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Enhancing the effective socialization of employees: A theoretical framework and empirical investigation

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Drexel University, 1994

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Enhancing The Effective Socialization of Employees: A Theoretical

Framework and Empirical Investigation

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of

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by

Uzoamaka P. Anakwe

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ABSTRACT

Enhancing The Effective Socialization of Employees: A Theoretical

Framework and Empirical Investigation.

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The purpose of the research was to develop and test empirically a model of socialization effectiveness. The model consists of four antecedent variables (socialization tactics, job scope, prior work experience, and self-monitoring) and six indicators of socialization effectiveness (task mastery, work group functioning, knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, personal learning, and role clarity). The antecedents were based on the literature in organizational socialization and related areas. The indicators were based on the socialization content or information imparted to newcomers during the socialization process. The socialization content focused on four major content areas (task, group, organization, and role) identified in the socialization literature.

Questionnaires were administered at the company premises and through internal company mail to 200 employees who were participants of a central career development program of a Fortune 200 company and have been with the organization for between three months and three years. Surveys were also mailed to their respective supervisors. One hundred and seventy eight employees and their respective supervisors responded to the survey with a response rate of 89%. Data from 131 respondents still in the program at the time the surveys were administered were used in the present analyses.

Four main hypotheses were tested using correlational and regression analyses. There was partial support for hypotheses 1 and 2; most of the predicted relationships in hypothesis 3 were not supported and only one of the predicted relationships for hypothesis 4 was supported. However, additional analyses revealed interactions between socialization tactics and job scope, thereby providing support for the relationships between some antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness. The relationships between some antecedents and indicators of effective socialization were different for male and female employees.

The findings of the study reveal that socialization is a complex process as indicated by simple and moderated relationships found between socialization tactics and effective socialization.

In conclusion, the study provides greater insight into the socialization process by identifying several factors that contribute to effective socialization. However, the findings for the study emphasize the need for further empirical work with multiple methodologies to understand the complexity of the socialization process.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Socialization is a continuous process "by which persons acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that make them more or less able members of their society" (Brim, 1966, p. 3). Socialization, at any age, is a twofold process that must be viewed from both an individual and a group point of view (Clausen, 1968). From a group perspective, socialization is the mechanism by which new members acquire the values, norms, knowledge, beliefs, and the interpersonal and other skills that facilitate role performance and further group goals. From an individual perspective, socialization is a process of learning to participate in social life. The process does not include all changes in personality and behavior that may occur due to biological change and decline or to personal idiosyncratic experiences, but only to the learning that is relevant to social behavior and/or role enactment (Mortimer & Simmons, 1978). Any interactional system such as an organization requires minimally stable and predictable behaviors on the part of all participants that must be learned or initially developed over time. Every organization has its norms, values, or more generally, its own culture that influence the processes through which it pursues and achieves its goals and objectives. For any individual to function or prosper in the organization, he or she has to learn these acceptable ways of doing things. This means that the individual has to be socialized into the organization. As Schein (1978) stated, factors such as employee loyalty, commitment, productivity, and turnover can be determined by the speed and effectiveness of organizational socialization. Hence, the basic stability and effectiveness of organizations depend upon their ability to socialize new members.

The construct of socialization has been developed and researched extensively in the social sciences and developmental psychology. Feldman (1976) maintained that the vast majority of research in socialization was on childhood socialization. He noted that the research that has been conducted on adult socialization has included largely descriptive work on the ways adult socialization differs from childhood socialization (e.g., Brim, 1966), conceptual work on resocialization activities in prisons and mental hospitals (e.g., Goffman, 1961; Wheeler, 1961), and theoretical work on occupational and professional socialization (Becker, Geer, Hughes, & Strauss, 1961). During the past two decades, a rapidly expanding literature has appeared in organizational behavior, management, and related disciplines pertaining to the processes of socialization in organizations. A number of authors have advanced conceptual models concerning the socialization and resocialization processes that occur following newcomer entry into the organization (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Brett, 1984; Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976, 1981; Graen, 1976; Jones, 1983; Katz, 1980; Louis, 1980a; Nicholson, 1984; Reichers, 1987; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1977; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1980). A common focus of some of these models is on the experiences of the individuals as they go through the socialization process from a naive outsider to a participating member of the organization. The researchers suggest that successful adjustment in the organization will depend on how successful employees are in progressing through the different stages of socialization and achieving outcomes such as satisfaction and feelings of personal worth (Feldman, 1976) or commitment (Buchanan, 1974). The literature on organizational socialization has generated much theoretical work, yet there is limited empirical research to test or ground these conceptual models. Much of the research on organizational socialization has focused mainly in two areas: (1) the socialization process, and (2) socialization tactics and individual responses to socialization efforts.

The socialization process has been conceptualized as a sequence of stages which newcomers go through on their way to becoming insiders. For example, several stage models (Bourne, 1967; Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976, 1981; Katz, 1980; Merton, 1957; Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous,

1980), while not identical in the numbers or names of stages, indicate that the newcomer socialization experience is a progression of at least three stages : anticipatory, encounter, and change and acquisition. The "anticipatory" stage involves all learning which occurs before the newcomer joins the organization (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Merton, 1957; Porter et al., 1975; Schein, 1968; Van Maanen, 1976). During this period, outsiders develop expectations about their life in the organization and on the job. Once employed, the individual passes from outsider to newcomer and enters the "encounter" stage. During this stage, newcomers' anticipations are tested against the reality of their new work experiences. As Louis (1980a) stated, coping with such differences and "learning the ropes" of the new setting typically occupy the newcomer for the first 6 to 10 months on the job. The newcomers are concerned with basic activities such as learning the tasks of the new job, clarifying roles, and establishing new relationships. In the final stage, change and acquisition, newcomers attempt to master the demands of the new job. This stage completes the transition process as the newcomer "learns the ropes" or becomes proficient in the performance of task role and interpersonal requirements (cf. Nelson, 1987), and is concerned with outcomes such as commitment and satisfaction. Empirical studies validating the stage models are sparse. Only two of the stage models - Buchanan (1974) and Feldman (1976) - have been investigated empirically (Wanous & Colella, 1989).

The second area of investigation relating to organizational socialization concerns the tactics that organizations use to socialize newcomers and the responses of newcomers to these efforts (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). Socialization tactics have been used interchangeably with socialization strategies and socialization practices to describe "the ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organizations" (Van Maanen, 1978, p. 230). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed a comprehensive predictive theory of how the socialization tactics used by the organization can affect role outcomes. This model has been validated empirically by Jones (1986). Other studies that have built on Jones (1986) and extended the model (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; Baker, 1988; Feldman & Weitz, 1990; Zahrly & Tosi, 1989) will be discussed in the next chapter.

While literature on organizational socialization is rich in descriptive accounts and potential useful frameworks for future empirical study, research has been fragmented, largely nonempirical, and much less productive than one might have expected (Fisher, 1986). Other areas have also contributed to research in organizational socialization. For instance, Louis (1980a, 1980b) developed a model of career transition and newcomer sense making. She focused on the psychological processes that account for the changes newcomers undergo through their socialization process. Reichers (1987) emphasized the importance of interaction between insiders and newcomers in understanding and making sense of organizational reality. Brett (1984) proposed a model of adaptation, Feldman and Brett (1983) contrasted the coping strategies used by new hires and job changers; Nicholson (1984) and Dawis and Lofquist (1984) concentrated on work role transition, and Ashford and Taylor (1990) developed a model of job transition. Louis (1980a), Schein (1978), and Fisher (1986) emphasized the importance of socialization content to organizational socialization but did not conduct empirical investigations of the phenomenon.

The importance of effective socialization has been acknowledged (Schein, 1978) and factors that contribute to effective socialization have been identified (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Katz, 1980; Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983), but the outcomes of interest in these works have been : (1) mode of adjustment (as per socialization and work role transition literature), and (2) degree of adjustment (as per relocation and sense making literature) (Black et al., 1991). Some of the studies have examined the relationship between socialization and some individual and organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and intention to remain. The success of the 'entire' socialization process was determined by how successful the newcomers are in achieving these outcomes. However, the newcomers' success through the socialization process was determined on a stage by stage basis. This means that different variables are indicative of success or failure at different stages of the socialization process which implies that there are distinct socialization stages, although the two stage models that have been validated empirically (Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976) could not establish distinct

socialization stages. Conceptually, how successful the newcomers are in "learning the ropes" of the organization cannot be assessed by variables such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment. Instead, the focus should be on determining how successful the employees are in acquiring the information imparted to them during the socialization process.

This study maintains that the socialization content or information imparted to newcomers upon entry into the organization does not change substantially throughout the socialization process. Every new employee is expected to learn the requirements of his or her new job, learn to function within his or her work group and learn the culture of the organization. As the employee goes through the socialization process, his or her proficiency in accomplishing these tasks might increase over time but the type of information that the newcomer needs to acquire to become a participating member of the organization does not necessarily change under normal conditions. This suggests that how successful the newcomers are at any time through the socialization process can be determined by a uniform set of measures. Meanwhile, no study has focused on developing a comprehensive set of outcomes to determine how effective the socialization process is in organizations (Fisher, 1986).

This study will focus on effective socialization in the work place. It will contribute to the literature by developing multiple measures (task mastery, functioning within the work group, knowledge and acceptance of organization's pivotal norms and values, personal learning, and role clarity) of effective socialization relative to the socialization process. The study provides a starting point and an organized framework that organizations can use to evaluate directly the success or failure of the "entire" socialization process. It can provide answers that will promote effective human resource planning. Since every new entrant into an organization goes through a socialization process, it is important for organizations to understand how they can facilitate the effective socialization of new employees. When employees are effectively socialized, their job performance and satisfaction will be enhanced, they will be committed to the organization and will have less intention to quit.

In summary, this study will contribute to empirical research in the organizational socialization literature. It will develop a uniform or consistent set of measures for the evaluation of the socialization process. The socialization process is identified as the main focus in determining the effectiveness of the socialization process. The dimensions of effective socialization that will be used for the study are consistent with the conceptual definition of organizational socialization. On a general note, this study will contribute to the current need for better understanding of organizational processes in organizational behavior research (Staw, 1984).

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to examine a comprehensive set of factors which determine the effectiveness of the socialization process. By determining the factors that contribute to effective socialization, along with the measures of the effectiveness of the socialization process, this study provides insight into an issue that has not received much empirical investigation. As Zahrly and Tosi (1989) stated, factors which influence socialization have rarely been included in the models of organizational socialization. The importance of previous work experiences, early organizational experiences, and personal factors to early work adjustment were emphasized (Nicholson, 1984), and investigated (Zahrly & Tosi, 1989). However, adjustment to work was assessed by factors such as job satisfaction, role conflict, role ambiguity, cohesion, influence, and work/family conflict (Zahrly & Tosi, 1989). The relationships of organizational factors, prior work experience factors, and personal factors with effective socialization will be investigated in the present study.

Organizational factors. The impact of organizational factors on effective socialization will be studied. As Fisher (1986) stated, structural factors of the situation (aspects of the socialization setting and aspects of the role itself) affect the nature and effectiveness of socialization, as do the behaviors of socialization agents and the individual's own motivation. Varying socialization tactics have been found to result in different role outcomes such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and role orientation (Allen & Meyer, 1990;

Jones, 1986). As Feldman (1976) observed, the impact of the job environment, job duties, and supervisors on new recruits has been demonstrated (Dunnette, Arvey, & Banas, 1973; Gommersall & Myers, 1966; Schein, 1964). However, none of the studies focused on the prediction of effective socialization, but rather emphasized the importance of providing an environment conducive to newcomers' successful adaptation in the organization.

Prior work experience factors. Through this research, the impact of prior work experience on effective socialization will also be investigated. Prior work experience has become a discriminating tool in the recruitment and selection process. Previously, different forms of work experience have been studied in relation to how they ease the pre-entry of the individuals into the organization. They also have been studied in relation to their effect on various behavioral and attitudinal variables (Feldman & Weitz, 1990). But few of these studies have considered the impact of work experience on the "entire" socialization process or how these work experiences can combine with other organizational and personal factors to affect the effectiveness of the socialization process. By using a sample of employees with varying degrees of prior work experience, this study will investigate empirically the effect of prior work experience on effective socialization.

Personal factors. The traditional socialization literature has been criticized for treating the organizational and personal factors that can affect the socialization process as mutually exclusive (Bell & Staw, 1989). But socialization of newcomers has to be looked upon as a two-way process where the individual can be both the sculpture and the sculptor (Porter et al., 1975; Schein, 1978), where some individual characteristics can affect the socialization experience. The interactionist perspective (Chatman, 1989; Jones, 1983) emphasizes the importance of organizational and personal factors to newcomer socialization. Jones (1986) found self-efficacy to moderate the relationship between socialization tactics and newcomer socialization. There is a paucity of studies investigating the main effect or the moderating effect of personal factors on newcomer socialization. Thus, the importance of personal factors in achieving effective socialization represents one set of variables to be investigated.

Several dimensions of effective socialization will be generated from the socialization literature. In order to assess the effectiveness of the socialization process,

determining how successful newcomers are in mastering the socialization content becomes important. Louis describes the socialization content as "what is being imparted to the newcomer during the socialization process" (1980a, p. 229). Socialization content refers to the information the organization requires or expects the newcomer to learn in order to become a participating member. Organizations expect their new employees to learn the tasks of their new jobs, learn how to function within their work groups, learn the organizational culture, and accept the organization's pivotal norms and values.

The framework for this study is a conceptual model (Figure 1) specifying the relationships of organizational, prior work experience, and personal factors, with dimensions of effective socialization. In developing this model, the literature on socialization and other related areas is drawn upon to address the following two questions : (1) What are the dimensions of socialization effectiveness?; and (2) What factors contribute to the effective socialization of employees?

Insert Figure 1 About Here

Definition of Organizational Socialization

Organizational socialization is broadly defined as the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role. The process may vary widely for different roles - ranging from a relatively quick, self-guided, trial-and-error process to one far more elaborate, requiring a lengthy preparation period of education and training followed by an equally extensive period of official apprenticeship. If one accepts the notion that learning itself is a continuous and life-long process, the entire organizational career of an individual can be characterized as a socialization process (Van Maanen, 1977). Focusing on a particular role, organizational socialization refers minimally, though not exclusively, to the way in which an individual is

taught and learns what behaviors and perspectives are acceptable and desirable within the work setting as well as those that are not (Schein & Van Maanen, 1979). Consistent with Brim (1966), Van Maanen (1976), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979), Louis defined socialization as the "process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member" (1980a, pp. 229-230). In taking a new role, the newcomer must also "learn the ropes," as socialization is frequently termed by those going through it. Learning the ropes is necessary in each new organizational culture, since by definition, cultures differ between organizations, and even between roles within the same organization (Van Maanen, 1977).

According to Caplow, socialization is "an organizationally directed process that prepares and qualifies individuals to occupy organizational positions" (1964, p. 169). Schein (1988) stated that the concept of socialization is most useful because it focuses distinctly on the interaction between a stable social system and the new members who join it. The concept refers to the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group being entered. It does not include all learning. It includes only those values, norms, and behavior patterns which, from the organization's point of view, are necessary for any new member to acquire. This learning is defined as the price of membership. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) pointed out that socialization occurs whenever an individual changes roles or "crosses a boundary" in the organization. The most noticeable socialization usually occurs with the transition from nonmember to organization member, but some socialization also takes place when individuals are transferred or promoted especially from a non-managerial to a managerial role. Finally, Feldman defines organizational socialization as the "process by which employees are transformed from organization outsiders to participating and effective members" (1981, p. 309).

The above definitions reflect the relatively broad topic of organizational socialization. Feldman (1981) states that because organizational socialization cuts across several other areas of research in organizational behavior, it has been defined in almost as

many ways as there are researchers in the area, and the aspects of the transformation process that are included varies greatly among authors. For example, Brim (1966) looks at the role of significant others in instilling desired behaviors through rewards and punishment. "Van Maanen (1975) focuses on the relinquishing of pre-existing attitudes, values, and behaviors. Caplow (1964) emphasizes the acquisition of new self-images and involvements, and Schein (1968) stresses the learning of organizational goals and rules" (Feldman, 1981, p. 309).

While there is some variation in the exact definition of organizational socialization, as Feldman (1976) noted, there is widespread agreement on its three most salient characteristics: (1) the process is seen generally as being continuous; it does not occur at any one point, but is achieved gradually and over time (Brim, 1966; Erikson, 1950); (2) organizational socialization always involves change (Caplow, 1964; Schein, 1968; Van Maanen, 1972); and (3) socialization is a two-way process involving both individuals and organizations (Goslin, 1969; Porter et al., 1975).

Definition of Effective Socialization

Effective socialization has rarely been defined in the socialization literature, except for Wanous who stated that "effective socialization usually means that the newcomer has changed some basic attitudes and beliefs that suggest an internal commitment to the organization, rather than just compliance with organization practices" (1980, p. 171). Wanous provides a narrow definition of effective socialization that focuses on the internal processes of the individual and not on the socialization process. He considers effective socialization to be synonymous with organizational commitment. According to Fisher, "defining outcomes is a critical need as the effectiveness of a socialization process, program, or model cannot be evaluated without sound, relevant criteria" (1986, p. 110). While effective socialization has not been defined specifically in some cases (e.g., Feldman, 1980, 1981; Schein, 1978), it has been used interchangeably with other related constructs, such as effective adaptation (Fletcher, 1991; Louis, 1980a).

In this study, effective socialization is conceptualized as the primary "outcome" of the socialization process that will enhance the achievement of individual and organizational outcomes. The organization teaches the newcomer the skills of the new job, the norms and values or organizational culture that guide behavior and enhance the newcomer's performance. This information is transmitted through different socialization programs and informal processes. Effective socialization is the criterion through which the success of the organization's socialization programs and the newcomer's success through the entire socialization process is evaluated. It reflects both organizational and individual perspectives.

From the organizational perspective, the organization can assess how successful it is in teaching new employees the requirements of their jobs. The individual can determine how proficient he or she is in learning and adjusting to the requirements of the organization. For both the organization and the individual, effective socialization is both a control and feedback mechanism and can be characterized as diagnostic. Effective socialization is operationalized by determining how successful newcomers are in mastering the tasks of the new job, learning to function within the work group, learning and accepting the organizational culture, learning more about the self, and achieving role clarity.

In a general way, effective socialization reflects success of the entire socialization process. This entails the identification of a uniform set of variables that can be used to determine how successful employees are in going through the socialization process as well as completing it. This is different from the stage approach. According to the stage models, newcomers have to deal with different tasks at different stages of their stay in the organization. For instance, Feldman (1976) distinguished between successful and complete socialization process. He maintained that successful socialization can be determined at any stage during the socialization process by assessing how proficiently newcomers are accomplishing the tasks of a particular stage. On the other hand, complete socialization can only be determined at the completion of the final stage of the socialization process such that successful completion of the tasks of the last stage of socialization reflects complete socialization. This implies that different sets of variables are used to indicate

success or failure through the entire socialization process. But with effective socialization, the same set of variables will be used to measure success or failure at any time during the socialization process. The construct of effective socialization is based on the rationale that the socialization content - the information imparted to every newcomer - is similar at different stages. As such proficiency in the acquisition of the socialization content greatly affects how effectively the newcomer is socialized keeping time constant.

In summary, effective socialization means that the newcomer's progress through the socialization process or the newcomer's completion of the socialization process is successful; he or she is acquiring or has acquired the necessary skills and appropriate behavior necessary to become a participating member of the organization. This suggests that the newcomer is undergoing changes or has undergone changes that are consistent with the requirements of the organization and his or her self-identity. Effective socialization is not restricted to newcomer entry. It can apply to any organizational transition where the requirements of the new job are identifiable and can be evaluated.

Research Goals

In summary, the research goals of this study are to:

1). Develop measures of effective socialization.

2). Examine the impact of organizational factors, prior work experience factors, and personal factors on effective socialization.

Summary

This chapter presented an overview of research in the organizational socialization area, identified the gaps in the literature, discussed the potential contributions of the study, provided the rationale, and stated the purpose of the study. Two research questions were specified: (1) What are the dimensions of socialization effectiveness?; and (2) What factors

contribute to the effective socialization of employees? Organizational socialization and effective socialization were defined, and three research goals were identified.

Chapter 2

MODEL DEVELOPMENT

This chapter is organized into two main sections. The first section presents the theoretical and conceptual basis for the development of a model of socialization effectiveness. In the second section, the model is presented, and the hypotheses are developed.

Theories of Organizational Socialization

The theoretical approaches to the study of organizational socialization are quite diverse. Organizational socialization has been discussed from a variety of perspectives including socialization stages (e.g., Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976, 1981; Wanous, 1980), socialization tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) person-situation interactionism (Jones, 1983), newcomer sense making (Louis, 1980a), social learning theory (Weiss, 1977), symbolic interactionism (Reichers, 1987), group development (Wanous, Reichers, & Malik, 1984), and stress (Nelson, 1987; Nelson & Sutton, 1990). Depending on the perspective used, there is substantial variation in the conceptualization of what constitutes organizational socialization, the newcomer's role in the process, and the causal variables considered to be of greatest importance.

The different theoretical perspectives in the study of organizational socialization seem to be based on some fundamental adult socialization theory. For instance, Feldman's (1976, 1981) and Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) models are based on contemporary role theory while Weiss's (1977) social learning theory approach is based on identification

theory. As Mortimer and Simmons (1978) stated, in contemporary role theory (Brim, 1966; Merton, 1957; Turner, 1974, pp. 160-76), socialization is seen as a process of acquisition of appropriate norms, attitudes, values, and role behaviors that facilitate an individual's acceptance in the group and effective performance of new roles. The individual learns mainly through interaction with significant others and observation of reference groups. (See Mortimer & Simmons, 1978 for discussion of other adult socialization theories.)

The stage models are based on role theory, while socialization content is based on both role theory and symbolic interactionist theory. In building a model of socialization effectiveness, two theoretical approaches - socialization stages and socialization content - will be discussed.

Socialization Stages

One of the dominant approaches in the literature on organizational socialization is the stage approach. The stages comprising a model can be defined in two basic ways ": (1) stages may be based on the passage of time, or (2) stages may be based on the occurrence of certain events. These are not completely separate ways of defining stages, however. For example, in order for several events to have happened, some time must elapse. On the other hand, the mere passage of time does not guarantee that certain crucial events will have occurred. It is for this reason that events are chosen as the better way to define organizational socialization" (Wanous, 1980, p. 173). A number of stage models have been proposed to describe the socialization process (Bourne, 1967; Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976, 1981; Katz, 1980; Porter et al., 1975; Schein, 1978, 1983; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous, 1980.)

Table 1 presents a summary of several stage models. These models depict the socialization process as a sequence of stages or phases which a newcomer goes through to become a fully accepted member of the organization. (See Wanous, 1980; Fisher, 1986; and Wanous and Collela, 1989 for an extensive discussion of the stage models.) While not parallel in numbers or names of stages, the stage models developed by different authors are

fairly similar (Fisher, 1986) and indicate that the newcomer experiences a progression of at least three stages - anticipatory, encounter, and change and acquisition. As stated earlier, only two of the stage models - those of Buchanan (1974) and Feldman (1976) - have been investigated empirically (Wanous & Collela, 1989).

Feldman's (1976) three-stage model has been empirically tested in two published studies (Dubinsky, Howell, Ingram, & Bellenger, 1986; Feldman, 1976). Feldman

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Insert Table 1 About Here

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identified three stages of organizational socialization - anticipatory, accommodation, and role management. Each socialization stage is characterized by : (a) different sets of activities that employees engage in, and (b) process variables that indicate progress through the socialization process. In stage one (anticipatory socialization), individuals are concerned with forming expectations about jobs and making employment decisions. Progress is evaluated by how realistic their expectations were prior to entry into the organization and congruence between organizational resources and newcomer needs or values. In the second stage (accommodation), new employees engage in four main activities: learning new tasks, establishing new interpersonal relationships with coworkers, clarifying their roles, and evaluating their progress in the organization. The process variables associated with this stage are: initiation into the task, initiation to the group, role definition, and congruence of newcomer and organizational evaluation. In the final stage (role management), managing two types of conflict are considered crucial: work/non-work conflict, and work conflict. Resolution of outside life conflicts as well as resolution of conflicting demands are the process variables.

The outcomes of the socialization process in Feldman's model are general satisfaction, mutual influence, internal work motivation, and job involvement. It was also hypothesized that process variables would only directly affect process variables in the

following stage and that only process variables at the role management stage (final stage) would be directly related to outcomes.

Interview and questionnaire data collected from 118 hospital employees were used to develop and test the model. Congruence, role definition, resolution of conflicting demands, and resolution of outside-life conflicts were found to be positively related to general satisfaction. Initiation to the task and congruency of evaluation were significantly related to mutual influence. However, job involvement was not related to any process variable and internal work motivation was negatively related to resolution of conflicting demands. Moreover, in contrast to Feldman's model, process variables from stages one and two were directly related to outcomes.

Dubinsky et al. (1986), who tested Feldman's model with a questionnaire study of sales personnel, obtained some findings that were consistent with Feldman's model. They found a direct relationship between congruence and general satisfaction, mutual influence, and job involvement. Realism was also found to be related to role definition and resolution of conflicting demands at work. They found 15 significant relationships among process and outcome variables, but only 7 of these coincided with the relationships found by Feldman.

Buchanan (1974) conducted a cross-sectional study in which he investigated the relative importance of particular socialization experiences for influencing commitment over different periods of time. Data were gathered through questionnaires from a sample of 279 managers from five governmental agencies and three Fortune 500 manufacturing companies. The managers were classified into three socialization stages according to their organizational tenure. He hypothesized that during the first stage (the first year on the job) several critical experiences will be related to newcomer commitment : role clarity, peer group cohesion, group attitudes toward the organization, expectations realization, reality shock, job challenge, and loyalty conflicts. During the second stage (years 2 through 4), experiences involving personal importance, self-image reinforcement, fear of failure, organizational commitment norms, and work commitment norms were hypothesized to influence commitment. Finally, during stage three (5 or more years tenure) organizational

dependability or those experiences which confirmed important expectations of senior managers such as interesting work, signal of personal importance, and rewarding colleague relationships were thought to affect commitment. Only two of the seven proposed stage-one experiences were related to stage-one commitment, whereas three of them were related to stage-three commitment instead. Only two of the proposed stage-two experiences were correlated with stage-two commitment. Perceptions of organizational dependability were not related to commitment in stage three.

These two studies are unique in that they empirically test predictions about the stages of socialization, whereas other models were derived post-hoc and have not been tested empirically. However, Buchanan (1974) found weak support for his model, and the two studies testing Feldman's (1976) model arrived at fairly different conclusions. None of the above studies was longitudinal, and as such, the assumption that stages occur in a specific temporal order has not been tested (Wanous & Colella, 1989). Moreover, information was gathered from retrospective self-reports (perceptions) of employees' experiences. The results of the three studies could not establish the stages of socialization as distinct. Fisher's (1986) review of the socialization stages also indicated that results on distinct stages of socialization are mixed. Amidst these flaws, the process variables and outcomes identified by Feldman (1976) for the different stages of socialization highlight critical variables that could influence effective socialization.

Building on his previous theoretical model (Feldman, 1976) and incorporating some of the features of other existing models of the socialization process, Feldman (1981) presented an integrated model of multiple socialization processes. In this model, he viewed socialization as:

(1) The acquisition of a set of appropriate role behaviors;

(2) The development of work skills and abilities;

(3) The adjustment to the work group's norms and values.

Consistent with Feldman (1976), Feldman (1981) identified three stages of organizational socialization but used different terminology to describe the second and third stages. The

three stages are anticipatory, encounter, and change and acquisition. Generally, the anticipatory stage is described to include all the learning that occurs prior to the individual's entry into an organization. At the "encounter" (Porter et al., 1975; Van Maanen, 1975) stage, the new recruit experiences what the organization is truly like, some initial shifting of values, skills, and attitudes may occur. "It is in the third stage 'change and acquisition' (Porter et al., 1975) that relatively long-lasting changes take place: new recruits master the skills required for their jobs, successfully perform their new roles, and make some satisfactory adjustment to their work groups' values and norms. It is assumed that the onset of encounter precedes the onset of the change and acquisition stage, but there is some continuity and overlap between stages" (Feldman, 1981, p. 310).

Each of the three multiple socialization processes identified above stresses the importance of the newcomer's acquisition and internalization of different kinds of information to be successfully socialized. Different contingencies in the socialization to the task, to the work group, and to the organization are identified. Skills at the time of hiring and accurate performance evaluations are the critical contingencies in socialization to the task; a fit between individual needs and values and group norms is the critical contingency in socialization to the group; resolving intra-role and inter-role conflicts are critical contingencies in socialization to the organization (Feldman, 1989). A model of effective socialization will benefit from this integrated model in identifying dimensions of effective socialization as well as some factors that might enhance it.

The stage models provide the fundamental framework for discussing the socialization process in the literature. They are cited by almost every work in the socialization and related literature. They have become a reference point or "springboard" for the other approaches to organizational socialization. For instance, Reichers (1987) built on the stage models (Feldman, 1976; Katz, 1980; Schein, 1983) to develop her symbolic interactionist perspective to organizational socialization. Wanous et al.'s (1984) and Nelson's (1987) group development and stress perspectives respectively paralleled the stage models. Similarly, insights from the stage models, especially Feldman's (1976, 1981), will contribute to a model of socialization effectiveness in identifying relevant

variables for determining and measuring effective socialization.

Stage models and socialization effectiveness. According to the stage models, newcomers have to deal with different tasks at different stages of their stay in the organization. For instance, Feldman (1976, 1981) identified some process variables and outcomes through which success at each particular stage of the socialization process can be determined. He also maintained that complete socialization takes place after the last stage of socialization. The variables that have been identified to measure success at the last stage of the socialization process are worded differently indicating the finality of the socialization process (see Feldman, 1981, p. 310). Logically, the effectiveness of the socialization process can be determined only after the employee has completed the last stage of the socialization process. It is at the last stage that lasting permanent changes take place (Feldman, 1981). Wanous (1980) also describes the last stage of the socialization model as "detecting the signposts of successful socialization." These authors suggest that after the last stage of the socialization process, the success of the entire socialization process can be evaluated thereby giving rise to the conception of effective socialization. But the concept of effective socialization is broadened to encompass success through the entire socialization process. It is not based on a stage model, but rather conceptualizes the socialization process as a continuum whereby effective socialization can be determined at any time during the socialization process irrespective of the newcomer's completion of the last stage of the socialization process.

The stage models have assumed a direct relationship between the socialization process and the achievement of some behavioral or organizational outcomes. Examples of such outcome variables include general job satisfaction, job facet satisfaction, job tension, internal work motivation, job involvement, and mutual acceptance (Toffler, 1981). Feldman (1976) measured four of these variables as was indicated previously. Outcomes such as carrying out role assignments dependably, remaining with the organization, and innovating beyond role demands were suggested by Feldman (1981). Other variables that have been considered outcomes of the socialization process are organizational commitment (Buchanan, 1974) and performance (Fisher, 1986; Van Maanen, 1975; Wanous, 1980).

The proposed research will focus on determining how successful the socialization process is by proposing a direct relationship between the socialization process and socialization effectiveness. In other words, socialization effectiveness is proposed as the primary "outcome" of the socialization process. The dimensions of effective socialization are not identical with the traditional outcomes in organizational behavior research. However, they contribute to the growing need for other outcome variables as well as greater understanding of organizational processes in organizational behavior research (Staw, 1984). The distinction between the focus of this study and prior studies is represented in Figure 2. Feldman (1981) acknowledged the importance of organizational factors such as feedback, and supervisory support but the relationship between these factors and effective socialization has not been investigated. Fisher (1986) stated that writers who describe the outcomes of socialization in conceptual papers seem to identify a somewhat different set than those who operationally measure "outcomes" for the sake of having a criterion. The former emphasize the learning and internalization of organizational norms and values and worry about the problems of overconformity while empirical researchers have tended to prefer attitudinal - behavioral measures. This study will attempt to narrow the gap between the conceptual definition of successful socialization and its operationalization by focusing more on the socialization content in determining a measure of socialization effectiveness. However, the relationships between socialization effectiveness and the traditional outcome variables will be investigated as additional analyses.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

Socialization Content

Socialization content is what is being imparted to the newcomer in the organization (Louis, 1980b). It refers to the information required to perform effectively in any organizationally defined role. Louis (1980b) distinguished between two kinds of

socialization content as role related learning and a more general appreciation of the culture of the organization. An individual needs ability, motivation, and an understanding of what others expect to perform adequately in a new role (Brim, 1966). The relevance of such organization specific information to effective socialization is captured in the following statement from an IBM executive conversant with the concept of socialization.

> Socialization acts as a fine-tuning device; it helps us make sense out of the procedures and quantitative measures. Any number of times I've been faced with a situation where the right thing for the measurement system was X and the right thing for IBM was Y. I've always been counseled to tilt toward what was right for IBM in the long term and what was right for our people. They pay us a lot to do that. Formal controls, without coherent values and culture, are too crude a compass to steer by (Pascale, 1984, p. 38).

The above statement also reflects the components of an organizationally defined role. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) stated that an organizationally defined role consists of a content or knowledge base, a strategic base, and a mission which as indicated in the above excerpt are highly intertwined. The content indicates the range of existing solutions to the given problems encountered regularly on the job; the strategic base defines the ground rules for choosing particular solutions. Subsequently, organizationally defined roles are invested historically with some form of an explicit and implicit mission, purpose, or mandate which is, in part, traceable to the knowledge and strategy bases of the roles, but also is grounded in the total organizational mission and in the relationships that a particular role has with other roles within and outside the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Fisher (1986) identifies four primary categories of content from both the theoretical and empirical literature. These are: (1) organizational values, goals, and culture; (2) work group values, norms, and friendships; (3) how to do the job, needed skills and knowledge; and (4) personal change relating to identity, self-image, and motives. Similarly, Schein (1980) discusses the values, norms, and behavior patterns that a newcomer is expected to learn. He maintains that newcomers are expected to learn the basic goals of the organization, the preferred means by which these goals should be

attained, the basic responsibilities of the member in the role which is granted to him or her by the organization, the behavior patterns required for effective performance in the role; and the set of rules and principles which help to maintain the identity and integrity of the organization. In the career transition literature, the importance of socialization content is reflected in the seven transition tasks identified by Louis (1982) that a newcomer has to accomplish to make sense of the work situation. These are : mastering the basics of the job's formal procedures, technology, tasks and activities; building an image or role identity; building relationships with others; constructing a frame of reference, what is essential and what is taboo; mapping the relevant players, names, faces, roles, power; locating oneself in task and social networks, and learning the local language.

The socialization content summarized by Fisher (1986) and Schein (1980) and the transition tasks identified by Louis (1982) conform to Feldman's (1981) description of the socialization process as the simultaneous acquisition of a set of appropriate role behaviors, development of work skills and abilities, and adjustment to the work group norms and values (see Table 2). According to Fisher (1986), the objective of any socialization effort has been disclosed/provided through the socialization content. A model of effective socialization that determines how successful employees are in mastering the socialization content could provide some answers to the questions: "what is learned, and what is changed?" (Fisher, 1986).

Insert Table 2 About Here

Summary

In summary, this section discussed the theoretical and conceptual basis for the development of a model of effective socialization. Two theoretical approaches - socialization stages and the socialization content - are drawn upon for the development of the model. As such, the model is based on a combination of contemporary role theory and

symbolic interactionist theory. Feldman's stage models (1976, 1981) in particular influenced the conception of effective socialization. The distinction between socialization stages and effective socialization highlights the unique contribution of the study. Through the discussion of the socialization content, a rationale for the choice of dimensions of effective socialization was presented. The theoretical model developed to guide this study, the specific variables included in it, and the hypotheses to be tested are discussed in the following section.

Theoretical Model and Hypothesis Development

Effective socialization is a mutually desirable goal that employees and their employers strive to achieve through their working relationships. It is conceptualized as the successful acquisition of the socialization content as reflected in: mastery of the tasks comprising a new job; knowledge and ability to function within the work group; knowledge of and acceptance of the organization's pivotal norms and values; knowledge about self; and role clarity. Achieving effective socialization will be enhanced by a number of organizational or structural factors, prior work experience factors, and personal factors.

Feldman's (1976,1981) models and insights from other stage models as well as the literature in organizational socialization and related areas contributed to the development of the model. A model of effective socialization is a diagnostic model whereby the success of the entire socialization process is evaluated rather than the temporal or gradual progress through the socialization stages. A major component of the model is the delineation of a comprehensive set of variables representing indicators of effective socialization. It is unique because it is the only comprehensive model that attempts to bridge the gap between the conceptual and operational definition of socialization outcomes by directing attention to the socialization process.

A main effect model of socialization effectiveness is proposed. The main objective of the study is to develop and test empirically a model of socialization effectiveness. It is the first integrated model of socialization effectiveness so that the focus

is more on developing the model and empirically investigating the nature of the relationships. Most of the relationships that have been proposed have not been investigated empirically. It is argued that at this initial stage of model development, a simple explanatory model is appropriate especially since there is no theoretical or empirical justification for the interaction of the independent variables in relation to the response variables. However, once the model is tested and validated, supplemental analyses will be conducted to test for plausible interactions among the predictor variables.

Methodologically, exploring for plausible interactions at this stage of model development will increase the family wise error rate and decrease the power of the study. Presently, the series of multiple regression analyses that will be undertaken to test and validate the model makes apriori exploration for interaction effects inhibiting. Roberts and Glick (1981) noted that sometimes it is inefficient to search for moderator relations of tasks and responses until the existence or non-existence of main effects is clearly established (Zedeck, 1971).

In summary, since there is no strong theoretical or empirical reasons suggesting interactions among the independent variables in relation to the response variables, a main effect model is posited. However, plausible interactive effects will be explored for some of the variables as additional analyses.

The detailed model of socialization effectiveness (Figure 3) is composed of two parts : The first part is composed of variables that indicate effective socialization. These are task mastery, functioning within the work group, knowledge and acceptance of organization's pivotal norms and values, personal learning, and role clarity. The second part is composed of factors that are associated with effective socialization. These are organizational factors, prior work experience factors, and a personal factor. A discussion of the specific variables is presented subsequently.

Insert Figure 3 About Here

Dependent Variables: The Dimensions of Effective Socialization

Five sets of variables will be used to reflect effective socialization : (1) task mastery, (2) functioning within the work group, (3) knowledge and acceptance of organization's pivotal norms and values, (4) personal learning, and (5) role clarity.

Task mastery. This involves learning the tasks of the new job, gaining self-confidence, and attaining a favorable level of job performance (Feldman, 1981). Two components of task mastery are recognized: an affective component and a behavioral component. While gaining self-confidence in performing the tasks of the new job reflects the affective component, job knowledge or performance level represents the behavioral component. Most employees want to establish routines that are predictable, gain confidence about performing well on their new jobs, and establish their sense of personal control in the work setting (Feldman & Brett, 1983). Newcomers' performance will be reinforced by positive evaluations, but disappointment, confusion, and loss of self-confidence could result from negative evaluations (Feldman, 1981).

Fisher (1982) found self-confidence to be a distinguishing characteristic of successful insiders among a sample of newly graduated nurses in their first few months of employment. Performance (in terms of refining skills, developing an individualized "system" for getting jobs done efficiently and learning to handle emergencies) was also found to be an important outcome (Fisher, 1986).

Functioning within the work group. Cummings describes work groups as the "basic components of organizations and the contexts within which workers work"(1981, p. 250). Groups are a part of organizational life and employees function in one group form or another to accomplish their tasks. When employees join the organization, they need to learn and understand the way things are done within their work units/groups that is consistent with that of other relevant employees, or else the newcomers' working relationships with these employees could be severely strained. Moreland and Levine (1982) discussed different stages of newcomer socialization into small groups. They

maintained that for separate groups, the requirements for becoming an accepted member differs with the structure, the size, membership and task characteristics. For instance, in one group, newcomers are expected to be anxious, passive, dependent, and conforming. Those who play such roles effectively are likely to be accepted by longtime employees in their work units. In another group, newcomers who are proactive, independent, and assertive might gain inclusion into the work group. It is important for newcomers to learn how to work harmoniously within their work groups since this could affect their continued membership in the organization. Moreover, Feldman (1980) maintained that until newcomers are accepted within their groups, they cannot be trusted with some information that may affect their performance. Socialization into the organization and into the specific work group goes on concurrently once the newcomer joins the organization and becomes assigned to a particular work unit (Levine & Moreland, 1990). As such, learning how to function within the work unit is necessary for effective socialization. In summary, indicators of successful functioning within the work group are: getting along with co-workers and superiors, coming to feel liked and trusted by peers, understanding the group norms and values, and making a satisfactory adjustment to group culture (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986).

Knowledge and acceptance of organization's pivotal norms and values. This taps into two components: knowledge and acceptance. Knowledge reflects the employees' understanding of the organization's pivotal norms and values. Acceptance relates to how fully the employees have internalized these pivotal norms and values.

New employees are usually exposed to the culture of the organization which is perpetuated and transmitted through the socialization of new members. Although organizational culture has been defined in as many ways as there are writers on the topic, three common dimensions or levels of culture have been identified. According to Ott (1989), three levels of culture are distinguished: artifacts, "values and beliefs," and basic underlying assumptions. Some of the definitions of organizational culture reflect the three levels of culture while others focus on the first or second level. A more comprehensive definition of culture is one that encompasses the three levels of culture. For instance,

organizational culture is defined as "(a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as the (f) correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1990, p. 111). The levels of culture along with the above definition, suggest that while some aspects of culture are concrete and can be observed, some are subtle and can only be passed on to new members through interaction with insiders. Every new employee has to be familiar with the organizational culture. But understanding the pivotal norms and values as well as internalizing them are critical for the employee's effective participation. Louis (1980a) concluded from prior studies that in learning the culture, newcomers develop a definition of the situation, and a scheme for interpreting everyday events in the setting.

Different forms of adjustment to organizational norms and values have been discussed by Schein (1988) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979). They maintain that adjustment to organizational norms and values is beneficial when it leads to the internalization of pivotal norms and development of a new self-identity.

Personal learning. This entails the newcomer learning more about himself or herself (Fisher, 1986). When the individual joins the organization, he or she has already experienced an elaborate socialization process and has internalized a complex array of beliefs, values, norms, and expectancies about himself or herself and his or her physical and social environment. Thus placed in an organization, the individual attempts to integrate his or her organizational role and self-identity and this may result in an enhanced understanding of one's needs and values (Graen, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The transition into the organization is characterized by a different set of expectations from both the newcomers and the organizations. The process of learning and adjusting to a new and different environment creates a different form of awareness whereby the newcomer has to learn the rules of a different game and excel in it. Levine and Moreland (1990) stated that attempts are made by newcomers and oldtimers to alter one another in ways that make them more compatible. As Schein (1971) stated, newcomers change aspects of their social

selves in order to comply with the norms of the setting. These new selves are then refrozen through reinforcement or other means that indicate acceptance and approval. Effective socialization will result when the newcomer learns about the organization and achieves a balance between the organizational expectations and personal expectations through better knowledge of himself or herself. This change may be in terms of personality or behavior and attitudes (Hinton, 1981). In summary, the newcomer learns more about his or her own needs and values.

Role clarity. As was discussed previously, mastering the socialization content is a critical component of effective socialization. Consistent with studies discussed previously, recent research has reaffirmed the importance of four content domains (task, role, group, and organization) during the socialization process (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). Morrison (1993) provides extensive support from the socialization literature on the importance of these four content areas to newcomer socialization process. Although it has to be noted that role clarity is not solely a function of the socialization process, its importance to the socialization process is widely acknowledged. The following discussion will focus on literature that provides further support for the importance of role clarity in the socialization process.

Fisher (1986) acknowledged the importance of role clarity to newcomer socialization. When newcomers are learning the requirements of their new job, they have to decipher a great deal of information from different people such as co-workers, supervisors, mentors, and significant others. For the newcomer to participate effectively, he or she has to be able to cope with different and sometimes conflicting information from different sources, set priorities, and participate effectively. Achieving role clarity suggests that the newcomer is clear or certain about the expectations of members of his or her role set or more generally the scope and responsibilities of his or her new job (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

The socialization content distinguishes between role learning and a more general appreciation of the organization's culture. For example, Louis (1990) maintained that the individual's ability and motivation, and an understanding of what others expect are

necessary for the newcomer to perform a new role adequately. Feldman (1976) found that mastery of the task, equity between performance and evaluation, and role clarity were all antecedents of innovative behavior. Uncertainty and role confusion are also some of the problems newcomers have to deal with in a new organization (Feldman, 1989). Graen (1976) stated that new employees spent an increasing amount of time trying to manage role conflict. Feldman (1989) also maintained that socialization to the role is more dependent on the employee's expectations of the organization and his or her ability to manage intergroup and outside - life conflicts. Role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict are some of the role variables that have been investigated in the socialization literature.

As was previously discussed, the socialization content consists of role related learning and a general appreciation of the culture of the organization. The inclusion of role clarity as one of the dimensions of effective socialization is supported theoretically by the socialization literature. Since learning more about their roles are among the tasks required of every newcomer in the organization, how successful they are in accomplishing it can be determined by how clear and certain they are about the expectations of their new roles.

As Jackson and Schuler (1985) stated, both the antecedents and consequences of role ambiguity and role conflict have been studied in the literature. However, they suggest that some causal designs investigating relationships involving role ambiguity or role conflict may require the inclusion of theoretically related moderator variables. In the present study, interactions among the antecedents will be explored as additional analyses to identify any moderator effects.

Justification for the Dimensions of Effective Socialization

The importance of these variables to the effectiveness of the socialization process has been emphasized both implicitly and explicitly in the socialization and related literature. Louis (1990) stated that individuals must master the basic skills of a job, build relationships

with co-workers and others, and learn the values and norms of relevant groups during any role transition. She further indicated that these tasks among others are the objectives of organizational socialization (Brim, 1966; Feldman, 1981; Schein, 1968). Louis categorized the tasks of organizational socialization into three groups : job-related, interpersonal, and culture-related. Job-related tasks are concerned with activities that foster the mastering of basic skills of the job, gaining self-confidence and achieving positive performance evaluations.

Conceptually, organizational socialization is described in the literature as the process through which organizational culture is perpetuated, the process through which the newcomer learns the appropriate roles and behavior to become an effective and participating member of the organization. Since the focus of this study is on the socialization process, the effectiveness of the socialization process can only be determined by how successfully newcomers accomplish those tasks which comprise the agenda of organizational socialization. The proficiency with which new employees accomplish these tasks of organizational socialization is indicative of how effectively they have been socialized.

Personal learning has been identified by Fisher (1986) and Schein (1978) as an important component of the socialization process. Schein (1964) emphasized the importance of personal learning to new college graduates. According to Schein (1964), college graduates enter the work place with personal doubts about their competence in job performance, and about their ability to cope with the anxieties and tensions of the work world. As such, the newcomer needs to learn the type of person he or she is and how he or she will function on a job thereby making a self-test critically important.

Role clarity provides an assessment of how effectively the new employees are managing the demanding role in their new job. Achieving role clarity provides better coping capability of dealing with both work and non-work conflict and exhibiting appropriate role behaviors in the work place. The ability to deal with such issues were identified by Feldman (1981) as critical for "complete" or successful socialization on newcomers.

Independent Variables: The Influences on Effective Socialization

The independent variables are grouped under organizational or structural factors, prior work experience factors, and a personal factor. These factors are discussed along with their relationships with the dimensions of socialization effectiveness.

Organizational/Structural Factors

The organizational or structural factors that are considered in this study are socialization tactics and job scope. The variables are discussed and their relationships to the dependent variables are predicted.

Socialization tactics and dimensions of effective socialization. Several authors have described the tactics that are most frequently employed during the socialization process (e.g., Porter et al., 1975; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous, 1980). The socialization tactics or strategies were described as the "ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organizations" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 230). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) identified six tactical dimensions: collective versus individual, formal versus informal, sequential versus random, fixed versus variable, serial versus disjunctive, investiture versus divestiture. These are briefly defined as follows:

Collective versus individual - the degree to which the organization provides common learning experience to newcomers such as processing recruits in batches, as in boot camp, or individually, as in professional offices;

Formal versus informal - the degree to which newcomers are segregated from other organizational members while they learn the responsibility of their new roles (e.g., set training programs), as opposed to apprenticeships or individual coaching by the supervisor;

Sequential versus random - the degree to which the socialization process

consists of guiding the recruit through a series of discrete steps and roles versus being open-ended, and ambiguous;

Fixed versus variable - the degree to which stages of the training process have fixed timetables for each stage, as in military academies, boot camps, or rotational training programs, or are open-ended, as in typical organizational promotional systems where one's advancement to the next stage is not pre-determined;

Serial versus disjunctive - the degree to which role models are provided, as in apprenticeship or mentoring programs , or are deliberately withheld, as in sink-or-swim kinds of initiations in which the recruit is expected to figure out his or her own solutions;

Investiture versus divestiture - the degree to which the process enhances aspects of the self as in professional development programs, and newcomers receive social support from experienced organizational members such as co-workers and supervisors or destroys aspects of the self and replaces them, as in boot camp, and does not receive social support (Jones, 1986; Schein, 1990; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) maintained that organizations can influence role outcomes by the selection of different socialization tactics. Role outcomes are described as custodial or innovative behavior. While custodial behavior is exhibited when people fully accept the norms of an organization, innovative behavior is displayed when people reject some of the norms or redefine the knowledge, strategies, and mission of a work role (Staw & Boettger, 1990). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) proposed a comprehensive, predictive theory of how socialization tactics will affect the way in which the newcomer responds to a new role. They also indicated that organizations most often can use different combinations of these tactics.

Jones (1986) directly tested Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) propositions. He reclassified Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) six organizational tactics into two broad categories - institutionalized versus individualized. Socialization tactics that are individual, informal, variable, random, and disjunctive and that involve divestiture were collectively referred to as individualized socialization tactics while the opposite ends of the six continua described as collective, fixed, sequential, serial, and investiture were collectively referred to

as institutionalized tactics. He further categorized these tactics according to their emphasis on different aspects of the work situation. He distinguished among tactics that focus on the job context, job content, and interpersonal or social aspects of the job. Jones stated that the collective versus individual and formal versus informal tactics vary in terms of the contexts in which organizations provide information to newcomers; the sequential versus random and fixed versus variable focus on the content of the information given to newcomers and; serial versus disjunctive and investiture versus divestiture reflect social or interpersonal aspects of the socialization process. He developed questionnaire measures of the six socialization tactics and investigated relationships among socialization tactics, self-efficacy, locus of control, role orientation, and organizational commitment.

A sample of 127 new M.B.A. degree holders completed questionnaires prior to organizational entry and five months after they began work. Jones (1986) hypothesized and found that institutionalized socialization tactics produced custodial role orientations and individualized tactics led to innovative role orientations. The more institutionalized the form of socialization was, the greater were expressed job satisfaction and commitment, and the lower was intention to quit. Individualized tactics were associated with high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Jones also hypothesized and found that newcomer self-efficacy moderated the relationship between tactics and responses. Specifically, when institutionalized tactics were employed, newcomers with low self-efficacy had stronger custodial responses than those with high self-efficacy. No moderating effect of self-efficacy was predicted between individualized socialization tactics and role orientation. Furthermore, investiture versus divestiture and serial versus disjunctive tactics were the most important socialization tactics. Investiture versus divestiture tactics refer respectively to whether the newcomer receives social support or not. Serial versus disjunctive tactics refer, respectively, to whether or not the newcomer is provided with a role model. This finding suggests that the social aspects of the socialization process most strongly affect role orientation outcomes. These findings confirm and refine Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) hypotheses by empirically demonstrating the relationship between tactics and role orientation, the moderating effect of self-efficacy, and the importance of some tactical

dimensions over others.

Baker (1988) examined the people processing socialization strategies employed by organizations and how these tactics impact individual attitudinal responses. The outcomes investigated were interpersonal trust, faith in peers, faith in management, organizational commitment, job-induced tension, general job satisfaction, mutual influence, internal work motivation, and job involvement. Questions dealing with the socialization process as perceived by the employees were administered through a questionnaire to a sample of 543 employees employed by four diverse organizations. The questionnaire developed by Jones (1986) was used for the study, but was slightly modified to suit Baker's sample. The results of the study suggest a high level of interrelationship among the people processing strategies. Two clusters of people processing strategies were identified: unit and batch. No relationship was found between the formal and collective processing strategies and the attitudinal outcomes. Baker found significant relationships among the sequential, fixed, and serial processing strategies. There was a significant relationship between the investiture strategy and the outcomes. Baker concluded from the results of the discriminant analysis, that when a "unit" type of socialization process is experienced (that is, one which is informal, individual, variable, non-sequential, and disjunctive), somewhat lower attitudinal outcomes are expected while a "batch" process (formal, collective, fixed, sequential, and serial) tends to have somewhat more positive responses on the same attitudinal measures.

Allen and Meyer (1990) replicated and extended Jones' (1986) research by longitudinally examining the relations between the socialization tactics and two outcomes: role orientation and organizational commitment. Questionnaires were completed by a sample of 105 college graduates (80 men and 25 women) after 6 months and 12 months on their first job after graduation. A significant negative correlation was obtained between each measure of socialization tactic and role orientation at 6 and 12 months, indicating that institutionalized tactics in general are associated with a custodial orientation. They found that newcomers' organizational socialization experiences were negatively related to role innovation after they had been on their jobs 6 and 12 months and positively related to

organizational commitment after 6 months. Role innovation and commitment were negatively correlated at 6 months.

In summary, the findings of the above studies are consistent with respect to the relationship between socialization tactics and outcomes. They all found that a more institutionalized socialization strategy for newcomers results in higher attitudinal outcomes. Institutionalized tactics provide a great deal of general information about official policies and procedures to large numbers of newcomers (Louis, 1980b) about how things work in the organization, thereby reducing the high degree of uncertainty they may experience at this time. When individuals are socialized collectively rather than individually (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), they have greater potential to develop contacts with whom to share interpretations. Such accurate interpretations may increase accurate learning to the extent that newcomers' interpretations are based partly on observed models or discussions with more experienced insiders (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). For individualized tactics, information is not provided in an organized formal socialization procedure. All kinds of people are relevant sources on individualized socialization: old boss, new boss, old and new peers, and customers and clients (Brett, 1984). To cope with the anxiety-producing uncertainty characterizing periods of entry and transition (Katz, 1985), individuals may become more proactive and seek out mentors; they may form alliances with other new members, or they may develop friendships with the most accessible co-workers (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Beehr, 1985; Kram, 1985).

Although Jones (1986) and Baker (1988) established the importance of some socialization tactics over others, the relationship between socialization tactics and the effectiveness of the socialization process was not investigated. For instance, Jones found the socialization tactics relating to the social aspects of the situation to be more important for personal adjustment; Baker (1988) also found the investiture tactic to be strongly related to the outcomes in his study. As Jones stated, "investiture versus divestiture concerns the degree to which newcomers receive positive or negative social support after entry from experienced organizational members" (1986, p. 265). Serial versus disjunctive also refers to the provision of role models. This study will build on the findings of these studies.

Social support will be incorporated into the two socialization tactics that focus on the social aspects of the work situation. The incorporation of support items into two socialization tactics (serial versus disjunctive and investiture versus divestiture) warrants understanding the relationship between social support and effective socialization.

Social Support . House (1981) conceptualized the content of social support in the work place as including emotional, instrumental, informational, and appraisal support. He maintained that the relevance of different types of support and sources of support (e.g., spouse, friends, or coworkers) varies with the person and the problem requiring support (House, 1981).

The levels and types of socio-emotional support that leaders and reference groups provide have long been regarded as a critical determinant of organizational behavior (House, 1981). As Pinder and Schroeder (1987) stated, this proposition is supported by theory and research in the area of leadership (Yukl, 1981) and group dynamics (Shaw, 1971). They also concluded that the growing literature on careers and career transitions similarly attests to the role of interpersonal support in removing uncertainties, coping with problems of anxieties and feelings of coercion, and generally making things easier for a newcomer in a new work setting.

The importance of supervisor and coworker support to the successful adjustment of newcomers has been emphasized in the theoretical and empirical literature. According to Reichers (1987), newcomers learn their appropriate roles, engage in sense-making activities, and establish situational identities through co-workers, supervisors, subordinates, clients, and/or customers. Schein (1978) and Kram (1985) suggest that supervisors and mentors can facilitate newcomers' learning and adjustment by coaching them on the organization's political climate, by encouraging newcomers to stretch themselves to their greatest potential, and by protecting them from other superiors for their early mistakes. Fisher (1986) stresses the importance of social rewards to newcomers as well as the power of socialization agents to provide or withhold such rewards. She maintained that social rewards are extremely important in socialization because they are strongly desired by newcomers, and can be administered in a timely and contingent fashion

more easily than tangible rewards. Hence, the ability of socialization agents to give or withhold both tangible and social rewards has great impact on the "socializability" of newcomers.

Two studies found that organizational members are helpful in facilitating newcomers' adjustment to the organization. Louis (1980a) conducted a study with a sample of recent MBAs to investigate the relationship between different organizational practices and employee adjustment. Frequent contact with more senior peers and having a buddy or mentor relationship were rated as most helpful, closely followed by frequent contact with one's supervisor. Formal training programs were considered much less facilitative of adjustment. Feldman and Brett (1983) found that getting help and seeking out information and reassurance from others in the organization were the most favored coping strategies of new employees. Thus newcomers who could not have helpful contact with insiders might be expected to have a harder time adjusting to the organization (Fisher, 1985).

Fisher (1985) conducted a longitudinal study in which she examined the role played by social support from coworkers and supervisors in facilitating newcomer adjustment and in mitigating the effects of stress caused by unmet expectations. Data were collected by questionnaires from a sample of newly graduated nurses in their first six months of full-time hospital jobs. Two kinds of social support (emotional and informational or role clarifying) were examined. She found that support from both coworkers and the immediate superior is positively related to satisfaction, performance, and commitment, and negatively related to turnover. Support was found to be negatively and significantly related to stress. Fisher (1985) concluded that social support from the superior and coworkers is usually associated with outcomes such as job satisfaction, involvement, and intent to remain on the job. However, she stated that the main effects on outcomes are usually found, but the explanation for them is not clear. She maintained that social support in the form of helpful and informative coworkers or superiors could help prevent stresses like role ambiguity or overload from even occurring in the first place.

Support has been discussed as having a main effect as well as a buffering effect in

the stress literature. The main effect implies that there is a direct relationship between support and the strain variables, in which employees benefit from enhanced levels of support. In the case of a buffering effect, support is beneficial to people experiencing moderate to high levels of stress, but of lesser value, or even of no value to people experiencing little or no stress (House, 1981). As House stated, both the main effect and the buffering effect of support have been supported empirically.

In summary, the theoretical and empirical literature has emphasized the importance of supervisor and peer support to newcomers' successful adjustment. However, newcomers' successful adjustment was assessed by traditional outcome variables such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The relationship among support, role conflict, and role ambiguity has been established in the literature. Since newcomer entry into the organization is characterized by high degree of uncertainty and disillusionment (Louis, 1980b), support from supervisors and coworkers is critical for the employee's successful adjustment as well as effective performance in the organization. As such, the main effect of support is applicable to this study.

Social support will be incorporated into the serial versus disjunctive and investiture versus divestiture socialization tactics. As discussed earlier, these two socialization tactics relate to the social aspect of the situation where the provision of support from relevant insiders is of considerable importance. The importance of social support in facilitating newcomer adjustment has been established in the literature but its relationship to the dimensions of effective socialization has not been investigated empirically. The global effect of socialization tactics to effective socialization will be investigated.

Generally, a more institutionalized socialization tactic will lead to greater informal interactions since it provides newcomers with guidance and support during the initial entry period. This will increase the likelihood of new members making friends and seeking out more informal interactions. According to Feldman and Weitz (1990), research suggests that although newcomers may prefer the social aspects of a casual orientation, the uncertainty and confusion created by unstructured programs may counteract the benefits of a one-on-one training strategy as in the individualized socialization strategy. It is predicted

that a more institutionalized socialization strategy will enable the newcomer to : master the tasks of his or her new job by providing greater instruction and guidance; function better within his or her work group by fostering support through experienced organizational members; learn the organizational culture and accept the pivotal norms and values through interaction with significant others; learn more about the self through the reinforcement of the socialized self; and achieve more clarity in carrying out his or her role. The preceding discussion and the theoretical and empirical literature lead to the following:

> Hypothesis 1: Institutionalized socialization tactics will be associated with (a) greater task mastery, (b) greater success in functioning within the work group (c) greater knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values, (d) greater personal learning, and (e) greater role clarity than individualized socialization tactics.

Job Scope and dimensions of effective socialization. Job scope is another organizational factor that is predicted to enhance effective socialization. It refers to the degree to which a job is enriched (Stone, 1986) or more generally, the breadth of a job. Job scope falls within the realm of job design research which emphasizes the manipulation of the content, functions, and relationships of jobs to accomplish organizational purposes and satisfy employees' needs (Szilagyi & Wallace 1987, p. 147). Stone noted that "jobs of large scope (that is, enriched jobs) are those that result in job incumbents experiencing their work as meaningful, perceiving that they are responsible for the outcomes of the work, and receiving appropriate feedback about their job-related performance" (1986, p. 191). Job scope is a composite representation of job characteristics. The job scope dimensions - skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback - that will be used in this study were identified by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) as the five core dimensions of their Job Characteristics Theory. These job scope dimensions are defined as follows:

Skill variety - refers to the degree to which a job requires a variety of different skills in carrying out the job;

Task identity - refers to the degree to which a job requires completion of a "whole" and identifiable piece of work ;

Task significance - is the degree to which the job is perceived to have a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people;

Autonomy - is described as the degree to which the job gives an employee freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling and executing work assignments; and

Feedback - refers to the extent to which the job and/or others could provide the employee with direct and clear information about his or her performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Prior research has focused on the relationships between job scope and outcomes such as satisfaction and performance. The impact of job scope on job satisfaction and performance has been researched extensively in the behavioral sciences (Stone, 1986). As White (1978) stated, the basic proposition in the job scope literature is that increasing the scope of an employee's job will lead to increased performance and/or positive work attitudes. However, critics have argued that this general proposition cannot be generalized to everybody. The proposition might hold for certain individuals, and for others, the relationship may be weaker, negative, or nonexistent. There is support for both main effects and moderating effects in the relationships between job scope and the outcome variables. As Parasuraman and Alluto (1981) stated, task variables (job scope dimensions) have been studied as situational factors with moderating effects and as distinctive factors directly associated with other variables. For instance, White examined 29 empirical investigations of individual difference moderators of the job characteristic - employee response relationships. He concluded that " (a) often no moderating effects are found; (b) moderators which are found tend to be modest and inconsistent; (c) the real situation is probably worse than indicated.......; (d) at best, moderators can be expected to hold up only for moderating effects all groups tend to respond in the same direction" (1978, p. 278). White finally recommended discontinuing this line of research.

Roberts and Glick reviewed more than 80 empirical studies relevant to task design. In one of their 11 summary notes, they maintained that "though moderators were

frequently assumed to cause task-response relations, existing research cannot demonstrate causality and provides only minimal evidence to task-moderator-response associations" (1981, p. 210).

Cummings (1982) maintained that much of the research on task design has examined the moderating influence of various individual differences on task design effects. Cummings (1982) listed a number of studies that have investigated the moderating effects of motivation and personality characteristics. He stated that most of these studies have found few systemic differences and the individual differences were not significant. He noted that job tenure, ability and age were found to moderate the relationships. He acknowledges these inconsistencies. However, he concluded that "in general, then, enriched jobs seem to exert positive affective and behavior effects regardless of an incumbent's desire for higher order need satisfaction, need for achievement, need for autonomy, etc." (p. 546).

In summary, as a result of the inconsistencies in the task design literature and weak empirical support for moderators in the task design - response relationships, a main effect relationship will be investigated. However, common sense still suggests plausible moderator effects. As such, additional analyses will be undertaken to explore the moderating effects of gender on the job scope - socialization effectiveness relationship.

Although the relationship between job scope and the dimensions of effective socialization has not been investigated empirically, the importance of job scope variables to newcomer socialization has been acknowledged. Berlew and Hall (1966) found that newcomers who were given challenging assignments within their first year of employment performed better and were more successful in later years. Schein (1978) maintained that providing new employees with challenging assignments as soon as they join the organization as well as valid feedback on whatever they do is important for successful adjustment. Katz (1980) discussed the importance of different job characteristics to newcomer socialization. He categorized newcomer entry into three stages - socialization, innovation, and adaptation. He maintained that different job characteristics are more relevant at different stages. For instance, he stated that within the first three or four months

of newcomer entry (socialization stage), employees will be more receptive to job properties such as task significance and feedback; between six month and three years (innovation stage), employees will be more concerned with job properties such as autonomy and task variety. Katz's (1980) proposition is based on the rationale that there are distinct socialization stages where the task of a particular stage has to be completed before focusing on the tasks of the next stage. For example, he stated that an employee's first task is to reduce situational uncertainty by building a clear identity within a progressively enacted work environment. Once an employee is socialized, that is, no longer burdened by situational uncertainty, he or she begins to innovate, by altering, changing, or modifying elements within the work setting.

However, Brett (1984) maintained that based on her research (Feldman & Brett, 1983), newcomers' concerns throughout the socialization process do not exist in such a rigid temporal fashion. She stated that "when Katz (1980) perceives newcomers as moving to the innovation stage, they seem to have gained confidence that they know how to behave in a new situation and are beginning to enact those behaviors that they have learned are legitimate. It is not that they are suddenly free to innovate, ---- but they are confident that what behaviors they have learned are legitimate" (Brett, 1984, p. 167).

In this study, it is also argued that providing newcomers with jobs with wider scope will enhance their accomplishment of the socialization tasks through the socialization process. As Schein (1964) stated, such assignments will provide the new employee an opportunity to test himself or herself at the time he or she most needs it; provide opportunity for the newcomer and the organization to learn more about each other especially if the job assigned to the newcomer has been chosen realistically in terms of his or her capabilities. However, Schein acknowledges different forces of resistance such as the nature of the work, the climate of conservatism, and stereotyped beliefs about new employees that could influence the newcomer's initial assignment. He concluded that developing constructive approaches to overcome these forces of resistance while maximizing the challenge, responsibility and importance of the initial assignment is most beneficial to the newcomer's and organization's successful relationship.

The expectations of college graduates joining the organization are that of a challenging job, a job that offers them responsibility, and a job where they can use different skills acquired from years of schooling (Schein, 1964, 1978). This suggests that the provision of such a job will be motivating and result in the learning and acquisition of the necessary skills to master the task. Learning the culture of the organization as well as the pivotal norms and values cannot be achieved without interaction with significant insiders. So long as a wider scope job (a) enhances the newcomer's self-confidence and positive evaluations; (b) results in the newcomer being more proactive in seeking out significant others, and also encourages more proactive behavior from significant insiders, then a positive relationship will prevail. A positive relationship will be predicted between job scope and personal learning and role clarity. The job scope variables will provide the newcomer the opportunity to learn more about himself or herself when carrying out the responsibilities of the new job, making decisions, and getting feedback on his or her performance. Undertaking these responsibilities will provide better clarity on the expectations of the new job.

In summary, it is predicted that a job with a wider scope will enhance effective socialization. Wider job scope is expected to contribute to effective socialization to the extent to which it 1) results in task mastery 2) leads to ability to function within the work group 3) promotes the understanding of organizational culture and the internalization of the pivotal norms and values 4) enhances personal learning, and 5) achieves role clarity. Based on the research history, and the preceding discussion, it is hypothesized that:

Hence,

Hypothesis 2: Wider job scope will be associated with (a) greater task mastery, (b) greater success in functioning within the work group (c) greater knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) greater personal learning and (e) greater role clarity.

Prior Work Experience

Prior work experience refers to work carried out by newcomers before they joined the organization. Having prior work experience suggests that the individual has already been introduced to the world of work. The process by which individuals cope with their present organizational surroundings is most likely influenced by their past experiences, their expectations, and hopes of the future (Katz, 1980). Work experience can be either formal or informal. Informal work experience can be described as work undertaken by students without any set order/type/preference. Formal work experience is described as structured work experience that is usually an integral part of an academic program. Formal work experiences can be distinguished between co-operative (Co-op) education work experiences and internships. Although the total work experience of the participants will be considered in this study, the impact of formal work experience on newcomers' effective socialization will be investigated as well.

Co-op work experience. Co-operative education is described as an educational strategy that incorporates academic study and career-related work experience. While the design, philosophy, and stated purpose of Co-op programs vary (Fletcher, 1991; Rabino & Lazarus, 1980), some common characteristics have been identified. Fletcher (1991) describes three features of all Co-op programs: (a) The student's work is essential to the educational strategy whereby learning objectives, specific learning experiences, and subsequent evaluation are incorporated with the student's work assignments; (b) the institution is responsible for developing work opportunities in career-related fields, counseling and preparing the student for the work experience, monitoring progress and helping the student cope with any problem that may occur during the program; (c) the student is a paid employee who is actively involved in the work setting.

A large body of literature is devoted to the understanding of Co-op education. Although research in the area is mainly descriptive and atheoretical, there is some empirical research. The Co-op literature dealing with issues of organizational behavior/management

is scarce. However, a large number of studies have discussed the benefits of co-operative education to higher education, students, society, and its cost advantages to organizations (Heinemann, 1983; Weston, 1983; Willis, 1981; Wilson, 1981). The benefits of co-op to student participants have been empirically validated.

Three dominant approaches have characterized the study of the co-op education experience. The first approach focuses on the direct relationship between participation in Co-op and such outcomes as career clarity, career readiness, career identity, and career decision making. In the second approach, the outcome variable is satisfaction with Co-op education program, and the independent variables are explicitness of instruction, instructor site visits, employer supervision, job factors, and career counseling. In the last approach, both the process and outcome are multidimensional. An example of this approach is the study conducted by Page, Wiseman, and Crary (1981). They explored the relationship between Co-op work experiences and subsequent benefits. They used a sample of 220 students who had just finished their Co-op to examine (1) underlying factors of both cooperative education process and outcomes and (2) the relationships between process factors and outcome factors. Data were gathered through subjects' responses to two sets of items representing twenty process variables and fifteen outcome variables. Examples of the process variables were quality of orientation, pay, responsibilities, interaction with fellow workers, and creativity, and such variables as personal and professional growth, increased employability, enhanced skills, and clearer career direction were the outcomes. They found that "students who are productively involved (in contrast to routine involvement) develop an identity of professionalism from the experience; students working independently and creatively will experience an increase in personal growth, whereas students whose activities are highly determined will perceive an enhanced sense of employability ; students provided explicit instruction (in contrast to implicit instruction) will develop increased career clarity" (Page et al., 1981, p. 38). The findings of the study suggest that the characteristics of a Co-op experience rather than the presence or absence of a Co-op experience can result in specific outcomes.

Weinstein (1981) investigated the relative effectiveness of various cooperative

education program strategies in fostering student career development. Questionnaires were received from a sample of 800 co-op and non co-op business and engineering students from eleven colleges and universities in the United States. Weinstein found that certain co-op education strategies affect career decision-making. The co-op strategies that facilitated this process were, having the same employer for more than one work experience, being assigned job duties which relate to the student's field of study, having structured or planned job duties, and working with an employer or coordinator who is concerned that the work duties contribute to the student's education. These findings concur that the importance of a Co-op experience might have more to do with the characteristics of the experience than just having the Co-op.

Internship. Similarly, there has been little research on college internship (Feldman & Weitz, 1990). According to Taylor (1988), the benefits of internships, defined as structured and career relevant work experiences obtained by students prior to graduation from an academic program, have been widely acclaimed by academicians, practitioners, and students themselves (Blensley, 1982; Hall, 1976; Ricchiute, 1980; Taylor & Dunham, 1980). Most of the available literature concur on the benefits of internship yet the methodology of some of these studies is quite suspect. Taylor (1988) maintained that empirical support for the benefits of internships is not extensive.

Taylor (1988) conducted a study in which she examined three hypotheses concerning the effects of college internships on individual participants: (a) greater crystallization of vocational self-concept and work values, (b) less reality shock, and (c) better employment opportunities. Using a quasi-experimental design, she compared interns from five academic programs with matched cohorts at pre-internship, post-internship, college graduation, and post-employment measurement periods. Initially, only the employment opportunity hypothesis was supported by the study. By introducing some moderator variables (work similarity, autonomy, and supervision), some consistent but weak differences emerged. High autonomy interns showed significantly greater benefits than did their cohorts on many of the hypothesized crystallization and reality shock variables. As Taylor (1988) stated, the consistency of the moderator results suggests that

the relevant question may not be whether vocational crystallization and decreased reality shock are benefits of internship, but rather, under what conditions they are benefits. This finding is consistent with Page et al. (1981) and Weinstein (1981). The characteristics of the co-op/internship may be the determining factor in assessing the benefits of such programs.

Feldman and Weitz (1990) investigated the relationship of individual, interpersonal, and organizational factors with the success of summer internships. They examined the relationship between two sets of attitudinal variables : (1) attitudes towards internship itself, and (2) attitudes toward the vocational area (here retailing) and job satisfaction, internal work motivation, job involvement, and organizational commitment. Data were collected by mailed questionnaires from a sample of 72 students and their respective supervisors employed by various organizations during two time periods - pre-internship and post-internship. The internship lasted typically 10-12 weeks. The results of the study suggest that there are some important facets of the internship structure and design which influence interns' attitudes both about the summer job in general and the vocational area in particular. The impact of socialization tactics on summer internships was measured using Jones (1986) scale. From the results, student interns do respond better to investiture (re-affirming the self-concept) than to divestiture (disconfirming the self-concept), and they prefer formal, structured orientation and training programs to more informal ones. Feldman and Weitz's (1990) study is unique in the sense that it directly links the socialization tactics to successful summer internships.

In summary, the benefits of participation in structured work experience programs such as co-op and internships range from familiarity to the world of work to such specific outcomes as career clarity, career readiness, and personal development. However, the co-op and internship literature have both found the structure or characteristics of these work experiences critical in determining the success of such programs. The sample for most of the studies are students who are participating in the co-op/internships as well as those not engaged in them. In as much as these benefits are predicted to carry over to the students' first job after graduation, empirical investigation of the relationships is sparse. This study

will investigate the relationship between prior participation in co-op/internship and effective socialization. The relationships of the characteristics of prior co-op/internship such as the length of the work experience, the number of assignments, the number of employers, and similarity of the previous jobs to the current job with effective socialization will also be investigated.

Prior participation in a structured work program. The literature on job search and early work transitions suggests that internships may aid individuals in the difficult transition from school to work. Van Maanen (1984) stated that the socialization experiences acquired by employees in their previous jobs can be transferred to their new job setting. Based on previous studies, Ashford and Taylor (1990) maintained that the breadth of one's past experiences partly determines the complexity of the schema used in a particular situation. Subsequently, a broader range of past experiences will result in a more complex job-related schema that should facilitate the detection of relevant cues (Louis, 1980a).

Prior work experience could decrease the level of uncertainty associated with newcomer entry into the organization. The employee will be able to learn the requirements of the new job as well as understand the cultural ramifications that go with it. Having prior work experience will encourage proactive behavior on the part of these employees, thereby increasing their likelihood of learning to function within their work groups, and learning and adjusting to organizational pivotal norms and values. Participating in Co-op has been found to result in greater career clarity and better career choice. Such advantages will enhance personal learning and result in greater role clarity. Thus,

> Hypothesis 3A: Employees who have participated in a structured work program will experience (a) greater task mastery, (b) greater success in functioning within their work group, (c) greater knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) greater personal learning and (e) greater role clarity than employees who have not participated in a structured work program.

Characteristics of prior work experience. This refers to the extensiveness and variety of prior work experience as well as the similarity of such prior work experience to the current job. While the extensiveness of prior work experience indicates the number of co-op or internship assignments the newcomer had, the variety of prior work experience refers to the particular employers he or she worked for. The similarity of work experience refers to the similarity between the work performed during co-op or internships and the employee's current job. Similarity with regard to company, industry, function, and task characteristics will be investigated. Specific predictions will be made for the variety and extensiveness of prior work experience.

Extensiveness of work experience:

Hypothesis 3B - The extensiveness of employees' prior work experience will be positively related to (a) task mastery, (b) success in functioning within their work group, (c) knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) personal learning and (e) role clarity.

Variety of work experience

Hypothesis 3C - The variety of employees' prior work experience will be associated with (a) task mastery, (b) success in functioning within their work group, (c) knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) personal learning and (e) role clarity.

Work task similarity. The more similar the task requirements of the old and new jobs, the easier it will be to end the disruption associated with job transition by re-enacting old routines (Brett, 1980; Louis, 1980a). Fisher (1986) stated that having held a past job similar to the new job probably means that anticipatory socialization can be extensive and accurate, and that learning both technical skill and social content will occur quickly. The co-op and internship literature has associated jobs characterized by such factors as

responsibility, creativity, and interaction with fellow workers with increased personal growth, career clarity, and career readiness (Page et al., 1981). Through the socialization literature, the more realistic the expectations of newcomers into the organization are, the easier and faster it will be for the employees to adjust successfully. Similarity between the job content and job context in prior jobs and current job is of interest. This would be reflected in the job function, the department, company or industry in which prior jobs relative to current jobs were carried out. Implicitly, these studies suggest that the higher the degree of similarity in the job content and job context between prior work experience and the newcomer's job, the higher the degree of effective socialization. Thus,

> Hypothesis 3D: Work similarity between prior co-op/internship and employee's job will be positively related to (a) task mastery, (b) functioning within the work group (c) knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) personal learning and (e) role clarity.

Personal   Factors

Traditionally, the organizational socialization literature views individuals as passive and malleable. Often individuals are portrayed as lumps of clay, ready to be shaped by all those around them ranging from co-worker to supervisor to mentor (Bell & Staw, 1989). According to Schneider (1983), little work has been accomplished on conceptualizing or studying the role of person variables in socialization. This failure seems to be particularly acute when one notes that the way people in an organization behave is a function of contextual factors which, mostly, are other people. Schneider observed that why most people become socialized to a setting has not been of as much interest as how they become socialized. A focus on persons provide some insight into the why. Self-monitoring (Snyder, 1974; Snyder & Ickes, 1985) is the personal factor that will be considered in this study.

Self-monitoring. Self-monitoring refers to an individual's tendency to rely on features of the situation when making behavioral choices (Snyder, 1974). It assesses the ability of people to observe and control their expressive behavior and self-representation in response to situational cues (Snyder, 1979). High self-monitors are those individuals whose behavior is largely regulated by situational contingencies. Their behavior is more influenced by situational factors than by their inner feelings, attitudes, and dispositions (Dobbins, Long, Dedrick, & Clemons, 1990). Low self-monitors, by contrast, rely on their own inner states in making behavioral choices. They are more resistant to situational pressures or less inclined to view situations as strong or compelling. As Dobbins et al. (1990) stated, low self-monitors do not change their behavior to match the situation.

Bell and Staw (1989) included self-monitoring in their model of personality and personality control on the basis of its robustness in prior research and promise for future empirical study. Zahrly and Tosi (1989) examined the relationships among previous work experience, early organizational experience and personality factors with organizational and personal outcomes such as job satisfaction, role conflict, role ambiguity, cohesion, influence, and work/family conflict. The direct relationship between self-monitoring and the outcomes was investigated. They also examined the interaction between self-monitoring and the socialization tactics. Support for a main effect was found between self-monitoring and work/family conflict, but the moderating effect of self-monitoring between the socialization tactic and the outcomes was not supported. They found a positive relationship between self-monitoring and work/family conflict. They maintain that employees who are low in self-monitoring would not perceive conflict even if it exists. However, employees who are high in self-monitoring perceived conflict regardless of the socialization tactics. The results of this study might be specific to this particular situation. The sample for the study consisted of employees in a manufacturing plant at the start-up stage, with long work hours, and days on/days off schedules. As Zahrly and Tosi (1989) stated, potential for conflict existed in such a work environment. The time span (four months) for the study could also have contributed to the positive relationship found between self-monitoring and work/family conflict; in the long run, the individuals high in

self-monitoring might be able to deal with the conflict situation better.

This study will differ from Zahrly and Tosi's (1989) because the characteristics of the samples are different - low skilled workers as opposed to more skilled workers. Their sample size was eighty compared to 200 for this study. Moreover, the dependent variables are different. The relationship between self-monitoring and indicators of effective socialization has not been investigated empirically. A direct relationship between self-monitoring and effective socialization is posited. Newcomer entry into the organization is characterized by high degree of uncertainty. In order to successfully acquire the socialization content or the information imparted during the socialization process, newcomers have to be aware of their work environment. Paying attention to situational cues is critical for successful adjustment into the organization. Newcomers have to rely on relevant insiders to make sense of what goes on around them such as learning to function within the work group and learning the organizational culture. As such the socialization period emphasizes awareness and reaction to situational cues. Self-monitoring can be expected to influence rates of task learning and the rapidity and ease of socialization experiences as individuals cross organizational boundaries (Cummings, 1982). High self-monitors (HSMs) will be more proactive and seek out insiders to "make sense" of the new situation thereby exhibiting behavior patterns that match group members' expectations (Dobbins et al., 1990). HSMs' concern for exhibiting the appropriate behavior and their attention to social comparison information provides them with the basis to learn more about themselves. This is especially likely during newcomer socialization where similar information will be absorbed continuously and then reconciled with the inner self. HSMs are also more likely to achieve role clarity. As Elliot (1979) stated, HSMs spend more time reviewing background information so that they accurately understand their audience. Similarly, in a work organization, HSMs will be more likely to understand the attitudes, behaviors, and expectations of their role set thereby achieving better role clarity. Thus it follows:

> Hypothesis 4: Self-monitoring will be associated with (a)
> greater task mastery, (b) greater success in functioning

within the work group (c) greater knowledge and adjustment to organizational pivotal norms and values (d) greater personal learning and (e) greater role clarity.

Summary

The first section of this chapter laid the theoretical and conceptual foundation for the development of the model. The rationale for the choice of the indicators of effective socialization was provided. In the second section, the model of effective socialization was presented. Discussion included the description of the variables that comprise the model. The rationale and justification for the choice of the predictor/independent variables were incorporated into the development of the hypotheses. Four main hypotheses were presented.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology for testing the hypotheses. The independent as well as the additive relationships of organizational factors, prior work experience, and personal factors with effective socialization will be investigated. The research design, research setting and sample, measures, and statistical analysis will also be discussed.

Research Design

The hypotheses identified in the previous chapter were tested using a correlational design. Data were collected cross-sectionally. This implies that the levels of both the presumed effects and the exposure to presumed causes are measured concurrently thereby making it impossible to determine causality. However, the correlational design increases our understanding of relationships among variables, allows the prediction of criterion outcome based on predictor information, and promotes model testing (Keppel & Zedeck, 1989). For instance, the proposed relationships in this study have not been investigated empirically in prior research. The cross-sectional correlational design will enhance our understanding of the contribution made by the antecedent variables to socialization effectiveness. Knowledge of such relationships will contribute to the understanding of the effectiveness of the socialization process, and to the empirical literature in organizational socialization. The study's focus on the socialization process rather than the traditional outcome variables contributes to the growing need for broadening the research scope in organizational behavior. As such the study provides a basis for future empirical work.

Research Setting and Sample

Initial contact with three companies in the Southeastern Pennsylvania area was established through the Provost and President of the university. Three letters were sent to the three companies along with a one page summary of the proposed study. Two of the companies expressed interest in participating in the study through their contact persons. One of the companies sent two brochures describing a transitional career development program that supplied the sample for the study. Once the company agreed to participate in the study, general information about the company was gathered from the library. A company visit was scheduled with the company, and presentations included a detailed explanation of the purpose and focus of the study. Confidentiality of company information was emphasized. Feedback and expectations from both sides were discussed. Enthusiasm for the study was expressed by company representatives. However, both parties agreed that the ideas presented were still subject to the committee's approval. Interviews with some of the employees were arranged later. The company that agreed to participate in the study is a Chemical and Gas company. A fictitious name will be used to preserve its anonymity.

The Chemical and Gas company (CAG) is a Fortune 200 company with over $2 billion dollar in sales. It is a manufacturer of both chemicals and industrial gases and is dominant in the domestic and international markets. The company combines technological expertise and marketing skills to serve to its customers. Its services range from direct supply of these products to turnkey projects. Such turnkey projects could involve the design, manufacturing, supply, monitoring, and maintenance of the facilities in the customer's premises.

The company prides itself on its entrepreneurial spirit which it traces back to its humble beginnings as a one man business fifty years ago. It established a Career Development Program (CDP) designed to foster the entrepreneurial spirit in its new employees as well as develop a high quality work force. The company employs about 4,000 employees in its domestic operations and has plants in Europe and the Pacific. Sixty percent of its new employees are college graduates and are categorized as exempt. Forty

percent of these employees have little or no work experience. The remaining exempt employees who have more than two years of full time prior work experience are assigned to the departments where they are best suited. Alternatively, newcomers without extensive prior work experience become participants in a centralized career development program.

The Career Development Program at CAG - The career development program is designed for newly hired college graduates who have not had extensive prior work experience. The program provides them with career development assistance through counseling and up to three rotational assignments. It is not a structured program, but rather is a rotational program whereby newcomers are provided with actual work experience in different operations within the company. Each assignment can last for up to ten months and each employee undertakes up to three different assignments before completing the program. Some CDPs could be assigned to permanent jobs after completing one or two assignments. Employees participate in the program for a period of two to three years. Proactive career management is desired; new employees are encouraged to consult with the program coordinator, and discuss with fellow program participants, supervisors, and co-workers when seeking or before deciding on any future assignment. The program coordinator plays a critical role in the newcomers' career development in the company. He or she functions as the human resource manager providing direction and facilitating assignment selection. Meetings with the employees are initiated on a regular basis to further define the newcomer's career interests and development needs. "The ultimate goal of the CDP is to establish an optimal match between an individual's longer term plans and an opening in a functional area of the company" (CDP Handbook, p. 3).

Sample. The present sample was comprised of new employees in the company described above. A sample of 204 new hires who have been employed with the company for between three months and three years and are participants in the Career Development Program were invited to participate in the study. The respondents were limited to employees without extensive prior full time work experience before joining the organization. For instance, the participants' prior work experience ranged from none to less than two years; employees with prior co-ops/internships are all candidates for the CDP;

a maximum of thirty six months is spent in the CDP. Hence, the characteristics of this pool of employees are appropriate for the study of newcomer socialization. However, it is important to note that organizational differences, type of job, and other factors can affect how long it takes the newcomer to be effectively socialized.

The three-month cut-off period for this study was established in consultation with company officials, is consistent with the prior socialization literature (Zahrly, 1989), and assured that all members of the sample had at least a minimum exposure to the company at the time of the study. The question of how long it takes a newcomer to be socialized has been arbitrarily answered. For instance, Louis (1980a) maintained that it takes the newcomers from 6 to 10 months to learn the ropes of the new setting and cope with the differences between their expectations prior to entry and the experienced reality. Buchanan (1974) distinguished between three socialization stages ranging from the first year on the job to five or more years on the job. Feldman's (1976) study consisted of employees who have been in the organization from less than one year to more than one year. Baker (1988) categorized his sample into three clusters/cohorts: less than 2 years, 2-5 years, and more than 5 years respectively. As Van Maanen and Schein (1979) stated, socialization is a continuous process. However, it is at the boundary passage that more important events take place. In this study, effective socialization will be determined for employees who have been with the company for at least three months and up to three years. It is assumed that proficiency in the acquisition of the socialization content increases over the course of time.

Questionnaires were prepared for both the participants and their respective supervisors. The participants' questionnaire was pilot tested on two of the employees previously selected to participate in the study; one of the supervisors pilot tested the supervisors' questionnaire. Three company officials were also asked to read carefully both questionnaires to check for consistency in wording and meaning of items in reference to the company as well as to provide feedback. As a result of the above, the following modifications were made in the participants' questionnaire: 3 items were deleted from the socialization tactics scale because they were not applicable in this study; 3 items that were of interest to the company were added to the job scope scale; 3 filler items were added to

the job stress scale to break the response bias of negatively worded items.

The questionnaires were administered both in-house (i.e., on company premises) and by internal company mail. Of the 204 CDP participants, 2 were engaged in pilot testing, 1 was in Europe on Sabbatical, and 1 had left the company. Letters were sent to the 200 employees inviting them to participate in the study. The letter explained briefly the purpose of the study, emphasized the confidentiality of their responses, and affirmed the study's endorsement by the company. Return slips were provided where respondents indicated their willingness to participate in the research as well as their preferred mode of responding to the questionnaires. They could attend either of two sessions at two different times at a designated company premise where the questionnaires were to be administered by the researchers. Alternatively, they could have the questionnaires mailed to their company's address. Of the 95 participants who preferred to fill out the questionnaires in-house, 78 were present and returned the completed surveys directly to the researchers. One hundred and twenty two questionnaires were administered by internal company mail. All the questionnaires included cover letters reiterating the purpose the study, the confidentiality of the responses, and the endorsement by the company. The mail respondents returned the questionnaires directly to the researchers in an enclosed stamped and self-addressed envelope. The respective supervisors received questionnaires and a personalized cover letter signed by a top official in the company by internal company mail requesting their participation. A stamped self-addressed envelope was also included with each of the questionnaires to ensure direct response to the researchers.

Questionnaires were received from 173 of the CDP participants and from 175 of their supervisors indicating a response rate of 86% and 85% for the participants and their supervisors respectively. However, the interest of the study is on the matched responses of both the participants and their respective supervisors. One hundred and forty three of the questionnaires returned were matched responses indicating a 73% response rate. Follow-up response letters were sent five weeks after the initial administration of the questionnaires. A total of 180 matched responses were obtained, 2 unusable, resulting in an 89% total response rate. A MANOVA was used to test for difference between the mean

responses of the major study variables for the two groups (those who responded to the questionnaire in-house coded as 1 and those who responded by mail coded as 2). The multivariate F was not significant; only one variable showed a significant difference. Table 3 indicates mean responses of .95 and .74 at p< .01 for acceptance of organizational culture for the in-house and mail respondents, respectively. This is not considered a substantial difference between the two groups because some of the participants who initially agreed to respond to the survey in-house had to attend a concurrent and pre-scheduled off-company seminar. As such, it is not meaningful to use the mode of administration of the survey for further analysis in the study, and the groups were combined.

Insert Table 3 About Here

As was stated previously, the sample for the study consists of employees who had been in the organization for up to 3 years and are participants in the career development program. However, because the length of time each individual spends in the program could vary, some employees included in the sample had already left the program and had been assigned to their permanent positions. Only information obtained from employees currently participating in the CDP at the time the questionnaires were administered were used for data analysis. Of the 178 matched responses received, 131 of the respondents were still in the career development program and 47 had recently completed the program. Further discussion on the participants or respondents will be limited to this group of respondents who are currently in the program. Hence, information reported in retrospect were not used for data analysis for the purpose of this research. However, collecting information on those who had recently left the program could provide valuable information to the company of study as well as contribute to later analysis.

The characteristics of the respondents and their supervisors are presented in Table 4. Nearly two-thirds of respondents were male and the sample averaged 25 years of age.

All of the respondents had a college degree, and 28% had a graduate or professional degree. Eighty nine percent of the respondents were Caucasian and 19% were non-caucasian. Race was coded as 1 for African-american, 2 for Caucasian, 3 for Asian, and 4 for other. However, the non-caucasians were collapsed into one category because of the small sample size. Race was then recoded as 1 = Caucasian, and 0 = Non-caucasian. Respondents held assignments in various job functions with 22.2% engaged in computer modeling and computer science, 11.5% in process engineering jobs, 8.5% in jobs in operations, 7.6% in project engineering, and 26.7% in jobs in functional areas including environmental affairs, research and development, financial analysis, marketing, and other areas. The average organizational tenure for the respondents was 16 months (standard deviation = 8.5 months).

The characteristics of the supervisors are also presented in Table 4. Over nine-tenths of the respondents were males and the sample averaged 40 years of age. Eighty percent of the respondents had a college degree, and 63% had a graduate or professional degree. Ninety four percent of the respondents were Caucasian and 6% were non-caucasian. Race was coded as 1 for African-american, 2 for Caucasian, 3 for Asian, and 4 for other. However, the non-caucasian were collapsed into one category because of the small sample size. Race was then recoded as 1 = Caucasian, and 0 = Non-caucasian. The average organizational tenure for the supervisors was 166 months (standard deviation = 66.6 months).

Insert Table 4 about here

Measures

The measures for the independent and dependent variables are discussed in this section. The discussion will include identifying the measure to be used, the rationale and

empirical justification for its use.

Predictor/Independent Variables

Socialization tactics. Socialization tactics were assessed with a 35-item scale consisting of 27 items slightly modified from the original 30-item scale developed by Jones (1986), 6 support items from scales developed by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) and Parasuraman, Greenhaus, and Granrose (1991), and 2 new items. A pilot test of the administered questionnaire revealed that three items from the Jones scale were not applicable to the participating organization and as such, were eliminated.

Jones' scale was developed as a measure of perceived socialization tactics based on Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) typology. The thirty items measure six distinct tactics of organizational socialization, with each tactic containing five items and expressed as a continuum (see Appendix A). The scales are based on a Likert-type format and they measure the extent to which individuals perceive the different ways in which they are socialized into the organization. Responses are measured on 7-point scales with anchors ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Jones' reliability analysis revealed alpha coefficients of .84, .68, .79, .78, .78, and .79 for the Collective versus Individual, Formal versus Informal, Investiture versus divestiture, Sequential versus random, Serial versus disjunctive, and the Fixed versus variable scales respectively.

A number of studies provide empirical support for Jones' scale (e.g., Baker, 1988; Feldman & Weitz, 1990). However, the use of his scale might raise two issues of concern: (1) the level of analysis, and (2) the level of expected variation in the mean responses of the socialization tactics within the same company.

Level of analysis - The construct of socialization tactics can be assessed at either the organizational level or the individual level. The socialization tactics identified by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) are representative of the variety of techniques used by different organizations to structure newcomers' early experiences. Although these techniques or socialization tactics can be objectively identified for various organizations, they could be

experienced differently by employees, thereby providing justification for assessing socialization tactics at the individual level of analysis. The socialization tactics were validated by Jones (1986) at the individual level of analysis. He focused on how the newcomers perceived the socialization tactics used by their respective organizations. Baker (1988) and Feldman and Weitz (1990) also relied on the participants' perception of the socialization tactics used by their various organizations.

Secondly, how much variation can be expected from newcomer perception of these socialization tactics within the same organization? Baker's study was based on four organizations. He found that the socialization tactics varied across job categories and job functions, within the organizations but he did not find support for variation between organizations. As Baker (1988) stated, Bray, Campbell, and Grant (1974) found that no uniform set of procedures was used in the socialization of newly hired managers. The responsibility for the newcomers' socialization varied from department to department and the major means of socialization was job rotation throughout the organization. Participants for the present study were drawn from one company. However, the CDP, which is the source of our sample in CAG, provides new employees with rotational assignments to different departments or company groups and supervisors. This will result in different socialization experiences for these new employees.

In summary, it is believed that socialization tactics can be investigated at the individual level of analysis. It is meaningful to investigate the socialization tactics within the same organization because variation in the mean responses to these tactics is expected.

Two separate factor analysis were conducted for the socialization tactics scale. The first factor analysis consisted of the 27 slightly-modified items from the original 30-item scale developed by Jones (1986). The purpose of this factor analysis was to confirm the apriori dimensions of the original scale as empirically validated by Jones (1986). The 27 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on 10 factors; the results of the factor analysis were not consistent with those of Jones (1986) discussed previously. Next, a reliability analysis was conducted for the six apriori dimensions identified by Jones to verify the internal consistencies of the sub-scales. The alpha

coefficients ranged from .11 for the sequential vs. random scale to .66 for the total scale. Only the Cronbach alpha for the total scale was acceptable. According to Nunnally (1978), alpha levels near .90 suggest a high level of consistency for the scale while alpha levels near .70 reflect a moderate level of consistency, and alpha levels near .30 indicate a low level of consistency among the items in the scale.

In the second analysis, 35 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items included the 27 items from the original scale, and 8 additional items. Four of the additional items were expected to represent the investiture vs. divestiture dimension; two of the items reflected the serial vs. disjunctive dimension; and the remaining two items were not related to any specific dimension. The criterion of eigen value greater than 1 was used to determine the number of factors to be extracted. Varimax rotation was also specified. Thirteen factors emerged. This number of factors was inconsistent with the apriori dimensions of socialization tactics identified by Jones (1986) as well as the theoretical literature on socialization tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Subsequently, a varying number of factors was stipulated for the factor analysis.

The number of factor solutions initiated was guided by Jones' categorization of socialization tactics. According to Jones (1986) socialization tactics can be described as a continuum: the institutionalized tactics and the individualized tactics. The institutionalized tactics consists of collective, formal, fixed, serial, sequential, and investiture while the individualized tactics consists of the opposite end of the continuum which are individual, informal, random, disjunctive, and divestiture. Jones also maintained that the various socialization tactics can be seen to reflect different aspects of the situation. He maintained that while the collective and formal dimensions are concerned with the contextual aspects of the situation, the sequential and fixed are focused on the content, and the serial and investiture are concerned with the social aspects of the situation. As a result, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 factor solutions were explored. Table 5 presents the results of the six factor solution. The six factor solution seems to be parsimonious and consistent with the six apriori dimensions of socialization tactics identified by Jones. Further validation of the six factor solution was undertaken through a reliability analysis. Factors 4 and 5 had alpha

coefficients of .55 and .50 respectively, while factor 6 had an alpha coefficient of .29. Due to the low alpha coefficients of these three factors, they were not retained for further analysis. However, factors 1, 2, and 3 had alpha coefficients of .83, .69, and .64 respectively. These three factors were retained for further analysis. A description of these factors is presented below:

Insert Table 5 About Here

Factor 1 (Experienced Colleagues). Factor 1 consists of items that focus on the role of experienced organizational members and the role of the newcomers' supervisors in helping the newcomers adjust to the organization. The nine items that loaded on this factor included four items from the investiture vs. divestiture dimension, four items from the serial vs. disjunctive dimension, and one item from the fixed vs. variable dimension.

Factor 2 (Training). Factor 2 consists of items that focus on the types of and/or arrangement of training or learning experiences that the organization provides to the newcomers. The four items that loaded on this factor consisted of two items from the sequential vs. random dimension, one item from the collective vs. individual dimension, and the last item is from the formal vs. informal dimension.

Factor 3 (Co-workers). Factor 3 consists of items that focus on the role of co-workers on the newcomers' early organizational experiences. The three items that loaded on this factor included two items from the investiture vs. divestiture dimension and one new item.

Although factor 1 and factor 3 are closely related, factor 1 focused on the relationship among the new employees, their supervisors, and/or experienced organizational members, whereas factor 3 focused on the relationship between the newcomers and their co-workers. It is important to emphasize that although the two

factors were related (r=.42, p<.001) as shown in Table 6, they are considered as distinct constructs.

In summary, factors 1, 2, and 3 will be retained for hypothesis testing. The composite score for the entire scale will also be retained for model testing. As Jones stated, each dimension is measured as a continuum such that higher scores reflect institutionalized tactics and lower scores reflect individualized tactics.

Insert Table 6 About Here

Job scope. This variable was measured through a revised version of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) originally developed by Hackman and Oldham (1974, 1975). The JDS is designed to measure incumbents' perceptions of the job characteristics, their satisfaction, and internal motivation (Kulik, Langner, & Oldham, 1988). The sample for the study consists of employees who have been in the organization for varied periods of time. This suggests that while some of the newcomers could be on their first job assignment others might be on their second or third assignment. Job characteristics for each of the three assignments were assessed with a 15-item, five scale measure reflecting the job scope dimensions of variety, autonomy, identity, feedback, and significance (Appendix B). Reported coefficient alpha reliabilities for these scales range from .59 to .79. However, the job scope for the first assignment is used to test the hypotheses. Every participant in the study is participating or has participated in a first assignment. Consistent with the socialization literature, experiences within the first couple of months are essential to successful adaptation. However, the proposed relationships in the model are examined for different assignment periods as additional analyses.

Presently, the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1974, 1975) seems to be the most popular perceptual measure of job characteristics. However, its popularity has been

attributed more to Hackman and Oldham's theory of job characteristics (on which the JDS was based) than to the psychometric properties of the instrument itself (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987). Irrespective of the success that past researchers have had in predicting job satisfaction and satisfaction with the work itself on the basis of measured job characteristics, the construct validity of the commonly used job characteristics measures (such as the JDS and JCI) has been questioned on several occasions (Zaccaro & Stone, 1988). More empirical scrutiny has focused on the JDS' underlying dimensionality. For example, Pierce and Dunham noted that "the task dimensions studied in job design research have generally not been guided by any conceptually or empirically developed typology of task design" (1976, p. 94). Harvey, Billings, and Nilan (1985) tried to resolve the dimensionality issue using a confirmatory factor analysis. They found measurement artifacts and concluded that the JDS measure in its original form is psychometrically "troublesome." Building on Harvey et al. (1985) findings, Idaszak and Drasgow (1987) seem to have resolved the dimensionality issue using a confirmatory factor analysis and LISREL. They found a measurement artifact which they attributed to the reverse scoring of five items in the original survey as was suggested by Harvey et al. (1985). They eliminated the measurement artifact by rewording the five items, so that all of the items on the survey could be scored in the same direction. The reliability estimates for the revised JDS measure according to Idaszak and Glasgow (1987) are : .74, .65, .78, .70, and .56 for skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy, and feedback respectively compared to that of the old version (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) of .58, .53, .73, .68, and .60.

Kulik, Oldham, and Langner (1988) used similar techniques (confirmatory factor analysis and LISREL) to compare the original and revised Job Diagnostic Survey. They found that the revised JDS items conformed more closely to the five-factor structure proposed by Job Characteristic Theory than did the original JDS items. However, they maintained that the revised items did not generally improve the JDS's usefulness in predicting several outcomes. Kulik et al. concluded that switching to this new version at this time is premature. They suggested that further research should focus on further

cleaning up of the original JDS items such as developing alternative items for autonomy and feedback or examining the JDS outcome measures for multidimensionality. There was also concern for comparisons with previous research in the area.

The revised JDS (Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987) is appropriate because it provides a cleaner measure of the job scope dimensions that are of interest in this study. The relationships proposed between job scope and the dimensions of effective socialization have rarely been investigated empirically. The revised items are incorporated in the JDS instrument in Appendix B. The 15 items measuring job scope were factor analyzed and rotated to a varimax solution. The items loaded on 4 factors. The results of the factor analysis shown in Table 7 are consistent with expectations. Both the individual job scope variables and the unweighted mean of the five job scope dimensions were obtained. Support for such an additive model is provided by Brief, Wallace, and Aldag (1976) who found that an additive job scope model performed as well as a conjunctive model. Dunham (1976) also concluded that a single dimensional representation of job characteristics might be most parsimonious and suggested an additive model for combining elements of job characteristics. Bechtold, Sims, and Szilagyi (1981) also used a composite measure of job characteristics as measured in the Job Characteristic Inventory (JCI) (Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976) to assess job scope.

Insert Table 7 About Here

The autonomy items loaded on the first factor, the feedback items loaded on the second factor, and the identity items loaded on the third factor. The one task significance item included in the scale, loaded on the fourth factor along with the skill variety items. Alpha coefficients for the four factors were .86, .78, .71, and .27 for autonomy, feedback, identity, and variety respectively. However, verification of the item-total statistics suggested the deletion of one item in the variety scale which increased the alpha coefficient

for the variety scale to .70. The alpha coefficient for the 15 items or the composite scale measuring job scope was .81, and deletion of the variety item resulted in an alpha coefficient of .84. The 14-item scale was retained for further analysis. The relatively high alpha coefficients obtained for the job scope items are consistent with those predicted by Idaszak and Drasgow (1987) for the modified Job Characteristics scale.

Prior participation in a structured work program. Information was gathered on the participants' prior work experiences. Although the focus of the study is on structured work programs, collecting information from only those who participated in co-op or internship might limit the sample. As such, information was gathered for all prior work experience indicated by each respondent. Respondents were asked to answer "Yes" or "No" to whether they had any work experience before joining the organization. If the answer is "No" they were instructed to go to the next section (section IV of the survey) or else they were to answer questions A through E relating to prior work experience. Prior work experience was assessed by a single-item question on a 5-point scale. Respondents were asked to indicate the type of prior work experience they had before joining the organization. The response was coded as follows: Co-op = 1; Internship = 2; Full time (specify) = 3; Part time = 4; Summer = 5; Other (specify) = 6.

Total work experience or extensiveness of prior work experience. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of co-ops/internships/full time/part time/summer/other assignments they have had before joining the organization. Anchors ranged from 1 to 5 for each prior work experience. The total work experience of each employee was calculated by determining how many of each type of work experience the employee had before joining the company. Total work experience represents the unweighted sum of all the work experience (co-ops/internships/full time/part time/summer/other assignments) the employee had before joining the company.

Total co-op and /or internship. Information was gathered on the number of co-op and/or internship respondents had before joining the organization. Total co-op and/or internship experience is the unweighted sum of the number of cooperative education experiences and/or internship experiences the newcomer had before joining the company.

Essentially, the total coop and/or internship score is a subset of the total work experience score.

Characteristics of prior work experience. The characteristics of prior work experience include the extensiveness (total work experience) of the prior work experience discussed above, the variety (number of different employers) of the prior work experience, and the similarity between prior work experience and the current job.

Information on two of the components (variety and similarity of prior work experience) were obtained through a reconstruction of the participants' job history and a generation of a work similarity index between prior jobs and current job. The format used by Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) as well as the similarity of work experience scale developed by Siedel (1982) were adapted with slight modification. Greenhaus et al. (1990) gathered information about the participants' job history through a tabulated and open-ended format. Information on the participants' job experience, job title, job tenure for prior and current jobs were gathered as well as the level of responsibility on prior jobs relative to current job.

The tabulated and open-ended format was used to gather information regarding the participants' job history for the present study. Each participant could list up to six different prior work experiences. For each prior work experience, the participant was asked to indicate the job title, the department, job tenure, company, and industry.

Variety of prior work experience. The number of different employers respondents worked for was deciphered from their job history information. The variety of employers was calculated as the unweighted sum of the number of different companies a newcomer worked for in any capacity before joining the current organization. For example, if an employee worked for four different companies in his or her six prior jobs, he or she would get a score of 4 for this variable.

Similarity of prior work experience to current job. Siedel (1982) developed a composite similarity score measuring the degree of similarity between previous jobs and current jobs. She developed an objective list of job functions, fields, industry, and tasks performed by engineers. Respondents were required to fill out two

questionnaires at time 1 and 2. While information regarding the previous work experience was gathered in time 1, that of the current job was gathered in time 2. A similarity index was generated by comparing previous job experience activities and those of current job. A single-item 7-point scale anchoring from "not at all similar" to "very similar" was also used to acquire a global measure of similarity. The different job categories and tasks generated by Siedel were specific to the engineering profession but the general framework is applicable to this study.

For the present study, this information was gathered in two ways - from the job history information described above and from the generation of an objective task list. The job history provided information on whether the respondent carried out similar functions in the past; worked in the same department; worked in the same company; worked in the same industry; or performed the same tasks. For each prior work experience listed by the respondent, similarity scores were generated for each of the seven categories (job title/function, department, company, industry, and tasks performed) with 1 indicating 'not similar' and 2 indicating 'similar'

An objective task list was generated to determine if the respondents have performed some objectively identified tasks related to their current jobs. Upon consultation with the company and reference to the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, a list of tasks (Appendix C) representative of the tasks performed by the respondents was generated. The task list enabled further comparison between the content of the current job and prior jobs.

Respondents were asked whether they have performed or assisted in the performance of any of the listed tasks in any of their previous jobs; and whether they have done so in any of their current jobs. Two columns A and B are provided. They were asked to place a check in column A for each task they performed or assisted in performing before joining the company. A check is placed in column B for each task performed or assisted in performing within the CDP program in CAG.

The degree of similarity of prior work experience to current job was measured by generating an index of similarity between previous jobs and current job. Similarity indices were generated from the job history information for each of the seven categories (job

title/function, department, company, industry, and tasks performed). A respondent received a score of 1 for each job function performed within CAG that had also been performed in a previous job. Similar scoring was carried out with respect to the company and industry. The respondents also got a score of 1 for each specific tasks performed in both a previous job and a current job.

A total index score was computed for each category and standardized z scores of each total score were calculated. A composite similarity score between prior co-op or internships or other previous jobs and current job was obtained from the unweighted sum of the z scores of the five similarity dimensions. A single-item measure used by Siedel (1982) to obtain a global measure of similarity was also used. Respondents were asked to indicate how similar their prior work experience is to the jobs they have been performing in their present organization. Responses are anchored on a 7-point scale ranging from "not at all similar" (1) to "very similar" (7). The combination of the objective and subjective measure will reduce common method variance. Intercorrelations among the prior work experience factors shown in Table 8 suggest that these different dimensions of total work similarity could reflect different constructs. As such the hypothesis testing were conducted with the individual similarity scores.

Insert Table 8 About Here

Self-monitoring. This variable was measured with an 18-item version (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985) (see Appendix D) of the 25-item self-monitoring scale developed by Snyder (1974). The scale employs a true-false self-report format to identify individuals high and low in self-monitoring. It measures differences between individual's attention to and utilization of situational cues when developing attitudes and behaviors. Responses to all 25 items are combined into a single scale. A number of studies provide empirical support for both the self-monitoring construct and the scale (see Gangestad &

Snyder for complete list of these studies). However, the self-monitoring scale has been criticized for its multidimensionality and fundamental psychometric weaknesses (Briggs, Cheek, & Buss, 1980; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). Gangestad and Snyder (1985) addressed the controversy over the validity and factor structure of the self-monitoring scale. They acknowledged the probable existence of sub-factors but pointed out that most of the scale items load positively on the first unrotated factor. Furthermore, they presented clear evidence that the overall score of the self-monitoring scale is meaningful and recommended an 18-item revised version of the self-monitoring scale. The new scale had an internal consistency alpha of .70 compared to the internal consistency alpha of .66 for the original 25-item scale. Gangestad and Snyder (1985) also maintained that the revised measure is more factorially pure than the original with the first unrotated factor accounting for 62% of the variance compared to 51% for the unrotated factor in the 25-item measure. For further discussion of empirical validation of the revised scale see Gangestad and Snyder (1986).

The 18 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on six factors with eigen values greater than one. The results of the factor analysis attest to the existence of sub-factors as discussed above. However, the percentage of variance explained by the first and second unrotated factors (16.1% and 11.2% respectively), are not consistent with prior studies discussed above. But a composite scale was adopted based on prior studies and an alpha coefficient of .65. As Snyder (1974) maintained, the scale has demonstrated internal consistency, stability over time, and discriminant validity.

Demographic variables. Information on major demographic characteristics was gathered through company records as presented previously. Organizational tenure, job or assignment tenure, current job title, age, gender, education, race, school attended and level of education for each participant were obtained from the company. Education was coded as a four-level variable (1= some college, 2=college degree, 3=graduate or professional education, and 4=graduate or professional degree). The demographic or background variables provide information on some individual characteristics on which more predictions can be based. On the other hand, these individual variables are possible confounders that can also be statistically controlled to enhance the internal validity of the

study.

Outcome/Dependent Variables

Task mastery.   This variable was measured by a 14-item scale specifically developed for this study (see Appendix E). Items were generated from the performance evaluation form used by the participating company. The items were worded to reflect respondents' mastery and confidence in performing the tasks. Responses are anchored on a six point format ranging from "all the time" to "none of the time" adapted from Pearling, Liberman, Menaghan, and Mullan (1981).   Task mastery was assessed by both the respondents and their respective supervisors. However, consistent with the company's performance evaluation system, supervisors' ratings were retained for analysis.

The 14 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on two factors as shown in Table 9. Examination of the factor analysis results suggest that a one factor pattern is reasonable and will achieve better parsimony. For example, the first factor had an eigen value of 7.82 and accounted for 55.8% of the variance and the second factor had an eigen value of 1.11 and accounted for 7.9% of the variance. Moreover, the factors were difficult to interpret as two conceptually distinct factors thereby suggesting a one-factor pattern. A reliability analysis for the composite scale including all 14 items produced an alpha coefficient of .94.

In summary, the disparity between the eigen values of factors 1 and 2, the variance explained by each factor, and the high alpha coefficient of the composite scale further strengthen the need for adopting a one factor pattern. As such, one-dimensional scale was retained consisting of all fourteen items.

Insert Table 9 About Here

Functioning within the work group. A 12-item scale was developed to assess how successfully the newcomer is functioning within his or her work group (Appendix F). Each of the items reflects what one would expect new employees to consider in evaluating the extent to which they have learned to work with others. For instance, the newcomer should have an explicit or implicit agreement with his or her work unit on what tasks to perform (Feldman, 1981). Understanding the group norms and values, and making a satisfactory adjustment to group culture are important for the newcomer's successful functioning within the work group. The items do not directly assess the group's norms, values or culture. Rather, the questions assess acceptance, fit, trust, and feeling of belongingness to the group which implicitly reflect adjustment to the group culture. The first six items are taken from Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990). They are part of a longer scale of "corporate fit" developed by Nixon (1985). Responses were rated on a five point scale anchored from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The remaining seven items were drawn from or developed from previous studies (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Levine & Moreland, 1990; Nelson & Sutton, 1990). Responses are indicated on a 5-point scale anchored from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

The 12 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on two factors as shown in Table 10. The first factor had an eigen value of 4.93 and explained 41.1% of the total variance while the second factor had an eigen value of 1.41 and explained 11.7% of the variance. An examination of the two factors suggests that a one factor pattern dominates because the factors were difficult to interpret as two conceptually distinct factors. The relative disparity in eigen values and variance explained by the two factors respectively indicate that a composite scale will achieve better parsimony. A reliability analysis for the composite scale including all 12 items produced an alpha coefficient of .88.

Insert Table 10 About Here

Knowledge and acceptance of organizational pivotal norms and values.

Organizational culture. This variable was assessed by a 44-item culture scale developed for this study (see Appendix G). Organizational culture has been measured both qualitatively and quantitatively. While the qualitative approach provides more descriptive information about the culture of the organization, it is "less useful for generalizing and useless for testing hypotheses about relationships among variables" (Ott, 1989, p. 122). On the other hand, the quantitative approach is more suitable for hypotheses testing but less useful in describing or explaining culture. However, Reichers and Schneider (1990) maintained that use of either approach to measure culture depends on the conceptualization of culture adopted by the researcher.

Although there are various definitions of culture, there are two commonly-held views: culture as what an organization is and culture as what the organization has (Smircich, 1983). Those who view culture as what the organization is can best study culture through a qualitative approach employing the anthropological, sociological, and/historical paradigms. When culture is viewed as what the organization has (Schein, 1985), it can be studied by both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). The latter approach is adopted in this study.

Culture as was described previously is reflected at different levels - artifacts, norms, beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions. As Rousseau stated, "culture has many elements layered along a continuum of subjectivity and accessibility" (1990, p. 157). While material artifacts and norms guiding behavior can be readily observed, underlying assumptions reflect a more internalized aspect of culture that cannot be easily observed. This characteristic of culture has influenced the type of instruments developed for measuring culture which Ott (1989) and Rousseau (1990) maintained are often limited by the feasibility of gathering data for particular levels of culture. For instance, Kilmann and Saxton's (1991) culture-gap survey originally developed in 1983 assessed culture through norms; Cooke and Lafferty (1989) focused on behavioral norms and normative beliefs;

while Martin and Siehl (1983) relied on content analysis of organizational stories, jargon and tacit knowledge, and O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) used a Q-sort approach to assess values. Similarly other culture instruments (e.g., Dyer, 1982; Enz, 1986; Harrison, 1978; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; Reynolds, 1986) have been influenced by different aspects or levels of culture. (See Ott, 1989 and Schneider, 1990 for a summary of the culture instruments.) Ott (1989) stated that most instruments group items into scales or dimensions for scoring purposes, and the scales never seem to be representative of the organization being studied. On the other hand, some measures of culture are designed for specific types of studies. For example, Cooke and Lafferty's (1989) 120-item instrument is not feasible for a study such as this where culture is not the only variable being measured. A multi-method approach to culture research is advocated. Ott (1989) and Rousseau (1990) maintain that assessing culture through different methods provides a more meaningful measure of culture and counters some of the limitations of existing culture instruments.

Input from the company through interviews, observation through personal contact, and information through library sources and questionnaires will provide a more representative measure of the participants' culture as well as their pivotal norms and values. Eight dimensions of culture (innovativeness, humanistic-encouraging, cooperation, achievement orientation, rules orientation, customer orientation, avoidance, and decision making) have been generated from the culture literature. As Reynolds (1986) stated, there is considerable overlap in the dimensions found in the discussions of organizational culture (e.g. Ansoff, 1979; Cooke & Lafferty 1989; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Dyer, 1982; Enz, 1988; Harrison, 1978; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1990; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schein, 1985). As such, these dimensions are based on the ones that have occurred in most readings as well as the ones that are more salient for our particular setting. In some cases, a different terminology has been used to refer to the same phenomenon. These dimensions of culture will be described along with the rationale for their selection.

Innovativeness describes the tendency of the organization to encourage creativity, exploring different ideas in problem solving, taking chances, and coming up

with new ways of doing things. This dimension is relevant to the present sample because the participating company advocates entrepreneurial spirit and has been credited with innovative ideas in its industries (Chemical and Gas). Innovativeness is one of the dimensions of culture identified in the literature (Ansoff, 1979; Cooke & Lafferty 1989; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Enz, 1988; Harrison, 1975; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede et al., 1990; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Reynolds, 1986; Schwartz & Davis, 1981).

Humanistic - encouraging was adapted from Cooke and Lafferty (1989). This describes the extent to which the organization is people oriented, has respect for the individual, perceives its employees as important with a great deal of potential. The CDP which supplied the sample from the participating company seems to thrive on assisting the new employee in achieving the best 'fit' within the company. Empowerment is a concept that is gaining attention in the company whereby employees are motivated to think for themselves and be more proactive in their career development.

Cooperation is the extent to which the organization fosters a spirit of cooperation or consideration for other peoples' concerns. This dimension is salient for most situations. Cooperation in some cases is referred to as team orientation or collaboration as opposed to competition (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Harrison, 1975; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Achievement orientation is the extent to which people are expected to do quality work and perform highly. Similar terms such as results, task or outcome oriented have been used. The participating company's track record is one of leadership in its industry. Quality and maximum performance are emphasized (Ansoff, 1979; Cooke & Lafferty, 1989; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Peters & Waterman , 1982).

Rules orientation is the extent to which the organization emphasizes "going by the books." People have to carry out their responsibilities in a prescribed manner (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede et al., 1990; Reynolds, 1986; Shrivastava, 1985).

Customer orientation is the extent to which the organization is concerned about

the satisfaction of its customers. Quality and friendly service are emphasized.(e.g., Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Enz, 1986)

Avoidance is the extent to which the employees resist taking responsibilities for their job and are evasive over matters that concern the organization (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989).

Decision making describes the different ways in which decisions are made by the organization based on different criteria - expertise, hierarchy, or concern. (e.g., Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Dyer, 1982; Harrison, 1975; Hofstede, 1980; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Reynolds, 1986; Schein, 1985, 1990; Schwartz & Davis, 1981)

The items in the culture scale were either taken or adopted from Cook and Lafferty (1989), Enz (1986), Gavin and Greenhaus (1976), Harrison (1975), and Hofstede et al. (1990). In most cases, the items were slightly reworded to ensure consistency with the focus of the study. For example, the following items - "The policy is that you must take chances if you aspire to big rewards." "Taking a chance on new techniques or ideas is generally discouraged" (Gavin & Greenhaus, 1976) were slightly reworded under the innovativeness scale.

In determining the culture of an organization, two questions have to be considered: does the organization have a unified culture that can be identified? Second, since culture is an organizational level variable, how will it be operationalized at the individual level?

The organization is usually made up of different subcultures and/or countercultures. As Enz (1986) stated, "one unified culture does not exist in any organization. All businesses are filled with subcultures, that is groups of people who share values that are different from other groups" (p. xvii). However, it is assumed that some communalities exist throughout the organization. In the present study, four subcultures have been suggested. They represent four groups or divisions (Chemical, Corporate, Gas, and Process) in the participating organization. These four groups are involved in determining the culture of the organization.

A total of 20 people were selected from the four groups to participate as "experts" in determining the organizational culture. Each group included one human resource manager, two managers with more than five years of post-CDP experience and two employees with fewer than five years of post-CDP experience. The selection of these "experts" was based on their knowledge and awareness of their organization's culture.

The 39-item organizational culture survey that was pilot tested on 52 undergraduate day and evening students was sent to the designated experts. Responses were anchored on a five-point Likert format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The experts were requested to individually examine the organizational culture survey, indicate unclear or ambiguous items, and add any aspect of their culture not reflected or contained in the list of items. The objective of the first step was to develop a more comprehensive representation of the culture of the organization. Upon such feedback, a revised 44-item culture survey was sent back to the experts. They were asked to respond to each culture item the way it exists in their particular group.

Group interviews were conducted with each of the four groups of experts. During the interview, the responses to each item of the survey were discussed in order to clarify issues of agreement or disagreement. Agreement was based on either all members of a particular group having identical scores on an item or having scores with a difference of 1. For example an item where five members of a group had scores 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, or 2, 1, 1, 2, 1, or 3, 3, 2, 2, 2, are considered to be in agreement. For each group, a slightly different set or number of culture items for which there was agreement were representative of the group's culture. The reality score for each of the culture item was calculated only on those items for which there was agreement in the experts' responses. The reality or expert score was calculated as an unweighted average of the experts' score for each of the culture item. After the interview process, a final revision was made to the Organizational Culture Survey which was included in the questionnaire administered to the sample of CDP employees (Appendix G).

However, since culture suggests an organizational level variable that has to be operationalized through people's perception, the accuracy of those perceptions becomes a

crucial question. The knowledge and acceptance of organizational culture were measured as two separate constructs since conceptually they are assessing different aspects of culture.

Knowledge of culture. The understanding of the culture of the organization was measured by computing an accuracy score for the entire sample. This was undertaken in the following sequence:

• Two scores were obtained for each culture item: one score represented the reality score of the company's or group's culture, and the second score represented the participant's score of his or her perception of the group's culture.

• For each culture item, an accuracy score was calculated by taking the absolute difference between the reality or expert score and the employee's score for the item.

• An unweighted mean of the difference scores was obtained for each respondent.

• This unweighted mean score represents the accuracy score or a measure of the knowledge or understanding of the group's culture. The lower the accuracy score the greater the knowledge of the culture by the employee.

Acceptance of culture. The acceptance of the culture of the organization was measured by computing an acceptance score for the entire sample. This was undertaken in the following sequence:

• Employees were asked to respond to each culture item from two different perspectives. From the first perspective, the employees were asked to respond to the culture items as they exist in their company group. From the second perspective, the employees were asked to respond to the items the way they prefer them to exist in their group. As such, for each culture item, there were two responses with each anchored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

• For each culture item, an acceptance score was calculated by taking the absolute difference between their two scores described above.

• An unweighted mean of the difference scores was obtained for each respondent.

• This unweighted mean score represents the acceptance score of the group's culture. The lower the acceptance score the greater the acceptance of the culture by the employee.

In summary, to assess the two aspects of culture- knowledge and acceptance of culture - three scores were obtained for each culture item. One score represented the reality or expert score, the second score represented the participant's perception of the culture, and the third score represented how the participant would prefer the culture to exist. As such, the knowledge of culture was determined as an absolute difference score between the expert's or reality score and the participant's perception score; the acceptance score was determined as the absolute difference between the participant's perception score and the participant's preference score.

Personal learning. An 8-item Self-Information scale developed by Callanan (1989) (Appendix H) was utilized to assess this variable. The scale was designed to measure the level of understanding a person has about his/her interests, abilities, values, talents, and aptitudes. Reported alpha coefficient of the scale is .80 (Callanan, 1989). The scale directly assesses the respondents' agreement or disagreement with respect to the items on a five-point scale. In this study, it was worded to reflect an understanding of themselves as a result of their working in this organization. Personal learning within the context of socialization has been described as a psychological change undergone by a newcomer in which previous socialization experiences before joining the organization are meshed with the new organizational experiences. Respondents were asked whether working in the organization has enhanced their knowledge of themselves in the ways identified by Callanan (1989).

The 8 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. Contrary to expectations and prior studies (Callanan, 1989), the items loaded on two factors shown in Table 11. The first factor had an eigen value of 3.90 and explained 48.8% of the variance while the second factor had an eigen value of 1.04 and explained 13% of the variance. A composite scale was retained because the factors were difficult to interpret; the disparity in eigen values and relative variance explained by the factors suggest that a composite scale will be more parsimonious. The alpha coefficient of .85 for the eight items indicates a high level of consistency for the composite scale.

Insert Table 11 About Here

Role clarity. Eight items taken from the role conflict and role ambiguity instrument developed by Rizzo et al. (1970) were utilized to measure this variable (see Appendix I). Respondents indicated their agreement or disagreement to the items on a 5-point scale. Choice and/or wording of the items were influenced by Lyons (1971) and Parasuraman et al. (1992).

The 8 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on two factors shown in Table 12. Factor 1 had an eigen value of 2.84 and explained 35.5% of the variance and Factor 2 had an eigen value of .72 and explained 9% of the variance. An examination of the two factors suggests that they were difficult to interpret as two conceptually distinct factors. The relative disparity in eigen values and variance explained by the two factors respectively indicate that a one factor pattern will achieve better parsimony. A reliability analysis for the composite scale including the 8 items produced an alpha coefficient of .5. Upon examination of the item-total statistics, item 7 was deleted from scale resulting to an increased alpha coefficient of .72. The results of the reliability analysis confirmed the internal consistency of the scale. A composite scale with 7 items was retained.

Insert Table 12 About Here

Additional variables in the study.

Organizational commitment. This variable was measured by a 9-item reduced version of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter and Smith (1970) (see Appendix J). The scale has been extensively validated in the literature

(Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). The 9 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The items loaded on two factors as shown in Table 13. The first factor had an eigen value 4.89 and explained 54.2% of the variance; the second factor had an eigen value of 1.03 and explained 11.5% of the variance. The two factors were difficult to interpret. The relative disparity in eigen values and variance explained by the two factors respectively indicate that a one factor solution is more parsimonious. Moreover, reliability and validity evidence from the literature provide support for a composite scale. An alpha coefficient of .89 also provides support for a composite scale.

Insert Table 13 About Here

Job satisfaction. The 3 items measuring job satisfaction (Appendix K) were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The 3 items loaded on one factor shown in Table 14 explaining 67% of the variance. An alpha coefficient of .85 was obtained suggesting a high internal consistency of the items in the scale.

Insert Table 14 About Here

Intention to remain. The 2 items measuring this variable (Appendix L) were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The two items loaded on one factor shown in Table 15 explaining 67% of the variance. A one factor solution was obtained from the 2- item scale. An alpha coefficient of .82 was obtained suggesting a high internal consistency of the items in the scale.

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Job stress. Job stress was measured by a 9-item scale originally deveₗₒped by Parasuraman (1982). Some items were slightly reworded to reflect the research setting (see Appendix M). The 9 items were factor analyzed with varimax rotation. The 9 items loaded on one factor shown in Table 16 explaining 56% of the variance. An alpha coefficient of .90 was consistent with that obtained by Parasuraman (1982).

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Data Analysis

This section describes the statistical analyses used to test the four hypotheses. Statistical procedures used to test additional relationships in the study will also be described.

Correlation analysis. Pearson correlation coefficients with pairwise deletion of missing variables were calculated to gain an overview of the general relationships among all the major variables in the study. One-tailed significant tests are used to test all the hypotheses since directional relationships were specified. However, two-tailed significance tests were used to investigate other exploratory relationships in the model.

Control variables and regression analysis. Before discussing the regression analyses conducted for the study, it is important to identify which of the demographic variables need to be controlled.

Control variables. Two acceptable approaches can be used to determine

which background or demographic variables need to be controlled in a particular analysis or study. The first approach suggests selecting a number of background variables which are expected to have some influence on numerous variables. The second approach suggests controlling only those background variables that will be used to test a particular hypothesis. The second approach was adopted in this study whereby only the demographic variables that are related to both the independent variables and the dependent variable in a particular hypothesis were controlled. As such, different demographic variables were controlled for different outcome variables in a specific hypothesis. The purpose of statistically controlling for any demographic variable in this study is to eliminate spurious effects that could be due to the demographic variables' being related to independent and dependent variables. Therefore, controlling for such spurious effects will enhance the internal validity of the study. Table 17 presents the intercorrelations between the demographic variables and the major variables in the study.

Insert Table 17 About Here

Regression analysis. Simple and multiple regression analyses were used to estimate the main effects of the independent variables on socialization effectiveness. Each of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness was regressed on the respective predictor variable (s) for a particular hypothesis. As such, each hypothesis was tested with six regression models.

For Hypothesis 1, each of the six outcome variables was separately regressed on the three factors of socialization tactics reflecting: experienced colleagues, training, and co-workers. As was previously stated, only the demographic variables that are associated with both the predictor and criterion variable in a particular hypothesis were controlled. It was not necessary to control for any demographic variable in those regression models.

Six separate multiple regression models were used to test the second hypothesis.

Each of the outcome variables was regressed on the four job scope factors: autonomy, feedback, identity, and variety. The correlation analysis shown in Table 17 indicated that no demographic variable needed to be controlled in these six regression models.

Hypotheses 3A, 3B, 3C, and hypothesis 3D were concerned with the relationship between different aspects of prior work experience and socialization effectiveness. Hypothesis 3A focused on the relationship between participation in co-op or internship programs and the six outcome variables. Hypothesis 3B tested the relationship between the extensiveness of the employee's prior work experience and the six outcome variables. Hypothesis 3C investigated the relationship between the number of different employers for whom the respondents worked before joining the company and socialization effectiveness, and Hypothesis 3D predicted a relationship between the similarity of the respondents' prior work experience and their current jobs with socialization effectiveness. Hypotheses 3A to 3D are tested by six regression models. Each of the outcome variables was regressed on the set of independent variables which include total coop and internship, total work experience, variety of employers, and five individual similarity variables- job title similarity, department similarity, company similarity, industry similarity, and task similarity. It was not necessary to control for any demographic variable in the six regression models.

For Hypothesis 4, six separate simple regression analyses were used to estimate the effects of self-monitoring on the six outcome variables. Race was controlled when the acceptance of culture was regressed on self-monitoring.

In summary, correlation and regression analyses were used to test the four main hypotheses in the study. The only demographic variable that was related to both dependent and independent variables in a particular hypothesis was race. Race was controlled in one out of the four hypotheses. Other descriptive statistics for the general data were also provided.

Examining the overall model. The testing of individual hypotheses focused on examining separate relationships between an independent variable and a criterion variable. However, in examining the entire model, the emphasis is on understanding the

relationship between all the independent variables and each of the outcome variables. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine the independent and additive effects of the independent variables on socialization effectiveness. However, in order to capture the independent or partial effects of a particular independent variable, blocks of independent variables were entered progressively. Since there are no empirical studies linking most of the predictor variables to socialization effectiveness, the hierarchical multiple regression gives insight into the unique contribution of each set of predictor variables to variation in the criterion variables. Jaccard, Turrisi, and Wan (1990) maintained that hierarchical multiple regression tests are performed by researchers when they are interested in investigating whether adding one or more predictor variables to an existing multiple regression equation will significantly increase the predictability of the criterion. The order of entry of variables in a hierarchical regression is based on theory, empirical studies, or conceptual logic.

In the present study, the order of entry was based on the sequence or assumed temporal ordering of the variables as suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983). Self-monitoring, prior work experience, socialization tactics, and the job scope variables will be entered sequentially. This order of entry is justified by the following rationale: self-monitoring is a personality variable which the individual possesses prior to engaging in any work before joining the organization. As such, it might be argued that self-monitoring precedes all the other factors. Prior work experience is what the participant acquires before joining the organization. It is more of an extra-organizational factor. Socialization tactics are organizational processes that are specifically geared towards newcomers. The job scope variables are entered last because they are more a feature of the job that the newcomers have to cope with.

Additional analysis

Additional analysis were undertaken to explore some relationships that could not be examined previously. The statistical procedure used to examine these relationships are discussed under four categories: interactions among the antecedents, analyses for different

assignment stages, interactions among gender and the antecedents, and analyses with additional variables in the study.

Interaction effects among the antecedents (independent variables).

Since this study represents an initial empirical investigation of the model of socialization effectiveness, main effects were predicted to explore the relationships in the model. The interactionist perspective, prior literature on job scope, and common sense suggest plausible interactions among the antecedents which are investigated as additional analysis.

Hierarchical regression analysis was employed to examine significant interactions among the antecedents of socialization effectiveness: socialization tactics, job scope, prior work experience factors, and self-monitoring. In each analysis, an indicator of socialization effectiveness was regressed on two antecedents (e.g., job scope and socialization tactics), and the interaction term (job scope x socialization tactics). The beta coefficient for the interaction term in the regression analysis was examined for statistical significance. Upon identification of a significant interaction term, subgroup regression analysis was conducted in which separate equations were estimated for the respective subgroups. Subsequently, a test for the difference in beta coefficients was employed to establish the difference between the subgroups.

Analysis for the three different assignment tenure. The primary focus of the study was to examine the relationships predicted in the model for the total sample. However, prior studies suggest that newcomers go through different stages during the socialization process. At each stage, they have different socialization experiences whereby success at each stage is assessed by different outcome variables. Since the sample for the present study include employees who could be at different assignment periods, additional (correlational) analysis was used to examine the relationships predicted in the model for different assignment tenure. Correlation among the indicators of socialization effectiveness and the independent variables or antecedents were conducted for the 4 hypotheses.

Interactions between gender and the antecedents. Although the hypotheses were tested for the whole sample, prior literature suggests that socialization

experiences could be different for men and women. As such, additional analyses were undertaken to explore for interaction between the antecedents and gender in the model of socialization effectiveness. Hierarchical regression analysis was used to examine interactions between gender and the antecedents of socialization effectiveness: socialization tactics, job scope, prior work experience factors, and self-monitoring. In each analysis, an indicator of socialization effectiveness was regressed on gender, an antecedent, and the interaction term (gender x antecedent). The beta coefficient for the interaction term was examined for statistical significance. Identification of a significant interaction term resulted in the estimation of separate regression equations for the respective subgroups. Subsequently, a test of the difference between the beta coefficients was conducted in order to confirm significant gender effects.

Analysis with other variables in the study. Data were gathered on traditional organizational behavior outcomes: organizational commitment; job satisfaction; intention to remain; and job stress. The relationship between the antecedents and these outcome variables have been studied in prior works. However, the relationship between socialization effectiveness and these variables has not been investigated. Correlational analysis was used to examine relationships between socialization effectiveness and these outcome variables. Results of the correlation analysis suggested plausible direct and indirect relationships among the antecedents, indicators of socialization effectivenes, and traditional outcomes. As such, path analysis was used to explore the possibility of a causal model. Verification of possible violation of the assumptions guiding the path analytic model were conducted (Billings & Wroten, 1978). The intercorrelations among the study variables did not indicate multicollinearity (rs < .8); the reliability coefficients for the various scales were adequate; and the Durbin-Watson d-statistics calculated for each dependent variable ranged from 1.7 to 2.2 ruling out autocorrelation among the residuals (Dillon & Goldstein, 1984). However, since the primary focus of the study is on the dimensions and indicators of socialization effectiveness only the general findings of the path analysis will be presented.

Summary

Information was presented in three parts: the first part focused on the research design, including the research setting, the sample, and the data collection procedure. The second part discussed the measures of the independent and dependent variables as well as additional study variables. The reliability and validation procedures applicable to the respective measures were presented as well as the justification for adopting the particular measure. The third part discussed the statistical analysis used to test the hypotheses as well as additional analyses employed to better understand the model of socialization effectiveness.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses used to test the hypotheses and examine the model of socialization effectiveness. The chapter is organized into four sections: descriptive statistics; hypothesis testing; examination of the model or model testing; and additional analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

Tables 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 provide the means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values for the major independent and dependent variables in the study. Relevant descriptive statistics for the independent variables are presented in the hypothesis section. Mean responses of 3.90, 4.22, 4.10, and 3.51 were indicated for the dependent variables: task mastery, work group functioning, personal learning, and role clarity, respectively. Knowledge and acceptance of the culture of the organization have mean difference scores of .85 and .84 respectively. The alpha coefficients for the variables are shown in Table 23. The intercorrelations among the criterion variables are presented in Table 24. The intercorrelations among the predictor or independent variables; and the correlations between demographic variables and the major variables in the study were presented in previous sections.

The results of the correlation analysis will be presented along with those of the regression analysis for each specific hypothesis.

Insert Tables 18 to 24 About Here

Hypothesis Testing

Each hypothesis will be stated and the results of the statistical analysis pertaining to the hypothesis will be presented.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 predicts that institutionalized socialization tactics will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within the work group, greater knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity than individualized tactics.

Mean responses for experienced colleagues, training, and co-workers are 3.55, 2.59, and 3.92, respectively. The results of the correlation and regression analyses presented in Table 25 provide partial support for Hypothesis 1. Of the three measures of socialization tactics, experienced colleagues shows consistently significant relationships with four of the outcome variables: task mastery (r=.25, p<.01), success in functioning within the work group (r=.37, p<.001), acceptance of the culture of the organization (r=-.18, p<.05), and role clarity (r=.34, p<.001). A significant relationship is indicated between training and acceptance of the culture of the organization (r=-.16, p<.05); and role of co-workers is related significantly to success in functioning within the work group (r=.22, p<.01). No significant relationship was found between socialization tactics and two of the outcome variables: knowledge of culture and personal learning.

The significant relationship between experienced colleagues and task mastery is supported by the regression model (R^2=.07, p<.05). Consistent with the correlation results, a significant regression coefficient is indicated for experienced colleagues (ß=.26, p<.05) when task mastery is regressed on the three measures of socialization tactics. A

significant regression coefficient is indicated also for experienced colleagues (ß=.33, p<.001) when success in functioning within the work group is regressed on the three measures of socialization tactics. This relationship is supported by a significant regression model (R^2=.14, p<.001). A significant regression coefficient is indicated for experienced colleagues (ß=.39, p<.001) when role clarity is regressed on the three measures of socialization tactics. The regression model is also significant (R^2=.13, p<.001). However, the regression coefficients for two measures of socialization tactics- training and co-workers - were not significant for any of the six outcome variables.

Insert Table 25 About Here

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 predicts that job scope (autonomy, feedback, task identity, and skill variety) will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within the work group, greater knowledge and acceptance of organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

The mean responses for the job scope variables ranged from 5.27 for autonomy to 4.51 for skill variety. The results of the correlational and regression analyses presented in Table 26 provide partial support for Hypothesis 2. Autonomy was significantly related to success in functioning within the work group (r=.15, p<.05). Significant relationships were indicated between feedback and three outcome variables: success in functioning within the work group (r=.33, p<.001), acceptance of the culture of the organization (r=-.32, p<.001), and role clarity (r=.25, p<.01). Also, skill variety was significantly related to work group functioning (r=.18, p<.05) and acceptance of the culture of the organization (r=-.20, p<.05).

The results of the regression analysis show a significant regression coefficient for skill variety (ß=.20, p<.05) when task mastery is regressed on the job scope variables. No

significant regression coefficient was indicated for autonomy or task identity and the regression model was not significant. Consistent with the correlation analysis, a significant regression coefficient was indicated for feedback (β=.34, p<.01) when success in functioning within the work group was regressed on the job scope variables. The importance of feedback is supported by a significant regression model (R^2=.12, p<.01). Similarly, a significant regression coefficient was obtained for feedback (β=-.34, p<.001) when acceptance of culture of the organization was regressed on job scope variables. The regression model was significant (R^2=.16, p<.01). The regression coefficient for feedback (β=.27, p<.01) was also significant when role clarity was regressed on job scope variables. A significant regression (R^2=.09, p<.05) model was also indicated. No significant relationships were found when knowledge of the culture of the organization and personal learning were separately regressed on the job scope variables.

Insert Table 26 About Here

Hypothesis 3A. Hypothesis 3A predicts that cooperative education and internship experience will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within the work group, greater knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

None of the respondents engaged in more than 2 co-ops and/internships before joining CAG. The results of the correlation and regression analyses presented in Table 27 show weak support for the hypothesis for one outcome variable: personal learning. A significant relationship was shown between prior coop and internship experience and personal learning (r=.19, p<.001). However, the regression coefficient was not significant when personal learning was regressed on all the prior work experience factors.

None of the other predicted relationships in the hypothesis was supported.

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Insert Table 27 About Here

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Hypothesis 3B. Hypothesis 3B predicts that the extensiveness of employees' prior work experience will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within their work group, greater knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

A mean response of 2.27 was indicated for total work experience and a maximum of 5 was observed. The extensiveness of the employee's prior work experience was represented by the total prior work experience an employee had before joining the company. None of the hypotheses was supported. Significant relationships were found but not in the predicted direction.

Hypothesis 3C. Hypothesis 3C predicts that the variety of employees' prior work experience will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within their work group, greater knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

Table 27 shows also the results of the correlation and regression analyses to test the above hypothesis. None of the significant correlation coefficients was in the predicted direction. A significant regression coefficient for variety of employee's prior work experience ($\beta=.27$, $p<.05$) was indicated when task mastery was regressed on prior work experience factors. The R^2 for the regression model was not significant, and as such, the predicted relationships were not supported.

Hypothesis 3D. Hypothesis 3D predicts that work similarity between employees' prior work experience and their current job will be assoc ated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within the work group, greater knowledge and

acceptance of the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

As was stated previously in the last section, the relationship between total work experience and the predicted criterion variables was tested with the individual similarity variables. Table 27 shows a significant relationship between task similarity and understanding the culture of the organization ($r=-.16$, $p<05$). Company similarity was significantly related to personal learning ($r=.17$, $p<.05$). However, none of the regression coefficients is significant for the six regression models. The R^2 (.18, $p<.05$) was significant for the regression model with knowledge of culture as the outcome variable. Hence, there was weak support for one outcome variable, knowledge of culture.

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 predicts that self monitoring will be associated with greater task mastery, greater success in functioning within the work group, greater knowledge and adjustment to the organizational culture, greater personal learning, and greater role clarity.

Table 28 provides the results of the correlation and regression analyses. There was partial support for the hypothesis. Self monitoring was significantly related to success in functioning within the work group ($r=.28$, $p<.01$). Consistent with the results of the correlation analysis, a significant regression coefficient was obtained when functioning within the work group was regressed on self monitoring ($\beta=.26$, $p<.01$). The relationship was supported by a significant regression model ($R^2=.07$, $p<.01$). The predicted relationships between self monitoring and task mastery, knowledge and acceptance of the organizational culture, personal learning, and role clarity were not supported.

Insert Table 28 About Here

Examination of the Overall Model

The results of the six separate hierarchical regression analyses examining the independent and additive effects of the predictor variables on the model of socialization effectiveness were presented. Significant relationships were found for five of the outcome variables: task mastery, success in functioning within the work group, knowledge and acceptance of culture, and role clarity.

Table 29 shows the results of the hierarchical regression analysis when task mastery was the outcome variable. No significant relationships were found in steps 1, 2, 4, and 5. However, in step 3, where the set of prior work experience factors was entered, significant regression coefficients are indicated for total work experience (β =-.35, p<.05) and department similarity (β=-.28, p<.05). No significant increase in R^2 was obtained at any of the five steps and the overall R^2 for the model was not significant.

Insert Table 29 About Here

Table 30 presents the results of the hierarchical regression model where success in functioning within the work group was the outcome variable. In step 1, the regression coefficient was not significant for self-monitoring. In step 2, the regression coefficient was significant for one prior work experience factor, department similarity (β=-.27, p=.05). Step 3 shows a positive regression coefficient for one of the three measures of socialization tactics: experienced colleagues (β=.30, p=.01). Adding the set of measures of socialization tactics in step 3 contributed to the explanatory power of the model (ΔR^2=.11, p<.05). In step 4, the regression coefficient for feedback was significant (β=.50, p=.001). The set of job scope variables resulted in a significant increase in R^2 (ΔR^2 = 14, p<.01). The

regression model was also significant ($R^2=.35$, F=2.50, both at p<.01).

In summary, the results of the hierarchical regression indicate significant relationships between three antecedents (department similarity, experienced colleagues, and feedback) with success in functioning within the work group. While socialization tactics and feedback enhance successful functioning within the work group, department similarity can be inhibiting to employee's success in functioning within the work group.

Insert Table 30 About Here

Table 31 presents the results of the hierarchical regression for knowledge or understanding of culture. The addition of the prior work experience factors resulted in a significant increase in R^2 ($\Delta R^2=.19$, p<.05). However, none of the regression coefficients was significant.

Insert Table 31 About Here

The results of the hierarchical regression for acceptance of culture are reported in Table 32. Race was controlled in step 1 because it was associated with acceptance of culture and self-monitoring. Feedback was the only variable with a significant regression coefficient (ß=-.31, p=.05) in step 5. None of the overall R^2s was significant for any of the five steps.

Insert Table 32 About Here

Table 33 presents the results of the hierarchical regression model with role clarity as the outcome variable. In steps 1 and 2 the regression coefficients were not significant for self-monitoring and prior work experience factors, respectively. In step 3, the regression coefficient was significant for one factor or measure of socialization tactics - experienced colleagues ($\beta=.41$, $p<.001$). Adding the set of measures of socialization tactics in step 3 contributed to the explanatory power of the model ($\Delta R^2=.15$, $p<.01$). In step 4, the regression coefficient for feedback was significant ($\beta=.30$, $p=.05$). No significant increase in R^2 was revealed with the set of job scope variables. However, the regression model was significant ($R^2=.29$, $p<.05$).

Additional Analyses

The results of the additional analyses are presented in four parts: interactions among the antecedents; analyses for different assignment tenure; interactions between gender and the antecedents; and analyses for other variables in the study.

Interactions among the antecedents. The results of the analysis used to examine significant interactions among the antecedents are presented below. Significant beta coefficients for the interaction terms were found in six separate regression analyses when indicators of socialization effectiveness were regressed individually on job scope variables. The six regression analyses were produced by three of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness: task mastery, work group functioning, and acceptance of culture.

(a) Task mastery. Tables 34, 35, and 36 present the results of three of the six regression analyses, when task mastery was regressed on (1) task identity, experienced colleagues, task identity x experienced colleagues with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term ($\beta=1.46$, $p<.05$); (2) feedback, experienced colleagues, feedback x experienced colleagues with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term

(ß=1.33, p<.05); (3) skill variety, co-workers, skill variety x co-workers. with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term (ß=1.94, p<.05).

However, the results of the subgroup analysis shown in Tables 37 did not indicate significant difference in beta coefficients for high and low task identity when task mastery is regressed on experienced colleagues. The difference in beta coefficients for high and low feedback was not significant as shown in Table 38 when task mastery was regressed on experienced colleagues. The results of two separate regression analyses for high and low skill variety are also presented in Table 39. A significant relationship was shown for only employees with high skill variety (ß=.37, p<.01) when task mastery was regressed on training. The difference in beta coefficients was significant (p<.01).

Insert Tables 34, to 39 About Here

(b) Work group functioning. Tables 40 and 41 present the results of two of the regression analyses when work group functioning was regressed on (4) task identity, experienced colleagues, task identity x experienced colleagues with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term (ß=-1.39, p<.05); (5) task identity, training, task identity x training with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term (ß=-1.23, p<.05).

The subgroup analyses shown in Table 42 reveal a strong and positive relationship between experienced colleagues and work group functioning for low task identity (ß=.55, p< .001) with a significant difference in beta coefficients (p<.001). However, no significant difference was found in the beta coefficients for high and low task identity when work group functioning was regressed on training.

Insert Tables 40, 41, and 42 About Here

(c) Acceptance of culture. Table 43 presents the results of the final regression analysis (6),when acceptance of culture was regressed on identity, experienced members, identity x experienced colleagues with a significant regression coefficient for the interaction term (β=1.94, p<.05).

As shown in Table 44, a strong relationship was observed between experienced colleagues and acceptance of culture for low task identity (β=-.54, p<.001) with a significant difference in beta coefficients at p<.001.

Insert Tables 43 and 44 About Here

In summary, task identity, skill variety and feedback were identified as possible moderators of the relationship between experience colleagues and three indicators of socialization effectiveness (task mastery, work group functioning and acceptance of culture). As was stated previously, the moderating effects of the above antecedents were conclusive when significant differences in the beta coefficients of the respective subgroups were obtained. The results of the subgroup analyses reveal that task identity moderated the relationship between experienced colleagues and two indicators of socialization effectiveness: work group functioning and acceptance of the culture of the organization. Also, skill variety moderated the relationship between training and task mastery.

Analysis for different assignment tenure. Table 45 presents the MANOVA results showing the mean responses for the independent and dependent

variables. A significant difference was found for personal learning with mean responses of 4.25, 3.97, and 4.24 for assignments 1, 2, and 3 respectively, at p<.05. The results of the correlation analysis were used to examine whether the relationships that have been tested previously were different for the three assignment stages or periods.

For ease of comparison with the hypotheses testing section, the results are presented around specific relationships: (1) Socialization tactics with each of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness for the three assignment periods; (2) Job scope with each of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness; (3) Prior work experience factors with each of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness; and (4) Self monitoring with each of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness.

Insert Table 45 About Here

Socialization tactics with indicators of socialization effectiveness -
Table 46 presents the results of correlations between socialization tactics (experienced colleagues, training, co-workers) and indicators of socialization effectiveness (task mastery, work group functioning, knowledge of culture, acceptance of culture, personal learning, and role clarity) for the three assignment periods.

During the first assignment, co-workers was positively associated with task mastery (r=.29, p<.05). No significant relationship was indicated for the second assignment. During the third assignment, experienced colleagues and training were both associated with task mastery with correlation coefficients of .31 and -.34, respectively (p<.05). A test of the difference between the correlation coefficients revealed a significant difference (p<.05) in the relationship between training and task mastery for the first and third assignment periods.

All three measures of socialization tactics were positively associated with

functioning within the work group during the first assignment. The correlation coefficients experienced colleagues, training, and co-workers were .44, .35, .35, respectively, and each at p<.05. Only experienced colleagues was significant during the second and third assignments with r=.34 and .44, respectively, and each at p<.01. A test of differences between correlation coefficients did not show any significant differences for any of the relationships during the assignments periods.

One measure of socialization tactics, training, was associated with knowledge of culture of the organization during the first assignment (r=-.33, p<.05). No significant relationship was found during the second assignment. During the third assignment a significant relationship was indicated for experienced colleagues (r=-.38, p<.05). No significant relationship was found between coworkers and knowledge of culture during any of the three assignment periods. However, a test for the difference between the correlation coefficients indicated a significant difference (p<.05) for training between the first and third assignments.

Training was associated with acceptance of culture during the first assignment (r=-.31, p<.05). While experienced colleagues was associated with acceptance of culture during the second assignment period (r=-.32, p<.01), co-workers was not related significantly to acceptance of culture during any of the assignment periods. No significant differences between the correlation coefficients were obtained for the three assignment periods.

Two measures of socialization tactics - training and co-workers - were related to personal learning at different assignment periods. The relationship between co-workers and personal learning was negative during the first assignment (r=-.35, p<.05) but positive during the second assignment (r=.22, p<.05). The difference in correlation coefficients for these two assignment periods was significant (p<.01). Training was negatively related to personal learning during the second assignment (r=-.27, p<.01) and positively related during the third assignment (r=.42, p<.01). The relationship between training and personal learning was significantly different for the first and second assignments (p<.05),

and also for the second and third assignments (p<.01).

Experienced members was positively related to role clarity during the first (r=.45, p<.01), second (r=.39, p<.001) and third (r=.38, p<.05) assignments. There were no significant relationships between the other two measures of socialization tactics (training and co-workers) and role clarity for any of the assignment periods. A test of differences between correlation coefficients did not reveal any significant difference across the three assignment periods.

Insert Table 46 About Here

Job scope and indicators of socialization effectiveness- Table 47 summarizes the results of the correlation analysis between job scope variables (autonomy, feedback, and task identity, and skill) and the indicators of socialization effectiveness (task mastery, work group functioning, knowledge of culture, acceptance of culture, personal learning, and role clarity) for the three assignment periods.

None of the job scope variables was related to task mastery during any of the three assignment periods.

Two job scope variables, feedback and skill variety, were associated with work group functioning during different assignment periods. Skill variety was positively associated with work group functioning during the first assignment (r=.53, p<.001). The relationship disappeared for the second and third assignments. Feedback was positively associated with work group functioning during the first (r=.61, p<.001) and second (r=.24, p<.05) assignments. However, only task identity was associated with work group functioning during the third assignment (r=.41, p<.01). No significant difference was revealed between the correlation coefficients of feedback and skill variety with work group functioning for the three assignment periods.

None of the job scope variables was significantly related to knowledge of culture

for any of the three assignments.

Autonomy was the only job scope variable associated with acceptance of culture during the second assignment (r=-.44, p<.001). No other significant relationship was found between other job scope variables and acceptance of culture for any of the assignment periods. No significant difference was revealed between the correlation coefficients for the three assignment periods.

None of the job scope variables was associated with personal learning for any of the assignment periods.

Feedback and skill variety were both positively associated with role clarity only during the first assignment with r=.43, p<.01 for feedback and r=.28, p<.05 for skill variety. However, task identity was associated with role clarity only during the third assignment (r=.35, p<.05). None of the variables was significantly related to role clarity during the second assignment. No significant difference was revealed between the correlation coefficients of feedback and skill variety and role clarity for the three assignment periods.

Insert Table 47 About Here

Prior work experience factors and indicators of socialization effectiveness - Intercorrelations between prior work experience factors and the six indicators of socialization effectiveness are shown in Table 48

No significant relationship was found between prior work experience factors and task mastery for any of the assignment periods.

During the second assignment, only variety of employers was related to work group functioning (r=-.21, p<.05). During the third assignment only total work similarity

was associated with functioning within the work group (r=.34, p<.05). A significant difference in correlation coefficients for the first and second assignment was indicated for total work similarity and work group functioning. Variety of employers is the only prior work experience factor associated with knowledge or understanding of the culture of the organization during the second assignment (r=.40, p<.001). For the third assignment, only total work experience was associated with knowledge of the organizational culture (r=.35, p<.05).

Total work similarity was associated with acceptance of culture during the first assignment. None of the prior work experience factors was significantly associated with acceptance of culture during the second assignment. For the third assignment, variety of employers was the only variable associated with accepting the culture of the organization.

During the first assignment, there was a significant relationship between personal learning and variety of employers (r=.34, p<.05). However, during the second assignment, total coop and internship experience was associated with personal learning (r=.30, p<.01). Total work experience was the only prior work experience factor associated with personal learning during the third assignment (r=.38, p<.05).

Industry similarity was negatively associated with role clarity only for the first assignment period (r=-.32, p<.05). However, company similarity was significantly associated with role clarity during the first and second assignments with rs= -.44, .25 respectively at p<.05. The difference in relationships for the two assignment periods is significant at p< .01.

Insert Table 48 About Here

Self monitoring and indicators of socialization effectiveness- Table 49 presents the results of the correlation analysis between self-monitoring and the six outcome variables. Self-monitoring was associated with work group functioning during

the first (r=.36, p<.05) and second (r=.41, p<.01) assignments. Self-monitoring was also associated with knowledge of the culture of the organization only during the first assignment (r=-.29, p<.05). There was no significant relationship between self-monitoring and task mastery or acceptance of culture or personal learning for any of the assignment periods. A test of difference between correlation coefficients did not indicate any significant difference between the correlation coefficients for the three assignment periods.

Insert Table 49 About Here

Interactions between gender and the antecedents.   The results of the MANOVA analysis shown in Table 50 shows the mean responses for men and women. A significant difference in mean responses between men and women was found in only one variable. Men were found to be higher in self-monitoring than women with a mean response of .89 and .40 for men and women respectively (p<.05).

Additional results for this section are presented in two parts: hierarchical regression analysis examining interactions among gender and the antecedents of socialization effectiveness; and subgroup analysis validating significant gender effects in the relationship between the antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness.

Significant beta coefficients for interaction terms were found in eight separate hierarchical regression analyses when indicators of socialization effectiveness were regressed separately on gender, antecedent, gender x antecedent. The eight regression analyses were produced by four of the six indicators of socialization effectiveness: work group functioning; knowledge of the culture of the organization; acceptance of the culture of the organization; and personal learning.

(a) Work group functioning.   Tables 51 and 52 show significant beta coefficients for two interaction terms when work group functioning was regressed on (1)

gender, training, gender x training (ß=-1.08, p<.05); and (2) gender, feedback, gender x feedback (ß=-.97, p<.05). The results of the subgroup analyses in Table 53 did not reveal significant difference in beta coefficients for males and females in both the relationships between training and work group functioning and feedback and work group functioning.

Insert Tables 51, 52, and 53 About Here

(b) Knowledge of the culture of the organization. Tables 54, 55, and 56 respectively indicate significant beta coefficients for the interactions terms when knowledge of culture was regressed on (1) gender, experienced colleagues, gender x experienced colleagues (ß=1.61, p<.05); (2) gender, training, gender x training (ß=1.29, p<.05); and (3) gender, task identity, gender x task identity (ß=1.11, p<.01).

As shown in Table 57, significant regression coefficients were indicated for females when knowledge of culture was regressed separately on training (ß=.38, p<.05) and on task identity (ß=.38, p<.05). The relationship between knowledge of culture and training or task identity was not significant for males. The beta coefficients for the two groups were different at p<.01.

Insert Tables 54, 55, 56, and 57 About Here

(c) Acceptance of the culture of the organization. A significant beta coefficient for the interaction term was shown in Table 58 when acceptance of the culture of the organization was regressed on gender, training, gender x training (ß=1.04, p<.05).

The regression coefficient was significant when acceptance of culture was regressed on training for males (β=-.33, p<.01) but not significant for females as shown in Table 59. There was a significant difference in beta coefficients for the two groups at p<.01.

Insert Table 58 and 59 About Here

(d) **Personal learning.** Tables 60, 61, and 62 show respectively, significant beta coefficients for the interaction terms when personal learning was regressed on (1) gender, training, gender x training (β=-1.08, p<.05); (2) gender, autonomy, gender x autonomy (β=-1.24, p<.01); and (3) gender, skill variety, gender x skill variety (β=-1.33, p<.01).

Table 63 presents the results of the three subgroup regression analyses where personal learning was separately regressed on training, autonomy, and skill variety. Significant regression coefficients were indicated only for females when personal learning was regressed separately on training (β=-.38, p<.05); and autonomy (β=-.39, p<.05). The beta coefficients for the two groups were different at p<.01. However, when personal learning was regressed on skill variety the regression coefficient was significant only for males (β=.23, p<.05) with a significant difference in beta coefficients at p<.05.

Insert Tables 60, 61, 62, and 63 About Here

In summary, gender effects were found in the relationship between socialization

tactics (training) and three indicators of socialization effectiveness (knowledge, and acceptance of the culture of the organization; and personal learning). Gender effects were also found in the relationship between task identity and knowledge of the culture of the organization. The relationships between two job scope variables (autonomy and skill variety) and personal learning were also different for males and females.

Other variables in the study. The results of correlation analysis employed to examine the relationship between the model of socialization effectiveness and the additional variables (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to remain, and job stress) in the study are presented below. Table 64 shows the intercorrelations of the antecedents (socialization tactics factors, job scope variables, prior work experience factors, and self-monitoring) and the indicators (task mastery, work group functioning, knowledge and acceptance of the culture of the organization, personal learning, and role clarity) of socialization effectiveness with the traditional outcome variables (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to remain, and job stress).

Insert Table 64 About Here

The results are organized in three parts, presenting first, the relationship between the antecedents and the traditional outcome variables; secondly, the relationship between the indicators and the traditional outcome variables and finally, the relationship among antecedents, indicators, and outcome variables.

(a) Antecedents and outcome variables. Socialization tactics are the only antecedents of socialization effectiveness that were significantly related to the outcome variables. Significant relationships were found between experienced colleagues and three of the outcome variables: organizational commitment ($r=.45$, $p<.001$), job satisfaction ($r=.53$, $p<.0001$), and intention to remain ($r=.26$, $p<.01$). Significant relationships were

also indicated between coworkers and two of the outcome variables: organizational commitment (r=.23, p<.01), and job satisfaction (r=.24, p<.01). Training was not significantly related to any of the outcome variables.

(b) **Indicators and outcome variables.** Task mastery was found to be significantly related to organizational commitment (r=.21, p<.05), job satisfaction (r=.25, p<.01), and intention to remain (r=.19, p<.05). Significant relationships were also indicated between work group functioning and two of the outcome variables: organizational commitment (r=.22, p<.01) and job satisfaction (r=.34, p<.001). Knowledge and acceptance of the culture of the organization were not related significantly to any of the outcome variables. Personal learning showed significant relationships with organizational commitment (r=.30, p<.001), job satisfaction (r=.32, p<.001) and job stress (r=-.21, p<.05). Significant relationships were also indicated between role clarity and organizational commitment (r=.43, p<.001), job satisfaction (r=.48, p<.001), and intention to remain (r=.21, p<.05).

(c) **Antecedents, Indicators, and Outcome Variables.** The results of the path analysis used to explore for direct and indirect effects of the antecedents on the outcome variables are presented in Table 65. A direct effect of experienced colleagues on organizational commitment was observed with a significant path coefficient of .41, p<.001. A negative indirect effect was also found. A direct effect was also indicated between experienced colleagues and job satisfaction with a path coefficient of .42, p<.001, and an indirect effect of ß=.09 was obtained. No direct effect was obtained between experienced colleagues and intention to remain. A significant total effect was obtained but the direct effect was not significant, and an indirect effect of ß = .03 was obtained. Task identity also showed a significant direct effect on organizational commitment with ß=-.21, p<.05.

Two indicators showed direct effects on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Personal learning had a path coefficient of .23 (p<.05) in predicting organizational commitment and a path coefficient of .20 (p<.05) in predicting job

satisfaction. Direct effects were indicated between role clarity and organizational commitment (ß=.28, p<.01) and job satisfaction (ß=.28, p<.01).

Insert Table 65 About Here

Summary

The chapter presented the results of the statistical analyses used to: test the four main hypotheses; examine the overall model of socialization effectiveness; test for interactions among the antecedents; examine the relationships between the antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness for different assignment periods; test for interactions between gender and the antecedents; and examine the relationship between socialization effectiveness and other variables in the study. For each of the above mentioned categories, the findings from the statistical analyses were presented along with a summary of primary findings.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The study was undertaken in response to the paucity of empirical research in the organizational socialization area and to the need for a more comprehensive and relevant set of criteria for evaluating the socialization process in organizations (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986). Subsequently, a comprehensive model that matches the conceptual definition of socialization effectiveness with the operational measures of the socialization process was developed. The model consists of four antecedent variables (socialization tactics, job scope, prior work experience, and self monitoring) and six indicators of socialization effectiveness (task mastery, functioning within the work group, knowledge and acceptance of the culture of the organization, personal learning, and role clarity). Four main hypotheses were formulated and the primary results of the hypothesis testing indicate some support for the proposed model of socialization effectiveness. Moreover, results of additional analyses reveal stronger support for the model. The findings from the various analyses will be discussed separately below. The discussion will proceed in the following sequence: socialization tactics, job scope, interactions among antecedents, prior work experience, self-monitoring, role of gender in organizational socialization; antecedents, socialization effectiveness, and outcome variables; contributions of the study, future research directions, summary, and conclusion.

Socialization tactics

The organization examined in this study seems to adopt a more institutionalized (collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture) than individualized

(individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and divestiture) approach to socializing newcomers as indicated by the mean response of the composite scale. Among the three measures of socialization tactics utilized in the study, two (role of experienced colleagues and role of co-workers) have mean scores consistent with the composite scale. Mean responses for the composite scale and these socialization tactics range from 3.17 to 3.92 on a scale of 1 to 5. However, the mean response (2.59) for one of the measures (training) suggests a moderate use of both the institutionalized and individualized tactics.

As was stated previously, correlational and regression analyses were used to test each hypothesis. In discussing the findings of the research, predicted relationships that are supported by both analyses represent the more dominant findings of the study. Because of the novelty of the present research, however, significant relationships indicated by either the correlation or regression analysis are presented as tentative findings that should be interpreted cautiously.

Findings from the correlational and regression analyses suggest that experienced colleagues play the most prominent role in predicting socialization effectiveness. These findings partially support Hypothesis 1 in that the utilization of experienced colleagues was related to three indicators of socialization effectiveness - task mastery, functioning within the work group, and role clarity. As was stated previously, the experienced colleagues scale consists of four investiture versus divestiture items (for example, "I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are important to CAG." "My supervisors provided me with assignments that give me the opportunity to strengthen and develop new skills.") and four serial versus disjunctive items (for example, "My supervisors have taken time to learn more about my career goals and aspirations." "Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their responsibilities.") and one fixed versus variable item (for example, "I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercises at CAG."). The findings extend prior studies by validating empirically the relationships between experienced colleagues and the indicators of effective socialization. They reveal that experienced colleagues represent an important source of information regarding job expectations, the norms and nuances of the work group, and job

knowledge. Hence, they contribute to newcomers' learning of the ropes. Prior studies have investigated the relationship between socialization tactics and traditional outcome variables such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain with similar findings. For instance Jones (1986) found that the institutionalized tactics were associated with greater job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and lower intention to quit. He concluded that the investiture tactics were more important than the other institutionalized tactics in achieving those outcomes. Similarly, Allen and Meyer (1990) and Baker (1988) found the investiture tactics to be associated with more positive outcomes than other institutionalized tactics.

The importance of experienced colleagues for newcomer effective socialization was also consistent for the different assignment periods. Significant relationships were observed between experienced colleagues and success in functioning within the work group and role clarity for all three assignment periods, thereby suggesting the robustness of experienced colleagues to newcomer effective socialization.

As was stated previously, investiture and serial tactics refer to the amount of support provided by the supervisors and experienced organization members to the newcomers. The importance of supervisory support or mentorship role played by experienced members to newcomers' successful adjustment is well documented in the literature (Chatman, 1991; Fisher, 1986; Kram, 1985; Posner et al., 1985; Reichers, 1987; Schein, 1978). For example, Posner et al. (1985) found interaction with peers, supervisor, and senior co-workers as most important in helping newcomers adjust to the organization.

The correlational analyses suggest that co-workers have a positive relationship on newcomers' success in functioning within their work group. The lack of significant relationship between co-workers and other indicators of effective socialization suggests that a more complex relationship may exist between the role of co-workers and the criterion variables or that the relationship between co-workers and effective socialization is limited to certain indicators of socialization effectiveness. Possibly, the importance of coworkers to newcomers' effective socialization varies with the type of tasks performed by newcomers.

For example, the mean responses of the job scope variables suggest that newcomers are engaged in enriched tasks which could be projects specifically tailored for the newcomers. To the extent that the job engaged in by the newcomers are not similar to their co-workers, co-workers' importance in helping the newcomers achieve effective socialization might be limited.

Another possible explanation for the lack of importance of co-workers compared to experienced colleagues may be due to the scale of the two factors. An examination of the items for the experienced colleagues and co-worker scales reveals that the items in the experienced colleagues scale are more specific as to the support provided by the supervisor and experienced colleagues (e.g., "My supervisor provided me with special projects that increase my visibility in the company"; "experienced organizational members see advising or training of newcomers as one of their responsibilities"), while for the co-workers scale, the items reflect a broader perspective. For example, three items in the co-worker scale are: "almost all my coworkers have been supportive of me"; "my co-workers have gone out of their way to help me adjust"; and "I have learned about accepted norms from coworkers."

The correlational analyses suggest that training contributes to newcomers' acceptance of the culture of the organization. However, inconsistent relationships between training and indicators of socialization effectiveness for the different assignment periods suggest the existence of a more complex relationship. For instance, training is shown to contribute to newcomers' success in functioning within their work group, and understanding, and accepting the organizational culture during the first assignment but these relationships disappear during the second and third assignments. A test of difference between the correlation coefficients provides support for different relationships between training and these indicators of socialization effectiveness for different assignment periods. While training is shown to inhibit newcomers task mastery during the third assignment, a non-significant relationship was indicated during the first assignment. Training is also shown to inhibit personal learning during the second assignment but contribute to personal learning during the third assignment. Significant differences in the relationships of training with task mastery and training with personal learning for the respective assignment periods

were obtained.

The above findings between training and indicators of socialization effectiveness for the different assignment periods is consistent with the proposition of the model which maintains that every newcomer would need to acquire similar socialization content but their proficiency in acquiring the socialization content may vary with time. The results suggest that upon entry, the information provided to the employees through this avenue is very important. However, during the second or third assignment periods, because the newcomers have become proficient in acquiring such information, training could be inhibiting. Another possibility is that the items measuring training refer to aspects of the newcomer socialization process that need to be resolved upon entry. For example, two of the items in the scale state that "CA puts all CDPs through the same set of learning experiences"; "I have been through a set of training experiences that are designed to give CDPs a thorough knowledge of job related skills." Personal learning seems to be a more gradual process which requires gathering and synthesizing information about the organization and the self thereby suggesting that training is important during the third assignment period. Since personal learning suggests more gathering and synthesizing of information from the organization compared to the self, it could require more time

Job Scope

In general, newcomers are engaged in relatively enriched jobs as indicated by the mean responses of the job scope variables. The regression models used to examine the second hypothesis indicate that job scope accounted for significant variance in work group functioning and role clarity. However, feedback was the most relevant job scope dimension to newcomer effective socialization since strong and consistent relationships were obtained between feedback and work group functioning, acceptance of culture, and role clarity. Empirical research in the area of job scope has been extensive (O'Reilly,

1991). Feedback and other job characteristics have been associated with high internal work motivation and positive job attitudes. Jackson and Schuler (1985) stated that feedback has been found to be negatively related to role ambiguity which is consistent with the positive relationship found between feedback and role clarity. The theoretical literature in organizational socialization has also emphasized the importance of feedback. For instance, Feldman (1981) maintained that consistent feedback during the socialization process further clarifies the need for training and development. Wanous and Colella (1989) noted that both the means through which feedback is provided and the characteristics of the feedback itself are important aspects of the socialization process. Similarly, Ashford (1986), Ashford and Taylor (1990), and Katz (1980) have acknowledged the importance of feedback to newcomer successful adjustment in the organization. As such the findings extend previous work in organizational socialization by validating empirically the relationships that were proposed in the literature. Furthermore, the present findings are consistent with the empirical literature in organizational behavior which concludes that feedback enhances employees' ability to attain important outcomes in their environment much more efficiently than might otherwise be the case (Ammons, 1956; Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Payne & Hauty, 1955; Vroom, 1964).

The findings regarding variety and autonomy are inconsistent. However, such inconsistency is not uncommon especially when a block of independent variables that are correlated enter as a set in a regression model. The correlational analyses suggest that skill variety increases the employee's chance to work well with his or her group; contributes to task mastery, and enhances the employees' acceptance of the organization's culture. Autonomy also contributed to newcomers' success in functioning within their work group. Autonomy has been associated with increased personal worth. A number of studies have found that employees who have a significant degree of self-direction on their jobs tend to increase their ability to cope with the challenges of complex situations and also increase their sense of personal efficacy. Autonomy has been identified as one of the characteristics of an effective work team. The present finding extends prior studies suggesting that the extent to which autonomy encourages the newcomer to use his or her discretion, take

responsibility and make decisions could be important for successful functioning within the work group. The findings are also consistent with the group literature. As was stated in the earlier chapters, Moreland and Levine (1982) maintained that for separate groups, the requirements for becoming an accepted member could differ with the structure, the size, membership and task characteristics. In one group, newcomers who are independent and assertive might gain inclusion while in another group, newcomers who are passive and dependent might gain inclusion instead. Milliken and Vollrath (1991) also maintained that each group could have a different set of criteria which are highly task related for evaluating its success. The present finding suggests that autonomy contributes to newcomers' success in functioning within his or her work group in the present organization.

In order to further explore the complex relationships that tend to exist between some of the antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness, the next session discusses the interaction between job scope variables and other antecedents. As was stated previously, both main effects and moderating effects have been found in the relationship between job scope and behavioral outcomes. Although, Jackson and Schuler (1985) maintained that most of the studies are flawed and lack theoretical rigor, Schuler (1977) acknowledged that both task design and organizational structure made independent as well as joint contributions in predicting role ambiguity and role conflict. As a result further analysis was undertaken to explore the possibility of interaction between the job scope variables and other antecedents.

Interaction Between Socialization Tactics and Job Scope

Although interactions among the antecedents were not hypothesized, results of both the correlational analysis among the antecedents and the lack of main effects for some of the predicted relationships suggest the presence of more complex relationships. As indicated earlier, interactions between job scope variables and other antecedents are possible since the employee's perception of job characteristics could be influenced by both individual and /or contextual factors. Both independent and interaction effects have been found between job

scope variables and individual and/or organizational outcomes in the literature. In order to provide better understanding of the model of socialization effectiveness, and also consistent with the interactionist perspective (Chatman, 1989; Jones, 1983), interactions among the antecedents (socialization tactics, job scope, prior work experience and self-monitoring) were explored. Significant interaction effects were obtained only between socialization tactics and job scope variables.

Although main effects were found between experienced colleagues and success in functioning within the work group, the finding from the sub group analysis suggest that this relationship will hold better for newcomers who engage in jobs with low task identity. The finding is consistent with prior literature that emphasizes the importance of experienced colleagues to newcomer successful adjustment. As Jackson and Schuler (1985) stated, task identity may be perceived by newcomers as the extent to which they identify with the organizational goal as well as how they perceive their interdependence with others. As such, newcomers engaged in jobs with low identity can benefit from experienced colleagues. They can provide information that clarifies the organizational requirements and expectations for newcomers thereby enhancing their relationship with the work group. Such information will also enable the newcomers to make the connection of how their job fits into that of the organization.

The analyses also revealed that experienced colleagues contribute to the acceptance of the culture of the organization primarily when the newcomers are engaged in jobs with low task identity. These findings extend prior studies by identifying situations under which involving experienced colleagues in newcomer socialization will be more effective. One possible explanation for such a relationship is that the newcomers are more likely to accept help or support from experienced colleagues when they are engaged in tasks with low task identity in order to make sense of the situation. Another possible explanation is that since the newcomers in this sample are all college graduates, they are more likely to expect enriched jobs. However, if they are initially engaged in jobs that have low task identity, they will be more likely to accept explanation from experienced organizational members and will also be more likely to rationalize their engaging in such jobs as a cultural issue.

Although a main effect relationship was not supported between role of co-workers and task mastery, co-workers contribute to new employees' task mastery when the employees are engaged in tasks with high skill variety. This suggests that if the new employees are performing tasks where they need to carry out different activities or use different skills, co-workers will be especially helpful to the newcomers' task mastery. These results are plausible since a high variety task is likely to be more challenging in which case the newcomer should welcome and appreciate any help from co-workers.

A number of main effects and interaction effects have been found between the antecedents and the indicators of effective socialization. However, for some indicators of effective socialization - knowledge of culture and personal learning - significant relationships were revealed only when the relationships between the antecedents and effective socialization were examined for different assignment periods. The examination of gender effects in organizational socialization within the next two sections would further explain the relationship among the antecedents, knowledge of culture, and personal learning.

Prior Work Experience

Most of the predicted relationships for Hypotheses 3A, 3B, 3C, & 3D were not supported. One out of the six regression models was significant indicating that prior work experience accounted for significant variance in one indicator of socialization effectiveness (knowledge of the organization's culture).

Findings from the correlational analyses suggest that prior work experience has no significant effect on newcomers' task mastery, acceptance of culture, or role clarity. Significant relationships exist between some prior work experience factors and newcomers' success in functioning within the work group, learning and understanding the culture of the organization, and personal learning. However, the results supporting the predicted

relationships will be discussed first. The more similar the current tasks of the respondents are to those engaged in before joining the organization, the greater their learning and understanding of the culture of the organization. This finding is consistent with the presence of subcultures whereby similar tasks could be carried out in the same manner within the same functional area. The positive relationship between participation in co-op and internship experiences and personal learning extends the co-op literature. Career clarity, career readiness, personal development are some of the benefits that have been associated with participation in a co-op program (Fletcher, 1991; Weinstein, 1981). However, the co-op and internship literature has found the structure or characteristics of these work experiences critical in achieving positive outcomes (Page et al., 1981; Taylor, 1988; Weinstein, 1981).

The lack of significant relationships between prior work experience and task mastery suggests that having any form of work experience before joining the company has no significant relationship on new employees' learning of the task. One possible explanation for the lack of a relationship between prior work experience and task mastery is that the respondents are participants in a Career Development Program designed for newcomers without extensive prior work experience. Since the majority of the respondents have little work experience, there is not enough variation to produce a relationship. It is also possible that since none of the respondents engaged in any full time employment for an extended period, they did not hold jobs with comparative expectations and levels of responsibility as in the current jobs.

Department similarity and the variety of employers inhibited newcomers' success in functioning within their work group. This finding emphasizes the uniqueness of different work groups whereby the norms for inclusion and success could be different even within similar departments. Having worked for a similar department prior to joining the organization could lead to transferring old cues which might not be relevant to the new environment. Prior work experience with different employers could inhibit newcomers' success in functioning within the work group to the extent that it indicates a restlessness on the part of the employee not to work consistently with one employer. Another possible

explanation is that the type of tasks engaged in by the respondent with different employers required different ground rules which could be distracting for the employee in this new work environment.

However, total work experience, variety of employers, and company similarity decrease the newcomers' opportunity to learn and understand the culture. The finding is consistent with the notion that each company has a unique culture. As such, exposure to a variety of employers or similar employers could make it more difficult to appreciate the uniqueness of the present organization. Even though having prior work experience had exposed the employees to the world of work, it did not seem to contribute to effective socialization. Rather, the results indicate that some prior work experience factors inhibited the newcomers' chances of being effectively socialized. For example, having extensive prior work experience inhibited the employee's chances of mastering the task of their job. One possible explanation may be that having had a great deal of work experience, the expectation of the employees might be to go into a permanent job rather than what they would consider an assignment thereby making it difficult for them to master the tasks of the new jobs.

In the present study, prior work experience did not seem to be an important predictor of socialization effectiveness. The characteristics of the sample as well as the characteristics of the respondents' prior work experience have been discussed as possible explanations for the present findings.

Self-monitoring

The findings indicate that the higher the degree of self-monitoring, the more successful the newcomer will be in functioning within his or her work group. The findings are consistent with the prior literature. For instance, Dobbins et al. (1990) maintained that high self-monitors will be more proactive and seek out insiders to "make sense" of the new situation and as a result exhibit behavior patterns that match group members' expectations.

Summary

In summary, the findings reveal both main effects and interaction effects between some antecedents and some indicators of socialization effectiveness. However the lack of significant relationships between the antecedents and three indicators of socialization effectiveness for the total sample suggests further analysis which is discussed in the next section.

Gender Effects in Organizational Socialization.

Gender effects in the work place are widely acknowledged in the organizational behavior and management literature (Dipboye, 1987; Morrison & VonGlinow, 1990). The increasing attention on women in management can be attributed to some of the following reasons: (1) the realization that women will constitute a substantial percentage of the work force in the near future; (2) the need to address the imbalance that exists between women occupying positions at the lower ranks and those occupying management positions; (3) The increased global competition which makes it pertinent for organizations to effectively utilize all of their available human resources and; (4) The increased government involvement in business. Various theories explaining gender differences in management have been developed. Morrison and VonGlinow (1990) maintained that these theories can be grouped under three main approaches. The set of theories reflecting the first approach assumes that differences handicap women and minorities; the theories postulate that deficiencies in underrepresented groups are largely responsible for their differential treatment in management. The second set of theories cites discrimination by the majority population as the major cause of inequities. These theories maintain that bias and stereotyping on the part

of white men in power account for the slow progress of women and minorities. Third are theories that identify structural, systemic discrimination as the root cause of differential treatment rather than actions or characteristics of individuals. These theories claim that widespread policies and practices in the social system perpetuate discriminatory treatment of women and blacks. The commonality underlying the three approaches is that they acknowledge gender differences in organizational phenomena. However, they differ in their explanation of the possible causes for the differences as well as recommended solutions. But empirical studies investigating gender differences have reported mixed results. Some studies have found significant gender differences while others have found no significant difference between males and females.

Gender differences in organizational socialization have been acknowledged (Nelson & Quick, 1991; Posner & Powell, 1985). However, the focus of the studies was on the availability and helpfulness of socialization activities to male and female employees. Posner and Powell found that both males and females reported equal access to the socialization activities but that males were more likely to report the activities as helpful than females. They concluded that men and women were likely to differ in how they interpret, respond to, and/or benefit from socialization activities.

The lack of main effects between the antecedents and three indicators of socialization effectiveness (knowledge of culture, acceptance of culture, and personal learning) suggested possible gender effects. Consistent with the theoretical approaches which acknowledge gender differences in organizations, and the empirical studies in the socialization area (Posner & Powell, 1985), both main effects and interaction effects of gender in the model of socialization effectiveness were examined.

The results of a MANOVA indicated a significant difference between men and women for one of the antecedents - self-monitoring. Men are more likely to be higher in self-monitoring than women. However no significant gender differences were found for the other antecedents and for any of the indicators of socialization effectiveness. These findings are consistent with Posner and Powell (1985), and Nelson and Quick (1991) thereby suggesting that men and women did not indicate any difference in the socialization

experiences provided by the organization. However, findings from the hierarchical regression and subgroup analyses indicated that gender moderated the relationship between some antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness. The results provide some explanation for the lack of main effects found between the antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness such as knowledge of culture, acceptance of culture, and personal learning.

Generally, the findings suggest that certain antecedents that tend to work for men in achieving effective socialization do not work for women. For instance, the findings from the subgroup analyses reveal that the effect of training on learning and understanding the culture of the organization, acceptance of the culture, and personal learning is different for men and women. Training is found to inhibit female employees' learning and understanding the culture of the organization while for males, although not significant, the relationship is in the opposite direction. Training is revealed to enhance male employees' acceptance of the culture of the organization but the relationship does not hold for female employees. One possible explanation for such discrepancies between men and women could be attributed to structural and systemic differences that exist in the work environment that could result in some form of treatment discrimination for women. For example, the demographic characteristics presented earlier shows that 93% of the supervisors are males and 7% are females. Such statistics show that the information is more likely to be presented by men, and the available role models are more likely to be men.

The results indicate that among women (but not men), learning and understanding the culture of the organization is decreased when employees are engaged in jobs with high task identity. Jackson and Schuler (1985) speculated that "to the extent task identity reflects the respondents' awareness of how they fit into the larger organizational scheme, including the nature of their interdependence with others, the negative correlation with role ambiguity makes sense" (p. 30). A job with high task identity could entail a high degree of interdependence resulting in more interaction with co-workers. On the other hand, a job with high identity could entail a special project that the employee could work on with limited interdependence or interaction. Since the present sample engage in rotational

assignments, the second situation is appropriate. One possible explanation is that if a newcomer is engaged in a project with high task identity which results in limited interaction with other employees, it will be more difficult to acquire information about the culture. For female newcomers, it can inhibit their learning of the culture of the organization because it is more difficult for women to develop the informal networks which can otherwise be a source of such information.

The results also suggest that training does not contribute to personal learning for female employees. Similarly autonomy is also negatively related to personal learning for female employees but not for men. However, skill variety is positively related to personal learning for male employees thereby suggesting that providing jobs which require use of different skills or carrying out different activities contribute to male employees personal learning. The findings reveal that similar socialization experiences to newcomers could result in different consequences for males and females. However, more research is needed to fully understand the reasons for some of these differences.

Socialization Tactics, Socialization Effectiveness, and Outcome Variables

The correlational analysis reveals significant relationships between experienced colleagues and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain. Co-workers was significantly related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Significant relationships were also indicated between both task mastery and role clarity with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain. Work group functioning and personal learning were also positively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. However, path analysis revealed direct relationships between experienced colleagues, personal learning, and role clarity with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. A possible explanation for the inconsistency between the findings of the correlation analysis and path analysis is the intercorrelation among some of the variables in the model. Role clarity is correlated with work group functioning,

acceptance of culture, and personal learning. Although the correlation coefficients are not high enough to suggest multicollinearity ($r \geq .8$), it could contribute to inconsistency in the findings. Another possible explanation is that the predicted relationships might not be additive suggesting moderating relationships between the model of socialization effectiveness and the outcome variables. Also, the relationships were examined for the whole sample, and examining gender effects might lead to different results. However, since this part of the analysis is not the main focus of the study, future research should examine the relationships for male and female employees.

Contributions of the Study

The study makes important contributions to both the theoretical and empirical literature in the study of organizational socialization, and the findings have implications for practitioners as well.

Research contributions. The major contribution made by the study was the comprehensive model of socialization effectiveness used to evaluate the socialization process in organizations. The need for such a model was addressed by Feldman (1981) and emphasized by Fisher (1986) who stated that "none of the research to date has used a comprehensive outcome set" (p.110) to evaluate the effectiveness of socialization programs. As Fisher noted, the need for such a model is heightened by the inconsistency between the outcomes of socialization described in conceptual papers and the operational measures adopted in empirical studies. This is one of the first studies that develops a comprehensive set of indicators that matches the conceptual definition of the socialization process with the operational measures. The relevant criteria used were based on the socialization content identified from the socialization literature (Feldman, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1978). The socialization content consists of information the newcomer needs to acquire for successful adjustment in the organization. As such the effectiveness of the socialization process was assessed using those criteria.

The study acknowledges the contribution of the stage approach but provides a more basic and pragmatic approach that can be utilized by both the newcomer and the organization to evaluate the effectiveness of the socialization process. How effectively an employee is socialized can be evaluated at any stage, although his or her proficiency in acquiring the socialization content may vary. The dimensions of socialization effectiveness used for the study also contribute to both the theoretical and empirical literature. All the antecedents of effective socialization used in the study have been studied in the literature. However, their relationships with the indicators of socialization effectiveness have not been studied previously.

The interaction effects found among the antecedents provide greater insight into the understanding of the socialization process. Empirical research will benefit from this finding by realizing that the socialization of newcomers can be a complex process whereby success is more likely to be achieved by employees who possess different combinations of organizational experiences. For instance, job characteristics moderate the relationship between socialization tactics and effective socialization.

The findings on gender differences on newcomers' effective socialization also constitute a contribution to the socialization literature. The role of gender in organizational socialization has not been the focus of much empirical investigation. However, the present study extends Posner and Powell's (1985) study by investigating empirically both the main effects and interaction effects of gender in organizational socialization. This study found that certain antecedents that seem to work for men in achieving effective socialization do not work for women. The study contributes to the gender literature by acknowledging the proposition of the three major approaches in the gender literature which maintain that differences exist between men and women in organizations.

Implications for practitioners. The modest percentage of variance explained by the antecedents of socialization effectiveness suggest caution in discussing the practical implications of the present study. However, some of the more consistent results may have implications for human resource management.

Antecedents such as experienced colleagues and feedback were particularly robust

in predicting effective socialization. Both factors were more directly related to newcomer socialization for the whole sample. The implication of this finding for the organization is to use the investiture and serial socialization tactics whereby experienced organizational members and newcomers' respective supervisors are available and involved with the newcomers' "learning of the ropes." The involvement of experienced colleagues in the socialization program not only contributes to newcomers' effective socialization but also to the achievement of both individual and organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction as was indicated in the path analysis. The organization should provide feedback to newcomers during this transition process. In this case the feedback items reflected both feedback from the task and from the supervisor.

The findings reveal that the organization has a great influence over the socialization experiences and socialization "outcomes" of newcomers. The interaction between socialization tactics and the job scope variables suggests that when adopting particular socialization tactics, the task characteristics of the jobs assigned to new employees have to be considered as well. The organization should try to create the best fit between the socialization tactics and the characteristics of the job assigned to newcomers. For instance, the importance of experienced colleagues to newcomers' successful functioning within the work group is greater when the new employees are engaged in jobs with low task identity. Similarly, experienced colleagues contribute to newcomers' acceptance of the culture of the organization when they are engaged in jobs with low task identity. In order to gain the benefits of effective socialization, the task identity of the newcomers' jobs have to be carefully evaluated. A job with high task identity under some circumstances could isolate the newcomer from the important sources of information that he or she needs to make sense of the situation. In some cases, occupying a job with high task identity could provide a false sense of assurance whereby the newcomer will be less likely to depend on experienced insiders for non-job specific information such as culture. The finding is consistent with Katz's (1980) proposition which expresses caution in providing newcomers with enriched jobs upon entry into the organization. He maintained that task characteristics such as autonomy and skill variety are not of immediate importance to newcomer

successful adjustment but feedback and task significance are essential upon entry. However, the results of the interaction between gender and job scope variables suggest that Katz's (1980) proposition might be more applicable to females than males.

Different socialization benefits are indicated for men and women when certain antecedents of effective socialization are present. With the changing characteristics of the work force, the finding creates awareness about differences that could occur in the socialization process of a diverse work force. For example, the results of the study indicate that even when males and females perceive the same level of task characteristics, different individual and organizational outcomes were realized. Task characteristics such as high autonomy and high task identity resulted in opposite outcomes for males and females with females reporting negative results.

The finding provides a basis for the development of diversity awareness programs which could be incorporated into an organization's management and career development programs. For the participating organization, diversity awareness could be incorporated into their Career Development Program, which as was discussed previously, provides both career planning and development functions to participants.

On a broader scale, the career development program function should be an organization wide activity that should involve all newcomers as well as incumbents in order to realize the benefits of planning for a diverse work force. According to Jackson and Schuler (1990), "the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that ethnic minorities will account for 57% of the growth in the labor force between now and the year 2000. Of the approximately 25 million workers added to the work force between 1985 and 2000, 42% are expected to be native White women and only 15% are expected to be native White men. Fully 22% are expected to be immigrants" (p. 224).

The weak results between prior work experience factors and newcomer effective socialization, although contrary to expectation, provides an important lesson to the organization. The finding indicates that newcomers' prior work experience was not particularly relevant to acquiring the socialization content in the current organization. The findings of this study have advocated the organization's involvement in the socialization

process of newcomers. The present finding further strengthens the need for such involvement in the current organization. Newcomers seem to realize or perceive the current organization as unique whereby they are receptive to information that needs to be acquired to function effectively. As such, the organization can enhance the effective socialization of newcomers if it adapts a more institutionalized strategy, emphasizing the investiture and serial tactics, provides the newcomers with the necessary feedback, and take individual differences into consideration in arranging the scope of the employee's job.

The increasing realization by organizations that "human resources represent a major competitive advantage" makes the findings of the study quite timely, especially, since the early career experiences of newcomers into the organization greatly influence their long-term success (Berlew & Hall, 1968). Since the model of socialization effectiveness identifies both antecedents that will enhance effective socialization as well as the indicators of socialization effectiveness, it can be used both as a diagnostic and feedback mechanism by the newcomers and the organization. The model will enable both the newcomers and the organization to mutually assess the progress in the socialization process thereby providing opportunity for any corrective action. As such, the model contributes to effective transition of new college graduates into a corporate environment.

Future Directions

The present study raised some interesting research questions which, although examined, leave room for more inquiry. Further research would be needed to modify or extend the present research along several dimensions. Since this is one of the first comprehensive models of socialization effectiveness, further studies should test the model on college graduates employed in more than one company.

Caution should be exercised in generalizing the results of the present study. The sample was drawn from participants of a career development program. As such, their jobs during their membership in the program are not typical of other newcomers' jobs in both the participating organization or other organizations. Future research should use a sample

of college graduates who are participants in a career development program as well as those who are assigned directly to their permanent jobs upon entry into the organization.

Socialization is defined as a continuous process which occurs over the course of an individual's life and tenure within a particular organization. A longitudinal design would be more appropriate in identifying the processes associated with the effect of time on socialization effectiveness. Such a design will also provide more clarity to the unfolding of relationships. Although the present study did not use a longitudinal design, it contributes some insight into the importance of the antecedents to employees at different assignment periods.

During the socialization process, there could be cataclysmic events of extraordinary significance in the life of the institution and/or the individual that cannot be captured by a static model such as a cross-sectional design. Similarly, the socialization tactics scale (Appendix A) used for the study include items that were not anchored for a specific time frame. It does not include landmark items that could have a profound impact on the individual. Future research should explore multiple methodologies as well as multiple socialization tactics that have not been used previously to provide greater insight into such a longitudinal and subtle process. Utilizing multiple socialization tactics that will be obtained from individual and organizational perspectives will also reduce the common method variance that could result from the present study.

Additional analyses suggest that socialization is a complex process whereby some of the predicted relationships were not additive. For example, significant interactions obtained between socialization tactics and job scope in their relationship to the indicators of socialization effectiveness are consistent with the complex nature of the socialization process. Future studies should propose and test a more complex model of socialization effectiveness. The complex relationships associated with the socialization process are evident from the results of the path analysis. The socialization tactics, job scope, and indicators of effective socialization explained high percentages of variance in job satisfaction and organizational commitment - .46 and .40 both at p<.001. However, the lack of direct and indirect relationships between most of the antecedents, indicators and the

outcomes suggest the presence of correlated variables. Future studies should consider combining or dropping some of the variables; examining mediating effects of some of the variables and also incorporating other variables that are not in the model.

As was stated previously, the weak relationship between co-workers and socialization effectiveness might be due to the some complex relationships. The finding indicates that co-workers are associated with task mastery when the employees are engaged with jobs with high skill variety. The results suggest that future studies could manipulate the task characteristics provided to newcomers upon entry to determine the effect on socialization effectiveness. Logically, if newcomers are involved in jobs that would require high skill variety, they are more likely to need help from their co-workers. Future studies should incorporate more items reflecting different types of support in the co-worker scale. It is possible that some form of support might be more relevant to newcomer socialization.

The lack of interaction between prior work experience factors and other antecedents of effective socialization is not consistent with the dominant view that prior work experience will foster both the employee's adjustment as well as result in positive outcomes. However, literature on the advantage of prior work experience is anecdotal. Empirical research has found that the importance of prior work experience could depend more on the characteristics of the work experience than on the presence or absence of prior work experience (Taylor, 1988; Weinstein, 1981). Among the characteristics of prior work experience that were investigated in this study are the extensiveness of prior work experience, total work experience, and the similarity of prior work experience. Future studies should examine these characteristics on a sample with varying lengths of prior work experience because the respondents for this study consist of newcomers who did not have extensive prior work experience. Autonomy, work similarity, and supervision were found to affect the benefits of internships (Taylor, 1988). Future studies could also examine the impact of task characteristics of prior work experience to effective socialization.

Consistent with the interactionist perspective, organizational, extra-organizational, and individual factors were examined in relation to socialization effectiveness. However, contrary to expectations, the individual factor did not interact with other study variables.

This finding was consistent with Zahrly and Tosi (1989) who also did not find any interaction effects between self-monitoring and other study variables. Alternatively, Jones (1986) found self-efficacy to moderate the relationship between socialization tactics and role outcomes. Future studies should incorporate other individual factors into a model of socialization effectiveness.

Results associated with some of the variables in the study such as prior work experience factors and self-monitoring were disappointing. Nevertheless progress should continue especially since there is not much variance in the work experience of the present sample. Model development and testing await additional studies.

Summary and Conclusion

Theoretical work in the area of organizational socialization is extensive. However, empirical research has been sparse and fragmented. A lack of a comprehensive and relevant criterion to evaluate the effectiveness of the socialization process in organizations is also apparent. The present research was undertaken in response to the imbalance between the theoretical and empirical literature in organizational socialization and specifically to develop a comprehensive and relevant criterion to evaluate the socialization process.

In developing the model of socialization effectiveness, prior literature in both organizational socialization and related areas was drawn upon to identify both the antecedents and indicators of effective socialization. The relationships between the antecedents and indicators of effective socialization were discussed resulting in four main hypotheses. Since this is one of the first comprehensive models of socialization effectiveness that exists, main effects were predicted. Correlational and regression analysis were used to test the predicted relationships. Some main effects were found. However, weak or non-existent relationships resulted in additional analyses. Hierarchical regression analysis and sub-group analysis were used to examine interactions among the antecedents. Gender effects were also explored using MANOVA to examine main effects between

gender and both antecedents and indicators of socialization effectiveness. Interaction between gender and the antecedents was examined using hierarchical regression and sub-group analysis. Additional analyses were conducted between the factors in the model of socialization effectiveness and the traditional outcome variables such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to remain, and work stress. This latter analysis was undertaken to provide a basis for comparison with prior studies and also delineate the unique contribution of the present study.

The findings from the study reveal that the socialization of newcomers into the organization is a complex process. The finding is consistent with the interactionist perspective (Chatman, 1989; Jones, 1983; Reichers, 1987) which emphasizes the interaction of organizational, extra-organizational, and personal factors during the socialization process. The study contributes to both the theoretical and empirical literature. Implications for practitioners were also discussed.

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APPENDICES

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Table 3

Results of MANOVA Analysis for Surveys Administered "In-House" and Mail Survey[a]

Major Variables	Adjusted means		Mean square	F	Multivariate F
	Group 1	Group 2			
Experienced colleagues	3.58	3.61	.43	.04	.84
Training	2.73	2.51	.28	3.68	
Co-workers	3.87	4.04	.51	1.06	
Autonomy	5.28	5.11	1.46	.43	
Feedback	4.52	4.60	1.30	.10	
Task identity	4.76	4.86	1.94	.09	
Skill variety	5.04	5.11	1.65	.06	
Total coop and/internship	.82	.73	.32	.40	
Total work experience	2.38	2.38	.97	.56	
Variety of employers	2.93	3.04	1.76	3.10	
Job title similarity	.31	.35	.52	.44	
Department similarity	.85	.46	1.19	.19	
Company similarity	.69	.35	.82	3.11	
Industry similarity	.95	.77	1.26	.09	
Task similarity	3.45	2.81	3.15	.00	
Total work similarity	.43	.44	.04	2.65	
Self-monitoring	.49	.40	.03	.05	
Task mastery	4.05	3.83	.48	2.11	
Functioning within the work group	4.09	4.31	.31	2.96	
Knowledge of culture[b]	.89	.81	.04	3.20	
Acceptance of culture[b]	.95	.74	.12	7.06**	
Personal learning	4.10	4.14	.37	.08	
Role clarity	3.51	3.55	.30	.10	

[a] Survey administered to Group 1 = In-house; Group 2= Mail; [b] Low scores on these variables reflect high level of Knowledge of culture and high level of Acceptance of culture.

*p<.05; **p<.01

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Respondents	Supervisors
Age:		
Mean	25	40
Minimum	22	28
Maximum	35	64
Standard deviation	2.6	6
Job function:		
Computer related	29 (22.2%)	
Process engineering	15 (11.5%)	
Operations	11 (8.4%)	
Project engineering	10 (7.6%)	
Environmental	9 (6.9%)	
Research and Development	8 (6.1%)	
Financial analyst	7 (5.3%)	
Marketing	7 (5.3%)	
Other	35 (26.7%)	
Company group:		
Chemical	36 (27.7%)	
Corporate	24 (18.5%)	
Gas	24 (18.5%)	
Process	39 (30.0%)	
Energy and Environmental	7 (1.0%)	
Education:		
Some College	0 (0.0%)	25 (19.7%)
College degree	93 (100.0%)	22 (80.3%)
Graduate or Professional degree	36 (27.9%)	80 (63.0%)
Gender:		
Male	87 (66.4%)	119 (93.0%)
Female	44 (33.6%)	9 (0.07%)
Organizational tenure (months)		
Mean	16	166
Minimum	3	12
Maximum	38	372
Standard deviation	8.5	66.6
Race:		
Caucasian	106 (80.9%)	116 (93.5%)
Non Caucasian	25 (19.1%)	8 (6.5%)

Table 5

Results of Factor Analysis of Socialization Tactics

	Factor 1	Interpretable factors Factor 2	Factor 3
	Experienced Colleagues	Training	Coworkers
32. Supervisor cares about whether or not I achieve my career goals.	.67		
33. My supervisor gives me helpful feedback.	.65		
6. My supervisors have taken time to learn more about my career goals and aspirations.	.61		
22. Made to feel that my skills and abilities are important to CA	.59		
27. I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercises at CA	.58		
14. My supervisors provided assignments that give me the opportunity to strengthen and develop new skills.	.56		
9. My supervisors provide me with special projects that increase my visibility in the company.	.52		
20. I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations.	.51		

Table 5 (Continued)

Results of Factor Analysis of Socialization Tactics

| | Interpretable factors | | |
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	Experienced Colleagues	Training	Coworkers
26. Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their responsibilities.	.46		
35. CA does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experiences.		-.67	
16. CA puts all CPs through the same set of learning experiences.		.65	
34. The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified at CA.		.57	
15. Have been through training experiences that are designed to give CPs knowledge.		.56	
4. Almost all my coworkers have been supportive of me			.60
25. My coworkers have gone out of their way to help me adjust.			.57
3. Learned about accepted norms from coworkers.			.43
% Variance Explained:	13.5	7.1	3.2
Eigen Values:	4.73	2.49	1.13

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among Independent Variables

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.
1. Total tactics	(.66)											
2. Experienced Colleagues	.62***	(.83)										
3. Training	.41***	.17	(.69)									
4. Co-workers	.40***	.42***	.10	(.64)								
5. Autonomy	.16	.10	.22**	.10	(.86)							
6. Feedback	.39***	.36***	.29***	.16	.35***	(.78)						
7. Identity	.10	.27**	.19*	-.07	.35***	.40***	(.71)					
8. Variety	.21**	.31***	.26**	.12	.30***	.41***	.38***	(.70)				
9. Job Scope	.29***	.35***	.32***	.10	.72***	.74***	.76***	.67***	(.84)			
10. Total work experience	.10	.09	.13	.05	.00	.08	.08	-.05	.05	(.-)		
11. Total coop and internship	.20*	.15	-.04	.17	.02	.11	.03	.08	.08	.49***	(.-)	
12. Job title similarity	.23**	.13	.13	.07	.09	.16	.13	.18*	.18*	.15	.23*	(.-)
13. Department similarity	.05	-.14	-.17	-.02	.06	.14	-.03	.09	.07	.01	.26**	.09
14. Company similarity	.07	.02	-.05	.13	.06	-.03	.10	.06	-.01	.02	.27**	-.10
15. Industry similarity	.04	.01	-.13	.04	.00	-.05	-.17	.17	.01	-.14	.23*	.07
16. Variety of employers	.03	.11	.14	-.08	.02	.12	.09	.06	.10	.57***	.13	.18*
17. Task similarity	-.00	-.07	-.23**	-.09	-.05	-.15	.08	.02	-.03	-.12	.06	-.06
18. Total work similarity	.13	-.01	-.15	.04	.05	.01	.01	.17	.07	-.03	.34***	.36***
19. Self-monitoring	-.07	-.01	-.03	.04	.00	.07	.01	-.00	.03	.01	-.06	-.04

Note: Reliability coefficients for the multi-item scales are presented in the diagonal.
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 6 (Continued)

Intercorrelations Among Independent Variables

Variables	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.
13. Department similarity	(.-)						
14. Company similarity	.50***	(.-)					
15. Industry similarity	.47***	.67***	(.-)				
16. Variety of employers	-.02	.06	-.09	(.-)			
17. Task similarity	-.00	-.15	.11	-.24**	(.-)		
18. Total work similarity	.73***	.67***	.80***	-.04	.33***	(.-)	
19. Self-monitoring	-.02	-.11	-.02	-.03	.16	-.00	(.-)

Note: Reliability coefficients for the multi-item scales are presented in the diagonal.
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 7

Results of Factor Analysis of Job Scope

Items	Factor 1 Autonomy	Factor 2 Feedback	Factor 3 Task identity	Factor 4 Skill variety
10. Job provides me with considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	.83			
5. The job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work.	.78			
13. Use personal initiative and judgement in carrying out the work.	.72			
14. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.		.76		
15. My coworkers let me know how well I am doing on my job. well I am doing on my job.		.69		
17. Doing the job itself provides me with information about my work performance.		.55		
2. After I finish a job, I know whether I have performed well.		.51		
7. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.		.45		
16. The job is arranged so I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.			.73	

Table 7 (Continued)

Results of Factor Analysis of Job Scope

Items	Factor 1 Autonomy	Factor 2 Feedback	Factor 3 Task identity	Factor 4 Skill variety
12. The job provides me the chance to finish completely the pieces of work I began.			.71	
6. My job involves doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work			.56	
1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.				.65
4. The job requires me to do different things at work, using a variety of my skills and talents.				.64
11. Job itself is significant & important........				.57
3. The job can be done adequately by alone or without talking or checking with other people.				-.42
% Variance Explained:	26.3	1.41	1.14	.87
Eigen Values:	3.68	10.1	8.1	6.2

Table 8

Intercorrelations Among Prior Work Experience Factors

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Total coop and internship										
2. Total work experience	.49***									
3. Variety of employers	.13	.57***								
4. Job title similarity	.23*	.15	.18*							
5. Department similarity	.26**	.01	-.02	.09						
6. Company similarity	.27**	.02	.06	-.10	.50***					
7. Industry similarity	.23*	-.14	-.09	.07	.47***	.67***				
8. Task similarity	.06	-.12	-.24**	-.06	-.00	-.15	.11			
9. Total work similarity	.34***	-.03	-.04	.36***	.73***	.67***	.80***	.33***		
10. Task similarity- single measure	.24**	.07	-.08	.15	.29**	.38***	.45***	.06	.44***	

*p< .05, **p< .01, ***p< .001

Table 9

Results of Factor Analysis of Task Mastery

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
7. Find that the employee has mastered the job well enough that he or she performs at a consistently high standard.	.83	
9. Employee does a thorough job with dependable results.	.70	
14. Employee has mastered the specialized techniques necessary to do the job.	.69	
8. Confident in the employee's abilities to make decisions about his or her job to take appropriate action in non-routine matters.	.67	
12. The employee can carry out the responsibilities of his or her job without extensive guidance from others.	.66	
1. The employee has mastered the fundamentals and basic procedures necessary to do the job.	.66	
6. I am confident in the employee's abilities to make decisions about his or her job and to take appropriate actions in non-routine matters.	.60	
13. The employee has mastered all aspects of his or her job.	.59	
8. Know exactly what I want most from a job (e.g., a lot of money, a great deal of responsibility, travel).	.63	
3. I am confident in the employee's abilities to provide guidance and direction to others.		.79
2. The employee can come up with new and better ways to meet customer needs and expectations.		.74
10. The employee keeps up with new developments in his her field.		.61
% Variance explained:	55.8	7.8
Eigen values:	7.82	1.11

Table 10

Results of Factor Analysis of Functioning Within the Work Group

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. Feel isolated from others in my work group.	.68	
2. I get considerable cooperation from the people I work with.	.51	
3. I like the people with whom I work.	.54	
4. Feel that I am really part of my work group.	.79	
5. There is a feeling of camaraderie between my work associates and me.	.67	
6. I am accepted by my coworkers in informal activities outside the work place.	.46	.43
7. My work group can depend on me to do a good job.		.60
8. I know what is expected of me in my work group.		.70
9. I feel liked and trusted by members of my work group.		.63
10. My coworkers actively try to include me in conversations about things at work.	.50	
11. Working with this work group has been a bad experience for me.	.40	.43
12. I work well with others in my work group.	.59	
% Variance explained:	41.1	11.7
Eigen values:	4.9	1.4

Table 11

Results of Factor Analysis of Personal Learning

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. I have a good understanding of what my special strengths are.	.55	.44
2. Know very well the kind of work tasks or projects I find boring.	.65	
3. Know what will be a nice balance between my career, my family life, and personal life.	.71	
4. Quite clear on what my shortcomings and limitations are.	.57	
5. Know little about what is really important to me in a job.		.51
6. Know exactly which of my abilities are really important for me to express in my work.		.83
7. Know exactly what kind of tasks or projects I find interesting to work on.	.64	.43
8. Know exactly what I want most from a job (e.g., a lot of money, a great deal of responsibility, travel).	.63	
% Variance explained:	48.80	13.00
Eigen values:	3.91	1.04

Table 12

Results of Factor Analysis of Role Clarity

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
7. I receive a clear explanation of what has to be done.	-.89	
8. I know exactly what is expected of me.	.78	
5. I know what my responsibilities are.	.56	.51
3. I know that I have allocated my time properly among my job duties.	.39	.51
1. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my goals		.84
2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.		.61
6. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.	.36	.33
4. I have to "feel my way" in performing my duties.		.31
% Variance explained:	38.9	10.5
Eigen values:	3.11	.84

Table 13

Results of Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
9. For me CA is the best of all possible organizations to work for.	.70	
6. CA really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	.68	
4. I find that my values and the values of CA are very similar.	.58	
3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for CA.	.51	
1. Willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help CA be successful.		.69
8. I really care about the fate of CA.		.66
% Variance explained:	54.2	11.5
Eigen values:	4.89	1.03

Table 14

Results of Factor Analysis of Job Satisfaction

Items	Factor 1
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job.	.94
3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in my job.	.83
2. I frequently think of quitting my job.	-.66
% Variance explained:	66.8
Eigen Value:	2.00

Table 15

Results of Factor Analysis of Intention to Remain

Items	Factor 1
1. I do not intend to look for a job with another organization during the coming year.	.83
2. I intend to stay with CA for, at least, the next five years.	.83
% Variance explained:	77.8
Eigen value:	1.56

Table 16

Results of Factor Analysis of Job Stress

Items	Factor 1
10. Feeling that your job places you under a great deal of pressure.	.87
7. Feeling that your job makes you tense.	.83
11. Feeling that your job makes you jumpy and nervous.	.81
6. Feeling that you are under strain on the job.	.81
12. Feeling that your job puts you under a lot of pressure.	.81
4. Feeling that your job makes you frustrated.	.67
3. Feeling that your job makes you upset.	.61
8. Feeling that the amount of work you have to do interferes with how well it gets done.	.54
% Variance explained:	56.4
Eigen Value:	4.51

Table 17

Intercorrelations Between Demographic Variables and Major Variables

Variables	Age	Education	Gender	Organizational tenure	Race
1. Total tactics	-.12	-.06	.07	-.23**	-.04
2. Experienced colleagues	-.01	.04	.07	-.13	.10
3. Training	.07	.07	-.12	-.13	-.06
4. Co-workers	-.25**	-.09	-.06	-.14	.06
5. Autonomy	.08	.10	-.07	-.19*	-.07
6. Feedback	-.05	-.08	-.03	-.01	-.12
7. Identity	.23**	.15	-.11	.00	-.09
8. Variety	.07	.01	-.02	-.17	-.17
9. Job scope	.12	.07	-.09	-.12	-.15
10. Total work experience	.00	.07	.03	-.02	.05
11. Total coop and internship	-.11	-.10	-.07	-.09	-.04
12. Job title similarity	-.04	.03	.08	-.15	-.01
13. Department similarity	-.12	-.12	-.13	-.28**	-.07
14. Company similarity	-.26**	-.22**	-.10	-.36***	-.03
15. Industry similarity	-.19*	-.17	-.02	-.34***	.04
16. Variety of employers	.09	.01	.08	-.12	-.09
17. Task similarity	.03	.15	-.00	-.04	.07
18. Total work similarity	-.17*	-.10	-.05	-.38***	.00
19. Self monitoring	-.07	.05	-.24**	.11	.21*
20. Task mastery	.08	.16	-.12	-.07	.21*
21. Work group functioning	-.07	-.03	-.12	.07	.07
22. Knowledge of culture[a]	-.00	-.12	.04	-.15	-.14
23. Acceptance of culture[a]	.10	.14	-.11	.04	.18*
24. Personal learning	.13	.08	.01	.04	-.11
27. Role clarity	.08	.09	.00	.04	.03

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 18

Summary Statistics for Socialization Tactics

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1. Total tactics	3.17	.35	2.08	4.04
2. Collective vs. Individual	2.59	.65	1.00	4.40
3. Formal vs. Informal	2.65	.53	1.50	4.50
4. Sequential vs. Random	3.18	.50	2.00	4.20
5. Fixed vs. Variable	3.52	.67	2.00	5.00
6. Investiture vs. Divestiture	3.85	.67	1.75	5.00
7. Experienced colleagues	3.55	.68	1.70	4.80
8. Training	2.59	.49	1.50	4.25
9. Co-workers	3.92	.74	1.67	5.00

Table 19

Summary Statistics for Job Scope

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1. Autonomy	5.27	1.28	1.33	7.00
2. Feedback	4.59	1.17	2.00	7.00
3. Identity	4.98	1.32	1.33	7.00
4. Variety	4.51	.88	1.75	6.50
5. Job scope	4.84	.84	2.98	6.63

Table 20

Summary Statistics for Prior Work Experience Factors

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1. Total coop and internship	.77	.59	.00	2.00
2. Total work experience	2.27	1.05	.00	5.00
3. Variety of employers	2.75	1.28	1.00	6.00
4. Job title similarity	.29	.69	.00	3.00
5. Department similarity	.67	1.02	.00	4.00
6. Company similarity	.53	.86	.00	4.00
7. Industry similarity	.81	1.04	.00	6.00
8. Task similarity	.43	.21	.00	1.00
9. Task similarity-single measure	3.20	1.72	1.00	6.00
10. Total work similarity	.00	2.71	-4.55	10.00

Table 21

<u>Summary Statistics for Self-monitoring</u>

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Self-monitoring	1.55	.16	1.11	1.94

Table 22

Summary Statistics for Socialization Effectiveness

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1. Task mastery	3.90	.69	1.07	5.00
2. Work group functioning	4.22	.55	2.75	5.00
3. Knowledge of culture	.85	.18	.42	1.45
4. Acceptance of culture	.84	.38	.00	1.77
5. Personal learning	4.10	.60	1.75	5.00
6. Role clarity	3.51	.57	1.71	4.86

Table 23

Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Multi-Item Scales

Variable Name	Coefficient Alpha
Experienced colleagues (10 items)	.83
Training (4 items)	.69
Co-workers (3 items)	.64
Total scale (35 items)	.66
Autonomy (3 items)	.86
Feedback (5 items)	.78
Identity (3 items)	.71
Variety (3 items)	.70
Job scope - Composite (14 items)	.84
Self-monitoring (18 items)	.65
Task mastery (14 items)	.94
Functioning within the work group (12 items)	.88
Personal learning (8 items)	.85
Role clarity (7 items)	.72
Organizational commitment (9 items)	.89
Job satisfaction (3 items)	.85
Intention to remain (2 items)	.82
Job stress (8 items)	.90

Table 24

Intercorrelations Among Criterion Variables

Variables	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1. Task mastery						
2. Work group functioning	.06					
3. Knowledge of culture[a]	-.06	-.14				
4. Acceptance of culture[a]	.23**	-.24**	-.02			
5. Personal learning	-.09	.13	-.05	.04		
6. Role clarity	-.01	.44***	-.03	-.29***	.44***	

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*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 25

Results of Correlation and Regression Analyses for Hypothesis 1[a]

Variables	r	ß	Overall R^2
1. Task Mastery			
Experienced colleagues	.25**	.26*	
Training	-.04	-.08	
Co-workers	.10	-.00	.07*
2. Work Group Functioning			
Experienced colleagues	.37***	.33***	
Training	.12	.06	
Co-workers	.22**	.07	.14***
3. Knowledge of Culture[b]			
Experienced colleagues	-.07	-.11	
Training	.03	.04	
Co-workers	.03	.07	.04
4. Acceptance of Culture[b]			
Experienced colleagues	-.18*	-.14	
Training	-.16*	-.13	
Co-workers	-.16	-.02	.05
5. Personal Learning			
Experienced colleagues	-.02	.04	
Training	-.13	-.10	
Co-workers	-.02	-.00	.01
6. Role Clarity			
Experienced colleagues	.34***	.39***	
Training	.08	.02	
Co-workers	.04	-.13	.13***

* p<.05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Dependent Variables: Task mastery, Work group funtioning, Knowledge and Acceptance of culture, Personal learning, and Role clarity.
Independent Variables: Experienced colleagues, Training, and Co-workers

[b] Low scores on these variables reflect high level of Knowledge of culture and high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 26

Results of Correlation and Regression Analyses for Hypothesis 2[a]

Variables	r	ß	Overall R^2
1. Task Mastery			
Autonomy	.09	.12	
Feedback	-.10	-.21*	
Identity	-.11	-.05	
Variety	.12	.20*	.06
2. Work Group Functioning			
Autonomy	.15*	.05	
Feedback	.33***	.34**	
Identity	.09	-.06	
Variety	.18*	.01	.12**
3. Knowledge of Culture[b]			
Autonomy	.08	.09	
Feedback	-.00	-.05	
Identity	.01	-.04	
Variety	-.05	.07	.01
4. Acceptance of Culture[b]			
Autonomy	.00	.14	
Feedback	-.32***	-.34***	
Identity	-.07	.05	
Variety	-.20*	-.11	.16**
5. Personal learning			
Autonomy	-.03	-.06	
Feedback	.06	.09	
Identity	.01	-.01	
Variety	.06	-.04	.01
6. Role clarity			
Autonomy	-.05	-.18	
Feedback	.25**	.27**	
Identity	.12	.06	
Variety	.13	.05	.09*

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Dependent variables: Task mastery, Funtioning within the work group, Knowledge and Acceptance of culture, Personal learning, and Role clarity
Independent variables: Autonmy, Feedback, Identity, and Variety

[b] Low scores on these variables reflect high level of Knowledge of culture and high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 27

Results of Correlation and Regression Analyses for Hypotheses 3A, 3B, 3C, and 3D[a]

Variables	r	ß	Overall R^2
1. Task Mastery			
Total work experience	-.11	-.36**	
Job title similarity	-.05	-.02	
Department similarity	-.12	-.28*	
Task similarity	-.11	-.06	
Industry similarity	.18	.23	
Total coop and internship	-.02	.07	
Variety of employers	.08	.27*	
Company similarity	.03	-.02	.16
2. Work Group Functioning			
Total work experience	-.06	.07	
Job title similarity	.06	.11	
Department similarity	-.17*	-.25	
Task similarity	.04	-.05	
Industry similarity	-.03	.19	
Total coop and internship	-.02	-.05	
Variety of employers	-.16*	-.14	
Company similarity	-.08	-.09	.09
3. Knowledge of Culture[b]			
Total work experience	.15*	.15	
Job title similarity	-.10	-.19	
Department similarity	.18*	.20	
Task similarity	-.16*	-.08	
Industry similarity	-.01	-.00	
Total coop and internship	.07	-.05	
Variety of employers	.26**	.23	
Company similarity	.20*	.05	.18*

* p<.05, **p<.01

[a] Dependent variables: Task mastery, Work group functioning, Knowledge of culture, Acceptance of culture, Personal learning, and Role clarity.
Independent variables: Prior work experience factors.

[b] Low score on this variable reflects a high level of Knowledge of culture

Table 27 (Continued)

Results of Correlation and Regression Analyses for Hypotheses 3A, 3B, 3C, and 3D[a]

Variables	r	ß	Overall R^2
4. Acceptance of Culture[b]			
Total work experience	-.01	-.17	
Job title similarity	-.05	-.09	
Department similarity	.05	-.03	
Task similarity	.11	-.05	
Industry similarity	.13	.00	
Total coop and internship	.06	-.03	
Variety of employers	-.04	.06	
Company similarity	.14	.15	.06
5. Personal learning			
Total work experience	.10	.17	
Job title similarity	.03	.08	
Department similarity	.09	-.09	
Task similarity	.07	.05	
Industry similarity	.16	.09	
Total coop and internship	.19*	.14	
Variety of employers	.01	-.14	
Company similarity	.17*	.20	.10
6. Role clarity			
Total work experience	.01	.04	
Job title similarity	-.01	-.06	
Department similarity	-.12	-.20	
Task similarity	-.02	.06	
Industry similarity	-.10	.18	
Total coop and internship	.00	.11	
Variety of employers	.02	-.02	
Company similarity	-.03	-.14	.06

* $p<.05$

[a] Dependent variables: Task mastery, Functioning within the work group, Acceptance of culture, Knowledge of culture, Acceptance of culture, Personal learning, and Role clarity.
Independent variables: Prior work experience factors.

[b] Low score on this variable reflects a high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 28

Results of Correlation and Regression Analyses for Hypothesis 4[a]

	Variables	r	ß	Overall! R^2
1.	Task Mastery			
	Race	.21*	.04*	
	Self- monitoring	-.03	-.04	.05*
2.	Work Group Functioning			
	Self-monitoring	.28**	.26**	.07*
3.	Knowledge of Culture[b]			
	Self-monitoring	-.08	-.17	.01
4.	Acceptance of Culture[b]			
	Race	.18*	.03*	
	Self-monitoring	-.04	-.02	.03
5.	Personal learning			
	Self-monitoring	-.08	-.09	.01
6.	Role clarity			
	Self- monitoring	-.03	.03	.00

* $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$

[a] Dependent variables: Task mastery, Work group functioning, Knowledge of culture, Acceptance of culture, Personal learning, and Role clarity
Independent variable: Self-monitoring; Control variable: Race (coded 0=Non-caucasian, 1= Caucasian)

[b] Low scores on these variables reflect reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 29

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Race	.17	.03	.03
2.	Self-monitoring	-.12	.04	.01
3.	Total work experience	-.35*	.20	.16
	Total coop and internship	.09		
	Job title similarity	.01		
	Department similarity	-.28*		
	Company similarity	.12		
	Industry similarity	.19		
	Variety of employers	.25		
	Task similarity	-.07		
4.	Experienced colleagues	.21	.24	.04
	Training	-.10		
	Co-workers	.03		
4.	Autonomy	.14	.25	.01
	Feedback	.15		
	Identity	.02		
	Variety	-.15		

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 30

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Group Functioning

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Self-monitoring	.12	.01	
2.	Total work experience	-.07	.10	.09
	Total coop and internship	.00		
	Job title similarity	.07		
	Department similarity	-.27*		
	Company similarity	-.06		
	Industry similarity	.20		
	Variety of employers	-.18		
	Task similarity	-.13		
3.	Experienced colleagues	.30**	.21	.11*
	Training	.04		
	Co-workers	.08		
4.	Autonomy	-.00	.35**	.14**
	Feedback	.50***		
	Identity	-.22		
	Variety	-.08		

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 31

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Knowledge of Culture[a]

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Self-monitoring	-.03	.00	
2.	Total work experience	.14	.19	.19*
	Total coop and internship	-.05		
	Job title similarity	-.22		
	Department similarity	.20		
	Company similarity	.07		
	Industry similarity	.02		
	Variety of employers	.24		
	Task similarity	-.09		
4.	Experienced colleagues	-.13	.20	.02
	Training	.06		
	Co-workers	.13		
4.	Autonomy	.02	.21	.00
	Feedback	-.07		
	Identity	.05		
	Variety	.01		

* p<.05

[a] Low score on this variable reflects a high level of Knowledge of culture

Table 32

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Acceptance of Culture[a]

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Race	.15	.02	
2.	Self-monitoring	-.08	.03	.01
3.	Total work experience	-.26	.10	.07
	Total coop and internship	-.01		
	Job title similarity	-.10		
	Department similarity	.08		
	Company similarity	.12		
	Industry similarity	-.09		
	Variety of employers	.19		
	Task similarity	.05		
4.	Experienced colleagues	-.18	.16	.05
	Training	-.10		
	Co-workers	-.07		
4.	Autonomy	.15	.25	.10
	Feedback	-.31*		
	Identity	.26		
	Variety	-.13		

* p<.05

[a] Low score on this variable reflects a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 33

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Role Clarity

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Self-monitoring	-.04	.00	
2.	Total work experience	.01	.07	.07
	Total coop and internship	.14		
	Job title similarity	-.08		
	Department similarity	-.19		
	Company similarity	-.20		
	Industry similarity	.22		
	Variety of employers	.01		
	Task similarity	.03		
3.	Experienced colleagues	.41***	.22*	.15**
	Training	.11		
	Co-workers	-.23		
4.	Autonomy	-.19	.29*	.07
	Feedback	.30*		
	Identity	-.06		
	Variety	.04		

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 34

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Identity, Experienced colleagues
Interaction term - Identity X Experienced colleagues

Steps	Variables entered	β	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Identity	-.02	.00	.00
2.	Experienced colleagues	.26**	.06**	.06**
3.	Identity X Experienced colleagues	1.46*	.11*	.05*

* $p<.05$, **$p<.01$

Table 35

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Feedback, Experienced colleagues
Interaction term - Feedback X Experienced colleagues

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Feedback	-.14	.02	.02
2.	Experienced colleagues	.33***	.11***	.09***
3.	Feedback X Experienced colleagues	1.33*	.15*	.03*

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 36

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Variety, Co-workers
Interaction term - Variety X Co-workers

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Variety	.08	.01	.01
2.	Co-workers	.06	.01	.00
3.	Variety X Co-workers	1.94*	.05*	.04*

* p<.05

Table 37

Results of Sub-group Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Experienced colleagues
Moderator variable - Task identity.

Variables	High identity β	Low identity β	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Task mastery Experienced colleagues	.37**	.10	.178

*p<.05, **p<.01

Table 38

Results of Sub-group Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Experienced colleagues.
Moderator variable - Feedback.

Variables	High feedback ß	Low feedback ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Task mastery			
Experienced colleagues	.36**	.08	.162

**p<.01

Table 39

Results of Sub-group Regression Analysis Predicting Task Mastery

Independent variables - Co-workers.
Moderator variable - Skill variety.

Variables	High variety ß	Low variety ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Task mastery Co-workers	.37**	-.09	.008

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 40

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Group Functioning

Independent variables -Task identity, Experienced colleagues
Interaction term - Identity X Experienced colleagues

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Identity	.09	.01	.01
2.	Experienced colleagues	.32**	.10**	.009**
3.	Identity X Total tactics	-1.39*	.15*	.05*

* p<.05, **p<.01

Table 41

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Group Functioning

Independent variables -Task identity, Training
Interaction term - Identity X Training

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Identity	.09	.01	.01
2.	Training	.08	.02	.01
3.	Identity X Training	-1.23*	.05*	.04*

* p<.05

Table 42

Results of Sub-group Regression Analyses Work Group Functioning

Independent variables - Experienced colleagues; Training.
Moderator variable - Task identity.

Variables	High identity ß	Low identity ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Work Group Functioning			
Experienced colleagues	.05	.55***	.004
Training	-.09	.25*	.080
Total tactics	.12	.46***	.046

*p<.05, ***p<.001

Table 43

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Acceptance of Culture[a]

Independent variables-Identity, Experienced colleagues
Interaction term - Identity X Experienced colleagues

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Identity	-.10	.01	.01
2.	Experienced colleagues	-.17	.04	.03
3.	Identity X Experienced colleagues	1.94*	.20***	.17***

* $p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$.

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high Acceptance of Culture.

Table 44

Results of Sub-group Regression Analyses Predicting Acceptance of Culture

Independent variables - Experienced colleagues
Moderator variable - Task identity.

Variables	High identity ß	Low identity ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Acceptance of Culture[a]			
Experienced colleagues	.24	-.54***	.0000
Total tactics	.15	.52***	.0004

***p<.001

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 45

Results of MANOVA Showing Mean Responses on Major Variables for the Three
Assignment Periods [a].

| | Adjusted means | | | | Multivariate | |
Major Variables	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Mean square	F	F
Experienced colleagues	3.60	3.68	3.31	.42	1.71	1.23
Training	2.66	2.62	2.55	.30	.16	
Co-workers	4.04	3.89	4.02	.52	.40	
Autonomy	5.43	5.12	5.02	1.46	.67	
Feedback	4.56	4.59	4.46	1.32	.07	
Task Identity	5.08	4.58	5.05	1.90	1.27	
Skill variety	5.63	4.80	4.95	1.53	3.64	
Total coop and/internship	.88	.77	.71	.32	.43	
Total work experience	2.29	2.42	2.43	.99	.14	
Variety of employers	3.00	3.05	2.64	1.83	.48	
Job title similarity	.33	.37	.14	.53	.53	
Department similarity	1.08	.65	.36	1.14	2.29	
Company similarity	1.17	.33	.36	.72	8.18***	
Industry similarity	1.33	.77	.36	1.19	3.16*	
Task similarity	3.96	2.88	3.14	2.96	3.03*	
Total work similarity	.46	.41	.44	.04	.45	
Self monitoring	.43	.47	.49	.02	.89	
Task mastery	3.96	4.01	3.67	.49	1.28	
Functioning within the work group	4.11	4.21	4.33	.32	.71	
Knowledge of culture [b]	.87	.84	.84	.04	.17	
Acceptance of culture [b]	.82	.90	.72	.13	1.45	
Personal learning	4.23	4.00	4.27	.35	1.73	
Role clarity	3.49	3.51	3.64	.30	.38	

[a] Group 1=Assignment 1; Group 2=Assignment 2; Assignment 3.*p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

[b] Low scores on these variables reflect high level of Knowledge of culture and high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 46

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 1 for Three Assignment Periods

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
1. Task Mastery			
Experienced colleagues	.27	.14	.31*
Training	.17	-.04	-.34*
Co-workers	.29*	-.03	.09
Total tactics	.11	-.04	.04
2. Work Group Functioning			
Experienced colleagues	.44*	.34**	.44**
Training	.35*	-.02	.23
Co-workers	.35*	.20	.16
Total tactics	.59***	.27*	.29
3. Knowledge of Culture[a]			
Experienced colleagues	-.20	.10	-.38*
Training	-.33*	.09	.27
Co-workers	-.10	-.05	.30
Total tactics	-.46**	.07	-.14
4. Acceptance of Culture[a]			
Experienced colleagues	-.27	-.32**	.19
Training	-.31*	-.08	-.12
Co-workers	-.04	-.11	-.13
Total tactics	-.41**	-.33**	.08
5. Personal learning			
Experienced colleagues	-.17	.18	-.05
Training	-.09	-.27**	.42**
Co-workers	-.35*	.22*	-.13
Total tactics	-.21	.15	.04
6. Role clarity			
Experienced colleagues	.45**	.39***	.38*
Training	.23	-.03	.27
Co-workers	-.23	.08	.09
Total tactics	.51***	.35**	

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001, all p-levels are one-tailed.

[a] Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture.

Table 47

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 2 for Three Assignment Periods

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
1. Task Mastery			
Autonomy	.10	.07	.07
Feedback	-.04	-.11	-.20
Identity	-.08	.07	.05
Variety	.23	.17	-.03
Job scope	.08	.07	-.04
2. Work Group Functioning			
Autonomy	.17	.18	.18
Feedback	.61***	.24*	.29
Identity	-.08	.09	.41**
Variety	.53***	.10	.13
Job scope	.42**	.19	.36*
3. Knowledge of Culture[a]			
Autonomy	.00	.08	.07
Feedback	-.28	.02	.18
Identity	-.01	-.07	.18
Variety	-.10	-.14	.07
Job scope	-.12	-.03	.18
4. Acceptance of Culture[a]			
Autonomy	.11	-.12	.19
Feedback	-.19	-.44***	-.21
Identity	-.04	-.14	.11
Variety	.17	-.21	-.17
Job scope	-.10	-.29**	-.03
5. Personal learning			
Autonomy	-.14	-.09	.15
Feedback	.14	.02	.15
Identity	-.11	-.01	.05
Variety	.06	.11	-.26
Job scope	-.04	.01	-.04

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 p-value is one-tailed
a Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 47 (Continued)

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 2 for Three Assignment Periods

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
6. Role clarity			
Autonomy	-.13	-.02	-.07
Feedback	.43**	.20	.18
Identity	.25	-.02	.35*
Variety	.28*	.08	.08
Job scope	.31*	.08	.18

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 p-value is one-tailed
a Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 48

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 3 for Three Assignment Periods

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
1. Task Mastery			
Total coop and internship	.28	-.14	-.19
Total work experience	.11	-.13	-.30
Variety of employers	.19	.00	.03
Job title similarity	.07	-.27*	.26
Department similarity	-.17	-.10	-.29
Task similarity	-.08	.06	.02
Industry similarity	.00	.12	.34
Company similarity	-.19	.12	.23
Total work similarity	-.07	-.04	.27
Task similarity-global		-.08	-.13
2. Work Group Functioning			
Total coop and internship	-.17	.16	.30
Total work experience	-.24	-.03	.02
Variety of employers	-.08	-.21*	-.08
Job title similarity	.17	.05	-.13
Department similarity	-.31*	-.10	.03
Task similarity	-.20	.05	.35*
Industry similarity	-.05	-.01	.15
Company similarity	-.06	-.11	.13
Total work similarity	-.14	-.03	.34*
Task similarity -global	.40**	-.15	.35*
3. Knowledge of Culture[a]			
Total coop and internship	-.11	-.00	.30
Total work experience	.01	.15	.35*
Variety of employers	.14	.40***	.00
Job title similarity	-.41**	.02	.01
Department similarity	.19	.05	.52**
Task similarity	-.23	-.14	-.16
Industry similarity	.01	-.06	.02
Company similarity	.11	.31**	-.04
Total work similarity	-.12	.09	.03
Task similarity - global	-.33*	-.17	.25

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 p-value is one-tailed
a Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 48 (Continued)

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 3 for Three Assignment Periods

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
4. Acceptance of Culture			
Total coop and internship	.25	-.06	.09
Total work experience	-.04	.02	-.07
Variety of employers	-.13	.11	-.40*
Job title similarity	-.20	-.00	-.02
Department similarity	-.45**	-.15	-.23
Task similarity	.23	.03	.15
Industry similarity	.51**	-.07	.18
Company similarity	.36**	-.02	.29
Total work similarity	.45**	-.08	.24
Task similarity-global	-.01	.12	.01
5. Personal learning			
Total coop and internship	.06	.30**	.13
Total work experience	.04	.05	.38*
Variety of employers	.34*	-.04	-.20
Job title similarity	.13	.05	-.13
Department similarity	.19	-.02	-.06
Task similarity	-.25	.09	.14
Industry similarity	.22	.08	.04
Company similarity	.19	.09	.22
Total work similarity	.13	.10	.18
Task similarity-global	.26	.11	.47**
6. Role clarity			
Total coop and internship	-.22	.16	-.09
Total work experience	-.03	-.03	.04
Variety of employers	.04	.01	.13
Job title similarity	.25	.05	-.12
Department similarity	-.25	-.09	.02
Task similarity	-.25	.04	.14
Industry similarity	-.32*	.10	.21
Company similarity	-.44**	.05	.25*
Total work similarity	-.18	.02	.23
Task similarity-global	-.29*	.01	.14

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 p-value is one-tailed
a Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 49

Results of Correlation Analyses for Hypothesis 4 for Three Assignment Periods.

Variables	Assignment 1 r	Assignment 2 r	Assignment 3 r
1. Task Mastery Self-monitoring	-.05	.09	-.11
2. Work Group Functioning Self-monitoring	.36*	.12	.41**
3. Knowledge of Culture Self-monitoring	-.29*	-.13	.16
4. Acceptance of Culture Self-monitoring	-.01	.03	-.03
5. Personal learning Self-monitoring	-.17	-.08	.06
6. Role clarity Self-monitoring	-.04	-.14	.15

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. p-value is one-tailed

[a] Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 50

Results of MANOVA Analysis for Gender[a] on Major Variables

Major Variables	Means Males 1	Females 2	Mean square	F	Multivariate F
Experienced colleagues	3.56	3.66	.43	.41	1.13
Training	2.65	2.55	.29	.69	
Co-workers	3.98	3.92	.52	.09	
Autonomy	5.30	4.99	1.45	1.17	
Feedback	4.68	4.30	1.27	2.03	
Task Identity	4.86	4.71	1.62	1.37	
Skill variety	5.19	4.83	1.62	1.37	
Total coop and/internship	.82	.73	.32	.42	
Total work experience	2.38	2.38	.98	.00	
Variety of employers	2.93	3.04	1.83	.12	
Job title similarity	.31	.35	.53	.05	
Department similarity	.85	.46	1.16	2.36	
Company similarity	.69	.35	.84	2.53	
Industry similarity	.95	.77	1.26	.44	
Task similarity	3.45	2.81	3.06	2.41	
Total work similarity	.43	.44	.04	.07	
Self monitoring	.49	.40	.02	6.07*	
Task mastery	3.94	3.92	.50	.02	
Functioning within the work group	4.22	4.16	.32	.15	
Knowledge of culture [b]	.84	.86	.04	.17	
Acceptance of culture [b]	.84	.86	.13	.08	
Personal learning	4.13	4.08	.36	.12	
Role clarity	3.53	3.52	.30	.00	

[a] Gender is coded 1 for Male; 2 for Female. Group 1=Male; Group 2=Female.

[b] Low scores on these variables reflect high level of Knowledge of culture and Acceptance of culture

*p<.05

Table 51

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Group Functioning

Independent variables -Gender and Training
Interaction term - Gender X Training

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.14	.02	.02
2.	Training	.10	.03	.01
.3.	Gender X Training	-1.08*	.07*	.04*

* p<.05

Table 52

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Work Group Functioning

Independent variables -Gender and Feedback
Interaction term - Gender X Feedback

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.14	.02	.02
2.	Feedback	.31***	.12***	.10***
3.	Gender X Feedback	-.97*	.16*	.04*

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 53

Results of Sub-group Regression Analyses Predicting Work Group Functioning

Independent variables - Training and Feedback
Moderator variable - Gender.

Variables	Males ß	Females ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Work Group Functioning Training			
Feedback	.42***	.12	.134
Job scope	.36**	.00	.072

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 54

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Knowledge of Culture[a]

Independent variables -Gender, Experienced colleagues
Interaction term - Gender X Experienced colleagues

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	.04	.00	.00
2.	Experienced colleagues	-.08	.01	.01
3.	Gender X Experienced colleagues	1.61*	.06*	.05*

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high Knowledge of Culture

Table 55

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Knowledge of Culture[a]

Independent variables-Gender, Training
Interaction term - Gender X Training

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	.04	.00	.00
2.	Training	.03	.00	.00
3.	Gender X Training	1.29*	.06*	.05*

* p<.05

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high Knowledge of Culture

Table 56

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Knowledge of Culture[a]

Independent variables -Gender, Task identity
Interaction term -Gender X Task identity

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	.04	.00	.00
2.	Task identity	.03	.00	.00
3.	Gender X Identity	1.11**	.06*	.06*

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high Knowledge of Culture

Table 57

Results of Sub-group Regression Analyses Predicting Knowledge of Culture

Independent variables - Training; Task identity
Moderator variable - Gender.

Variables	Males ß	Females ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Knowledge of Culture[a]			
Training	-.13	.38*	.0028
Total tactics	-.22*	.25	.018
Identity	-.14	.38*	.0028
Job scope	-.13	.38*	.004

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low scores on this variable reflects high level of knowledge of culture

Table 58

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Acceptance of Culture[a]

Independent variables -Gender, training
Interaction term - Gender X training

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.02	.00	.00
2.	Training	-.16	.02	.02
3.	Gender X Training	1.04*	.06*	.04*

* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high Acceptance of Culture

Table 59

Results of Sub-group Regression Analysis Predicting Acceptance of Culture

Independent variables - Training
Moderator variable - Gender.

Variables	Males ß	Females ß	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Acceptance of Culture[a] Training	-.33**	.09	.036

**p<.01

[a] Low score on this variable reflects high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 60

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Learning

Independent variables -Gender, Training
Interaction term - Gender X Training

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.03	.00	.00
2.	Training	-.13	.02	.02
3.	Gender X Training	-1.08*	.06*	.04*

* p<.05

Table 61

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Learning

Independent variables -Gender, Autonomy
Interaction term - Gender X Autonomy

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.03	.00	.00
2.	Autonomy	-.10	.01	.01
3.	Gender X Autonomy	-1.24**	.08**	.07**

* p<.05, **p<.01

Table 62

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Personal Learning

Independent variables -Gender, Skill variety
Interaction term - Gender X Skill variety

Steps	Variables entered	ß	Overall R^2	ΔR^2
1.	Gender	-.03	.00	.00
2.	Variety	.07	.01	.01
3.	Gender X Variety	-1.33**	.09**	.08**

* p<.05, **p<.01

Table 63

Results of Sub-group Regression Analyses Predicting Personal Learning

Independent variables - Training, Autonomy, Skill variety.
Moderator variable - Gender.

Variables	Males β	Females β	Test of differences between beta weights p (Two-tailed)
1. Personal learning			
Training	.03	-.38*	.014
Autonomy	.18	-.39*	.0028
Variety	.23*	-.24	.022

*p<.05

Table 64

Intercorrelations Between Additional Variables and Major Variables

Variables	Organizational commitment	Job satisfaction	Intention to remain	Job stress
1. Experienced colleagues	.45***	.53***	.26**	-.14
2. Training	.09	.01	.05	-.13
3. Co-workers	.23**	.24**	.07	-.03
4. Total tactics	.43***	.47***	.24**	-.18*
5. Autonomy	.03	.09	.10	-.04
6. Feedback	.07	.14	.02	-.04
7. Identity	-.05	.05	.09	-.15
8. Variety	.07	.16	.07	-.02
9. Job scope	.04	.15	.10	-.09
10. Total coop and internship	-.04	-.03	-.10	.14
11. Total work experience	.03	-.00	.01	.08
12. Variety of employers	.12	.17	.12	.12
13. Job title similarity	.04	.03	.03	-.05
14. Department similarity	-.06	-.19	.03	.09
15. Company similarity	.15	.07	.17	.01
16. Industry similarity	.07	.02	.12	-.02
17. Task similarity	-.08	-.05	.02	-.00
18. Total work similarity	.05	-.03	.12	.01
19. Task similarity - global	.07	.04	.10	-.05
19. Self monitoring	-.11	.09	-.11	-.00
20. Task mastery	.21*	.25**	.19*	.05
21. Work group functioning	.22**	.34***	.12	-.10
22. Knowledge of culture[a]	-.08	-.10	-.11	.09
23. Acceptance of culture[a]	-.02	-.11	.06	.10
24. Personal learning	.30***	.32***	.17	-.21*
25. Role clarity	.43***	.48***	.21*	-.17

*p<.05,** p<.01, ***p<.001

[a] Low scores on these variables reflect a high level of Knowledge of culture and a high level of Acceptance of culture

Table 65

Direct and Indirect Effects of Socialization Effectiveness on Traditional Outcome Variables

(a) Indicators of effective socialization

Antecedent Variables	Task Mastery	Work group Functioning	Knowledge of Culture	Acceptance of Culture	Personal Learning	Role Clarity
Socialization Tactics:						
Experienced colleagues	.26**	.29**	-.10	-.17	.00	.40***
Training	-.09	.06	.03	-.13	-.12	.01
Co-workers	-.02	.06	.07	-.03	-.02	-.18
Job Scope:						
Autonomy	.14	.11	.12	.17	-.06	-.09
Feedback	-.31**	.24*	.03	-.29**	.09	.17
Identity	-.09	-.10	.02	.03	.02	.03
Variety	.11	-.03	-.08	-.12	.08	-.04
R^2	.15**	.17**	.03	.15**	.03	.15**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 65 (Continued)

Direct and Indirect Effects of Socialization Effectiveness on Traditional Outcome Variables

(b) Traditional outcomes

Antecedent Variables	Organizational Commitment			Job Satisfaction			Intention to Remain		
	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect
Socialization Tactics:									
Experienced colleagues	.53***	.41***	.12	.51***	.42***	.09	.27**	.24	.03
Training	.00	.08	-.08	-.09	-.04	-.05	.01	.05	-.04
Co-workers	.06	.06	.00	.02	.04	-.02	-.05	-.02	-.03
Job Scope:									
Autonomy	.11	.14	-.03	.11	.13	-.02	.11	.11	.00
Feedback	-.07	-.08	.01	-.03	-.06	.03	-.14	-.10	-.04
Identity	-.20*	-.21*	.01	-.13	-.12	-.01	.03	.04	-.01
Variety	-.09	-.11	.02	-.03	-.05	.02	-.04	-.05	.01
Task mastery	.09	.09	.00	.14	.14	.00	.10	.10	.00
Work group functioning	-.05	-.05	.00	.05	.05	.00	-.01	-.01	.00
Knowledge of culture	-.05	-.05	.00	-.05	-.05	.00	-.11	-.11	.00
Acceptance of culture	.06	.06	.00	-.01	-.01	.00	.12	.12	.00
Personal learning	.23	.23**	.00	.20	.20*	.00	.14	.14	.00
Role clarity	.28	.28**	.00	.28	.28**	.00	.11	.11	.00
R^2	.40***			.46***			.15		

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Appendix A

Socialization tactics

This section describes a variety of practices used in different organizations to help new employees fit into the organization. Think about your experiences as a CDP. Please indicate your **agreement or disagreement** with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

If you have recently completed the program, think back to your experiences as a CDP when responding to each statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1. I have been involved extensively with other new CDPs in common, job related training activities.   1   2   3   4   5

2. I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

3. During my training for this job I have been physically apart from non-CDP employees.   1   2   3   4   5

4. Almost all of my co-workers have been supportive of me personally.   1   2   3   4   5

5. There is a sense of "being in the same boat" among CDP employees in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

6. My supervisors have taken time to learn about my career goals and aspirations.   1   2   3   4   5

7. There is a clear pattern in the way one job assignment leads to another in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

8. I can predict my future career path in CAG by observing other employees' experiences.   1   2   3   4   5

9. My supervisors have provided me special projects that increase my visibility in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

10. Other CDPs have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements.   1   2   3   4   5

11. I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix A (Continued)

Socialization tactics

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

12. Much of my job knowledge has been acquired
    informally on a trial and error basis.   1   2   3   4   5

13. Most of my training has been carried out
    apart from other CDPs.   1   2   3   4   5

14. My supervisors have provided assignments
    that give me the opportunity to develop
    and strengthen new skills.   1   2   3   4   5

15. I have been through a set of training experiences
    that are specifically designed to give CDP employees
    a thorough knowledge of job related skills.   1   2   3   4   5

16. CAG puts all new CDP employees through
    the same set of learning experiences.   1   2   3   4   5

17. I have changed my attitudes and values
    to be accepted in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

18. I am aware that I am seen as "learning
    the ropes" in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

19. CAG does not put newcomers through an
    identifiable sequence of learning experiences.   1   2   3   4   5

20. I feel that experienced organizational members
    have held me at a distance until I conform to
    their expectations.   1   2   3   4   5

21. Each stage of the training process has, and will,
    expand and build upon the job knowledge gained
    during the proceeding stages of the process.   1   2   3   4   5

22. I have been made to feel that my skills and
    abilities are very important to CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

23. I did not perform any of my normal job
    responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar
    with departmental procedures and work methods.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix A (Continued)

Socialization tactics

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

24. The movement from role to role and function
to function to build up experience and a track
record is very apparent in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

25. My co-workers have gone out of their way
to help me adjust to CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

26. Experienced organizational members see advising
or training newcomers as one of their main
job responsibilities.   1   2   3   4   5

27. I have little idea when to expect a new job
assignment or training exercise in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

28. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role
in CAG from observing my senior colleagues.   1   2   3   4   5

29. My supervisors have made sure I get the credit
when I accomplish something substantial on the job.   1   2   3   4   5

30. I have had little or no access to people who have
previously performed my job in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

31. I have a good knowledge of the time it will take
me to go through the various stages of the
training process in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

32. My supervisors have cared about whether
or not I achieve my career goals.   1   2   3   4   5

33. My supervisors have given me helpful
feedback about my job performance.   1   2   3   4   5

34. The steps in the career ladder are clearly
specified in CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

35. The way in which my progress through CAG
will follow a fixed timetable of events has
been clearly communicated to me.   1   2   3   4   5

36. I have had informal training on accepted
ways of behaving at CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix B

Job scope

The statements below describe the characteristics of your current job assignment and any previous job assignments you might have held as a CDP. First, answer each of the 18 questions with regard to your current assignment (or your most recent assignment it you are no longer on the program). Then answer the questions with regard to any prior assignment (s) on the CDP. Please circle the responses to each statement that best describe your assignments since you joined CAG.

Please check your current assignment on the CDP ( ) First assignment ( ) Second assignment
( ) Third assignment ( ) No longer on the program

1 = Very inaccurate
2 = Mostly inaccurate
3 = Slightly inaccurate
4 = Uncertain
5 = Slightly accurate
6 = Mostly accurate
7 = Very accurate

	Third assignment	Second assignment	First assignment
1. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. After I finish a job, I know whether I have performed well.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. The job can be done adequately by a person working alone or without talking or checking with other people.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. The job requires me to do different things at work, using a variety of my skills and talents.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. The job permits me to decide on my own how to go about doing the work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. My job involves doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I have been fully utilized in this assignment.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. I have been productive 100% of the time in this assignment.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix B (Continued)

Job scope

1 = Very inaccurate
2 = Mostly inaccurate
3 = Slightly inaccurate
4 = Uncertain
5 = Slightly accurate
6 = Mostly accurate
7 = Very accurate

	Third assignment	Second assignment	First assignment
10. This job provides me with considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. The job itself is very significant and important in the broader scheme of things.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. The job provides me the chance to finish completely the pieces of work I began.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. My coworkers let me know how well I am doing on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. The job is arranged so that I can do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Doing the job itself provides me with information about my work performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. This assignment has met all my expectations.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Appendix C

Tasks Performed by the CDPs

Below is a list of 14 tasks that may be performed on a job. For each of the tasks, please **circle A** if you performed (or assisted in performing) the task on any of your **prior** jobs indicated in Part B before joining CAG and **circle B** if you have performed (or have assisted in performing) the task on any of your job assignments within the CDP.

		Before becoming a CDP at CAG, I performed or assisted in task	A s a CDP at CAG I have performed or assisted in task
1.	Worked in cryogenic and non-cryogenic separation technologies, liquid natural gas processing, polymers, plastics, industrial and performance chemicals, catalysts, and nitrogenous fertilizers.	A	B
2.	Applied engineering principles to the design, development, and operation of chemical process plants, air separation systems, natural gas liquefaction, and various cryogenic and non-cryogenic processes.	A	B
3.	Coordinated the efforts of different engineering groups and other company departments during all phases of a project. This could range from contract signing until facility or equipment start-up.	A	B
4.	Provided financial support for a particular product line or business unit.	A	B
5.	Sought additional applications for products through the development of new processes and equipment.	A	B
6.	Commissioned equipment, conducted performance testing, and/or involved in start-up of new production facilities.	A	B
7.	Ensured that the company is applying the highest degree of technology to the optimization of safety in the laboratory and field environment.	A	B
8.	Conducted market analysis, performed economic evaluations, and prepared sales proposals to meet clients' needs and desired profit margin.	A	B
9.	Designed entire facilities or plant components including heat exchangers and process piping, and generated specifications for equipment purchases.	A	B

Appendix C (Continued)

Tasks Performed by the CDPs

	Before becoming a CDP at CAG, I performed or assisted in task	A s a CDP at CAG I have performed or assisted in task
10. Applied production technologies such as polymerization, saponification, heterogeneous catalysis, concentration, and crystallization.	A	B
11. Developed market and strategic planning for business areas.	A	B
12. Developed computer programs or software applications.	A	B
13. Prepared capital cost estimates and profitability analyses for major capital expenditures.	A	B
14. Developed and implemented financial plans for business areas.	A	B

D. Please think about all of your **prior** work experience before becoming a CDP at CAG as well as your job experiences as a CDP at CAG. Overall, how similar are the tasks you performed in your prior jobs to the tasks you have performed as a CDP within CAG? Please circle the appropriate response below.

Not at all similar 1   2   3   4   5   6   7   **Very similar**

Appendix D

Self monitoring

This section consists of statements about how you behave in various situations. For each of the items, **circle True** if you believe the statement is true about you and **circle False** if you believe the statement is false about you.

1.	I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.	True	False
2.	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.	True	False
3.	I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.	True	False
4.	I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.	True	False
5.	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.	True	False
6.	I would probably make a good actor.	True	False
7.	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.	True	False
8.	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.	True	False
9.	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.	True	False
10.	I'm not always the person I appear to be.	True	False
11.	I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.	True	False
12.	I have considered being an entertainer.	True	False
13.	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.	True	False
14.	I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different situations.	True	False
15.	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.	True	False
16.	I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should.	True	False
17.	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for the right purpose).	True	False
18.	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.	True	False

Appendix E

Current Job Performance

Please respond to each statement with regard to **your current CDP assignment**. If you have been in your current assignment for less than 90 days, refer to your previous assignment when responding to each statement. If you have completed the CDP, please respond to each statement with regard to **your last CDP assignment**. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1. I believe that I have mastered the fundamentals and
basic procedures necessary to do the job.   1   2   3   4   5

2. I can come up with new and better ways to meet
customer needs and expectations.   1   2   3   4   5

3. I feel confident in my abilities to provide
guidance and direction to others.   1   2   3   4   5

4. I am confident in my abilities to identify and
solve problems related to my job.   1   2   3   4   5

5. I work effectively with others in carrying
out job responsibilities.   1   2   3   4   5

6. I am confident in my abilities to plan and
integrate the various components of my job.   1   2   3   4   5

7. I have mastered the job well enough that I
perform at a consistently high standard.   1   2   3   4   5

8. I am confident in my abilities to make decisions
about my job and to take appropriate action in
non-routine matters.   1   2   3   4   5

9. I do a thorough job with dependable results.   1   2   3   4   5

10. I keep up with the new developments in my field.   1   2   3   4   5

11. I am confident in my abilities to assist customers
in resolving their problems.   1   2   3   4   5

12. I can carry out the responsibilities of my job
without extensive guidance from others.   1   2   3   4   5

13. I have mastered all aspects of my job.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix E (Continued)

Current Job Performance

14. I believe that I have mastered the specialized
techniques necessary to do the job.   1   2   3   4   5

How would you rate your overall job performance at CAG?

__ 1. Excellent   __ 2. Very Good   __ 3. Good   __ 4. Fair   __ 5. Poor

How do you think your supervisor would rate your overall job performance at CAG?

__ 1. Excellent   __ 2. Very Good   __ 3. Good   __ 4. Fair   __ 5. Poor

Appendix F

Work Group Functioning

By work group, we mean your supervisor and other employees who report to the same supervisor. Please respond to each statement with regard to **your current work group**. If you have been in your current group for less than 90 days, please refer to your previous work group when responding to each statement. If you have completed the CDP, please respond to each statement with regard to your last CDP work group. Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the appropriate number.

1 = Strongly agree   **2 = Agree to some extent**   **3 = Uncertain**
4 = Disagree to some extent   **5 = Strongly disagree**

1.	I feel isolated from others in my work group.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I get considerable cooperation from the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I like the people with whom I work.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel that I am really a part of my work group.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	There is a feeling of camaraderie between my work associates and me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am accepted by my co-workers in informal activities outside the work place.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	My work group can depend on me to do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I know what is expected of me in my work group.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I feel liked and trusted by members of my work group.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	My coworkers actively try to include me in conversations about things at work.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Working with this work group has been a bad experience for me.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I work well with others in my work group.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix G

Knowledge and Acceptance of Organizational Culture

Below are a number of statements describing the behaviors or expectations that may be valued within the different company groups (Chemicals Group, Corporate Group, Gas Group, Process Systems Group, or Energy and Environmental Systems Group) at CAG. We would like to know the extent to which each statement is true for **your group** at CAG. Please **check** which Group you have your current assignment with. If you have been in your current company group for less than 90 days, please check your previous company group below and refer to that group when responding to each statement; If you have completed the CDP, please check the group of your last CDP assignment, and refer to that group when responding to each statement.

( ) Chemicals Group   ( ) Corporate Group   ( ) Gas Group   ( ) Process Systems Group
( ) Energy and Environmental Systems Group   ( ) Other (specify) _____

First, respond to each of the 44 statements with regard to how it represents how things work in your Group (Column A). Then respond to the statements with regard to how you prefer things to work in your Group (Column B). Please circle the appropriate responses to the right of each statement.

1 = Not at all
2 = To a slight extent
3 = To a moderate extent
4 = To a great extent
5 = To a very great extent

	Column A The way **it exists** in your Group	**Column B** How **you prefer** it to be in your Group
1. Employees are encouraged to be resourceful.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2. Employees must take chances if they aspire to significant reward and recognition.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3. The work environment is competitive.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4. Employees are given the necessary time and resources to complete the job effectively.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5. Team work is encouraged; people are expected to work well in groups.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G (Continued)

Knowledge and Acceptance of Organizational Culture

1 = Not at all
2 = To a slight extent
3 = To a moderate extent
4 = To a great extent
5 = To a very great extent

		Column A The way **it exists** in your Group	**Column B** How **you prefer** it to be in your Group
6.	Adhering to existing policies and procedures is more important than implementing new ideas.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7.	People are rewarded for excellent performance.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8.	Management is committed to finding new and better ways to serve the customer.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9.	People avoid their responsibilities at work and shift them to others to perform.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Decisions are made by the person with the higher rank or grade level.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11.	Employees who play it safe and sure rarely get ahead.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12.	Development programs are in place to improve employee skills.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13.	People compete rather than cooperate.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14.	Quality standards are compromised.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15.	The customer is often seen as an obstacle to getting the work done.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16.	Management is readily available to help on difficult assignments.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17.	Decisions are made by those with the most knowledge and expertise about the problem.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G (Continued)

Knowledge and Acceptance of Organizational Culture

1 = Not at all
2 = To a slight extent
3 = To a moderate extent
4 = To a great extent
5 = To a very great extent

	Column A	**Column B**
	The way it exists in your Group	How you prefer it to be in your Group

18. People show concern for the needs of others. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

19. Being creative is rewarded in this organization. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

20. Management is patient and understands the problems employees face in their work. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

21. Every employee is expected to follow tough quality standards in performing his or her work. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

22. Results are more important than procedures. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

23. Major emphasis is placed on defining and meeting customer needs. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

24. Employees can explore different ideas in performing their work. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

25. Conflicts and direct confrontations are avoided. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

26. Taking risks on new techniques or ideas is generally discouraged. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

27. People have to follow excessive policies and administrative rules in carrying out their job. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

28. The organization learns from failures rather than penalize a group or individual. 1 2 3 4 5   1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G (Continued)

Knowledge and Acceptance of Organizational Culture

1 = Not at all
2 = To a slight extent
3 = To a moderate extent
4 = To a great extent
5 = To a very great extent

	Column A	**Column B**
	The way **it exists** in your Group	How **you** **prefer** it to be in your Group
29. People deal with others in a friendly and pleasant manner.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
30. Employees easily accept their mistakes and learn from them.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
31. Decisions are made by those most affected by the outcome.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
32. Employees are encouraged to think for themselves.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
33. Management acts as though everyone must be watched or they will slack off.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
34. Low cost solutions are stressed over quality work and solutions.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
35. A good team player is not recognized as quickly as someone who is looking out for himself or herself.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
36. People strictly adhere to policies and practices.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
37. Management is responsive to the personal needs of employees.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
38. The employee's first priority is to respond quickly and effectively to customer's needs.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix G (Continued)

Knowledge and Acceptance of Organizational Culture

1 = Not at all
2 = To a slight extent
3 = To a moderate extent
4 = To a great extent
5 = To a very great extent

	Column A The way **it exists** in your Group	**Column B** How **you** **prefer** it to be in your Group
39. Decisions are made by the person who is held accountable for results.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
40. Quality is a "buzzword" that is not supported by management.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
41. Management provides information that allows me to perform better.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
42. Advancement within the company is based on academic or professional credentials rather than on employee performance.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
43. People freely make suggestions to peers and supervisors.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
44. People receive the training they need to do the current job and to take on more responsibility.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix H

Personal learning

Below are items describing various aspects of your experiences with CAG. Please indicate your **agreement or disagreement** with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1.	I have a good understanding of what my special strengths are.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I know very well the kind of work tasks or projects I find boring.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I know what would be a nice balance between my career, my family life, and my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am quite clear on what my shortcomings and limitations are.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I know little about what is really important to me in a job.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I know which of my abilities are really important for me to express in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I know exactly what kind of tasks or projects I find interesting to work on.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I know exactly what I want most from a job (e.g., a lot of money, a great deal of responsibility, travel).	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix I

Role clarity

Please respond to the remaining statements with regard to your current job assignment. If you have been in your current job for less than 90 days, please refer to your previous assignment when responding to each statement. If you have completed the CDP, please respond to each statement with regard to your last CDP assignment.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1.	I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I know that I have allocated my time properly among my job duties.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I have to "feel my way" in performing my duties.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I receive a clear explanation of what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix J

Organizational commitment

Below are items describing various aspects of your experiences with CAG. Please indicate your **agreement or disagreement** with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help CAG be successful.   1   2   3   4   5

2. I talk up CAG to my friends as a great organization to work for.   1   2   3   4   5

3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

4. I find that my values and the values of CAG are very similar.   1   2   3   4   5

5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

6. CAG really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.   1   2   3   4   5

7. I am extremely glad that I chose CAG to work for, over others I was considering at the time I joined.   1   2   3   4   5

8. I really care about the fate of CAG.   1   2   3   4   5

9. For me CAG is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix K

Job Satisfaction

Below are items describing various aspects of your experiences with CAG. Please indicate your **agreement or disagreement** with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with my job. 1 2 3 4 5

2. I frequently think of quitting my job. 1 2 3 4 5

3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work
    I do in my job. 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix L

Intention to remain

Below are items describing various aspects of your experiences with CAG. Please indicate your **agreement or disagreement** with each statement by circling the appropriate number to the right of the statement.

1 = Strongly agree
2 = Agree to some extent
3 = Uncertain
4 = Disagree to some extent
5 = Strongly disagree

1. I do not intend to look for a job with another
   organization during the coming year.   1   2   3   4   5

2. I intend to stay with CAG for, at least,
   the next five years.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix M

Job stress

Thinking about **your job assignment** during the past 90 days, how often did you experience each of the feelings described below. If you have been in your current assignment for less than 90 days, refer to your previous assignment when responding to each statement. If you have completed the CDP, please respond to each statement with regard to **your last CDP assignment**. Please circle the response which most accurately describes your feelings.

**1 = Almost never   2 = Seldom   3 = Sometimes   4 = Quite often
5 = Almost all the time**

1.	A feeling that you carry job problems home with you.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	A feeling that your job provides you with the kind of work you expected.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	A feeling that your job makes you upset.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	A feeling that your job makes you frustrated.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	A feeling that your job makes you feel good about yourself.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	A feeling that you are under strain on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	A feeling that your job makes you tense.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	A feeling that the amount of work you have to do interferes with how well it gets done.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	A feeling that your job allows you to utilize your best skills.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	A feeling that your job places you under a great deal of stress.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	A feeling that your job makes you jumpy and nervous.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	A feeling that your job puts you under a lot of pressure.	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 1

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF SOCIALIZATION EFFECTIVENESS

```
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ Organizational factors  │──┐
└─────────────────────────┘  │
                             │
┌─────────────────────────┐  │      ┌──────────────────┐
│ Extra -organizational    │  ├──▶  │ Indicators of    │
│ factors                  │  │      │ effective        │
└─────────────────────────┘  │      │ socialization    │
                             │      └──────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────┐  │
│ Personal factors         │──┘
└─────────────────────────┘
```
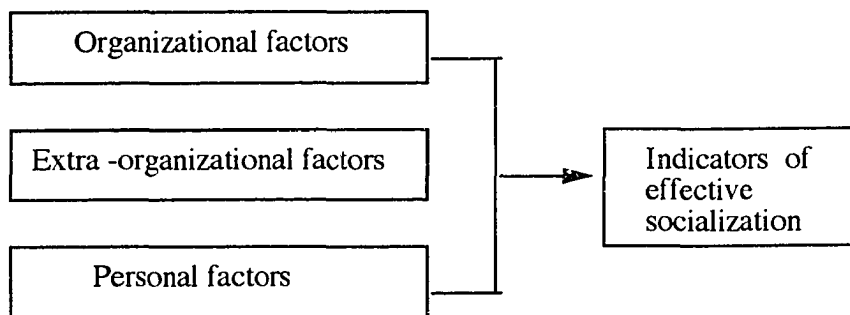
Figure 2

DISTINCTION BETWEEN STAGE MODELS AND MODEL OF SOCIALIZATION EFFECTIVENESS

Stage models

| Socialization process | → | Individual and Organizational outcomes

• Job satisfaction
• Organizational commitment
• Lower intention to quit |

Model of Socialization effectiveness

Present study
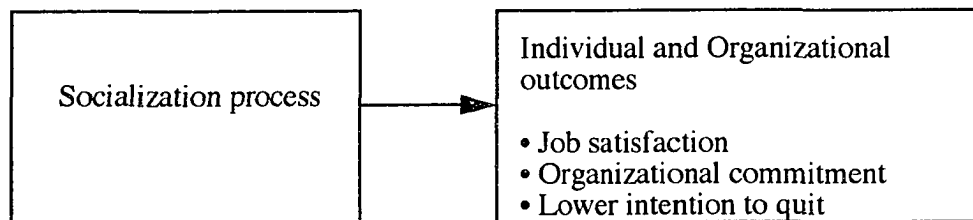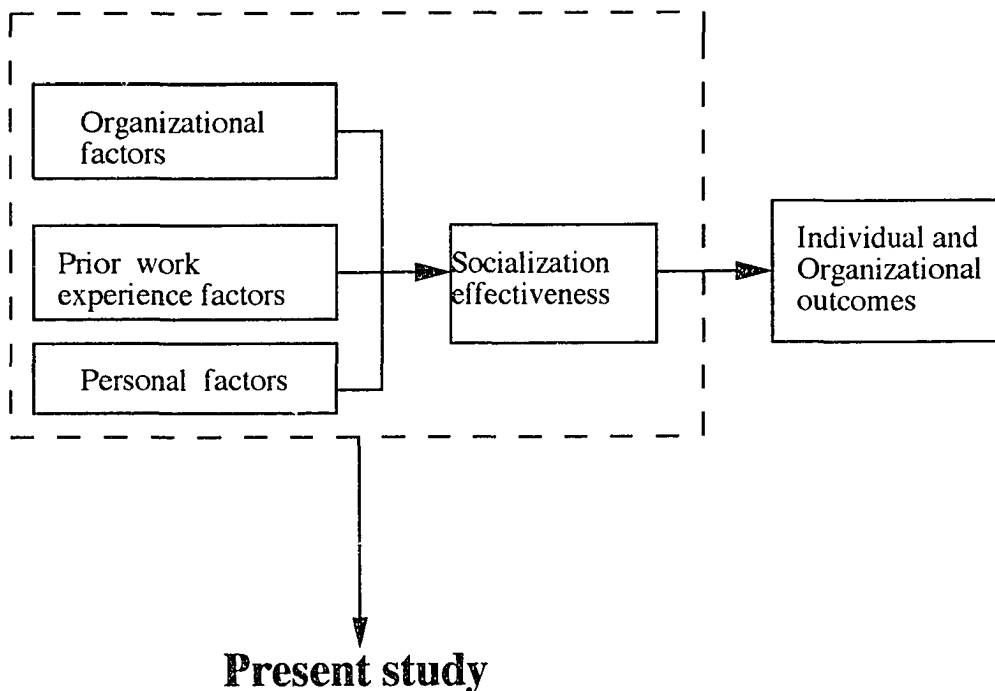
Figure 3

MODEL OF SOCIALIZATION EFFECTIVENESS

Factors that Contribute to
Effective Socialization

Dimensions of
Effective Socialization

Organizational Factors

- Socialization Tactics
  - Institutionalized
    versus
  - Individualized
- Job Scope
  - Variety
  - Identity
  - Significance
  - Autonomy
  - Feedback

Task Mastery

**Functioning within the Work
Group**

**Knowledge and Acceptance of
Organizational pivotal norms
and values (organizational
culture)**

**Prior Work Experience
Factors**

- Presence of Co-op/Internship
- Extensiveness of Prior Work
  Experience
- Variety of Prior Work
  Experience
- Similarity of Prior Work
  Experience
  - Same Company
  - Same Industry
  - Same Job Function

Personal Learning

Role Clarity

Personal Factor

- Self-monitoring

VITA

VITA

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