persuasive messages (Hovland & Janis, 1959). For example, newcomer self-efficacy (Jones, 1996) or diversity (Jackson, Stone, & Alvarez, 1992) could be considered influential receiver characteristics and may provide insight into how receptive certain newcomers are to programs aimed at building commitment. Future research should also consider shifting from cross-sectional survey samples to more quasi-experimental explorations of the influence of socialization approaches on individual adjustment outcomes. One of the enduring legacies of Hovland's research has been the effort at controlling for extraneous variables through experimental designs. Researchers investigating the effectiveness of socialization approaches should consider evaluating explicit messages under controlled conditions, similar to the experimental designs utilized in persuasion research (Fotheringham, 1966). Further refinement in source and message conditions may enable researchers to consider the credibility of certain sources conveying specific types of messages to new hires, which has been at times questioned in discussions of organizational socialization (Zurcher, 1983).

In addition, the majority of socialization research has assumed that all members have equal access to all formal and informal networks, thereby implying that all newcomers are socialized uniformly (Allen, 2000). The assumption that all employees can communicate or are communicated with equally implies that no discrimination or biases ever exist in an organization. Following Allen (2000), future research should explore the impact of race, gender, and ethnicity on the availability of socialization sources for new hires. Research might also consider the forms by which support is conveyed to different sets of employees within an organization as support efforts may be

construed differently from group to group. Furthermore, to maximize organizational socialization efforts, no set of newcomers should be systematically excluded from the activities that are pivotal to learning and adjusting to new roles.

REFERENCES

REFERENCES

Adkins, C. L. (1995). Previous work experience and organizational socialization: A longitudinal examination. Academy of Management Journal, 38, 839-862.

Agresti, A. & Finlay, B. (1997). Statistical methods for the social sciences (3rd.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Allen, B. (2000). "Learning the ropes": A black feminist critique. In P.M. Buzzanell (Ed.), Rethinking organizational and managerial communication from feminist perspectives (pp. 177-208). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1990a). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63, 1-18.

Allen, N. J. & Meyer, J. P. (1990b). Organizational socialization tactics: A longitudinal analysis of links to newcomers' commitment and role orientation. Academy of Management Journal, 33, 847-858.

Anakwe, U. P., & Greenhaus, J. H. (1999). Effective socialization of employees: Socialization content perspective. Journal of Managerial Issues, 11, 315-329.

Ashford, S. J. (1986). Feedback-seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. Academy of Management Journal, 29, 465-487.

Ashford, B. E., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. Academy of Management Journal, 39, 149-178.

Ashforth, B. E., Saks, A. M., & Lee, R. T. (1998). Socialization and newcomer adjustment: the role of organizational context. Human Relations, 51, 897-927.

Bauer, T. N. & Green, S. G. (1994). The effect of newcomer involvement in work-related activities: A longitudinal study of socialization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 211-223.

Bauer, T. N. & Green, S. G. (1998). Testing the combined effects of newcomer information seeking and manager behavior of socialization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 72-83.

Bauer, T. N., Morrison, E. W., & Callister, R. R. (1998). Organizational socialization: A review and directions for future research. Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management, 16, 149-214.

Black, J. S. (1992). Socializing American expatriate managers overseas: Tactics, tenure, and role innovation. Group and Organization Management, 17, 171-192.

Brim, O. G., Jr. (1966). Socialization through the life cycle. In O. G. Brim, Jr., & S. Wheeler, (Eds.), Socialization after childhood: Two essays (pp. 1-49). New York: Wiley.

Caldwell, D. F., Chatman, J. A., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1990). Building organizational commitment: A multifirm study. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63, 245-261.

Chao, G. T., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Wolf, S., Klein, H. J., & Gardner, P. D. (1994). Organizational socialization: its content and consequences. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 730-743.

Chatman, J. A. (1991). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. Administrative Science Quarterly, 36, 459-484.

Cohen, A. (1999). Relationships among five forms of commitment: An empirical assessment. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20, 285-308.

Fotheringham, W. C. (1966). Perspectives on persuasion. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Gordon, T. (1955). Group centered leadership. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Hart, Z. (1999). Communication during organizational socialization. Unpublished dissertation proposal, Michigan State University, May, 1999.

Hart, Z., & Miller, V. D. (1999). Three competing models of communication during organizational socialization. Paper presented at the 85th annual meeting of the National Communication Association, Chicago, IL.

Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L. (Eds.). (1959). Personality and persuasibility. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). Communication and persuasion. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Hovland, C. I., Lumsdaine, A. A., & Sheffield, F. D. (1949). Experiments on mass communication. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Hovland, C. I. & Mandell, W. (1957). Is there a "Law of Primacy in Persuasion"? In C.I. Hovland (Ed.) The order of presentation in persuasion (pp. 13-22). New Haven: Yale University Press.

Hunter, J. E. (1980). Factor analysis. In P. M. Monge & J. N. Cappella (Eds.), Multivariate techniques in human communication research (pp. 229-258). New York: Academic Press.

Hunter, J. E., & Gerbing, D. W. (1982). Unidimensional measurement, second order factor analysis, and causal models. Research in Organizational Behavior, 4, 267-320.

Jablin, F. M. (1987). Organizational entry, assimilation, and exit. In F. M. Jablin, L. L. Putnam, K. H. Roberts, & L. W. Porter (Eds.), Handbook of organizational communication (pp. 679-740). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Jablin, F. M., & Krone, K. J. (1987). Organizational assimilation. In C. R. Berger & S. H. Chaffee (Eds.), Handbook of communication science (pp. 137-163). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Jackson, S. E., Stone, V. K., & Alvarez, E. B. (1992). Socialization amidst diversity: The impact of demographics on work team oldtimers and newcomers. Organizational Behavior, 15, 45-109.

Janis, I., & Feshback, S. (1953). Effects of fear-arousing communications. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 48, 78-92.

Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics. Self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustments to organizations. Academy of Management Journal, 29, 262-279.

Katz, R. (1980). Time and work: Toward an integrative perspective. Research in Organizational Behavior, 2, 81-127.

Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. Personnel Psychology, 49, 1-49.

Laker, D. R., & Steffy, B. D. (1995). The impact of alternative socialization tactics of self-managing behavior and organizational commitment. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 10, 645-660.

Louis, M. R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: what newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. Administrative Science Quarterly, 25, 226-251.

Louis, M. R., Posner, B. Z., Powell, G. N. (1983). The availability and helpfulness of socialization practices. Personnel Psychology, 36, 857-866.

Major, D. A., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Chao, G. T., & Gardner, P. D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 418-431.

Miller, V. D. (1996). An experimental study of newcomers' information sending behaviors during organizational entry. Communication Studies, 47, 1-24.

Miller, V. D., Harden Fritz, J., & Hart, Z. (1999). Introducing communication assessments into organizational socialization survey-based investigations. Paper presented at the 85th annual meeting of the National Communication Association, Chicago, IL.

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: influences, tactics, and a model of the process. Academy of Management Review, 16, 92-120.

Morrison, E. W. (1993). Longitudinal study of the effects of information seeking on newcomer socialization. Journal of Applied Psychology, 78, 173-183.

Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. W. J., (1992). Organizational socialization as a learning process: The role of information acquisition. Personnel Psychology, 45, 849-874.

Pascale, R. (1985). The paradox of corporate culture: Reconciling ourselves to socialization. California Management Review, 27, 26-40.

Reardon, K. K. (1981). Persuasion: Theory and context. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Organizational socialization: making sense of the past of present as a prologue for the future. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51, 234-279.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. Administrative Science Quarterly, 23, 224-253.

Schein, E. (1968). Organizational socialization and the profession management. Industrial Management Review, 9, 1-16.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40, 437-453.

Stiff, J. B. (1994). Persuasive communication. New York: Guilford Press.

Stohl, C. (1986). The role of memorable messages in the process of organizational socialization. Communication Quarterly, 34, 231-249.

Van Maanen, J. & Schein, E. H. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. Research in Organizational Behavior, 1, 209-264.

Yukl, G. P. (1990). Managerial Practices Survey. New York: Author and Manus Associates.

Zurcher, L. A. (1983). Social roles: Conformity, conflict and creativity. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES



3 1293 02092 8788