

Université de Montréal

**Learning and Adjustment Outcomes in Socialized and Unsocialized Newcomers: An Ex-
Post-Facto Comparative Study**

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Résumé

Les restructurations et les mutations de plus en plus nombreuses dans les entreprises font évoluer la trajectoire de carrière des employés vers un cheminement moins linéaire et amènent une multiplication des changements de rôle (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000). Les organisations doivent de plus en plus se soucier de l'intégration de ces nouveaux employés afin de leur transmettre les éléments fondamentaux du fonctionnement et de la culture qu'elles privilégient. Par contre, la plupart des recherches sur la socialisation organisationnelle portent sur les « meilleures pratiques », et les résultats qui en découlent sont mixtes. Cette étude comparative cherche à déterminer si et sur quelles variables les nouveaux employés socialisés par leur entreprise diffèrent des nouveaux employés « non socialisés ». Premièrement, cette étude vise à comparer ces deux groupes sur 1) les résultantes proximales (la maîtrise du contenu de la socialisation organisationnelle et la clarté de rôle) et 2) les résultantes distales (l'engagement organisationnel affectif, la satisfaction au travail et l'intention de quitter) du processus de socialisation organisationnelle, ainsi que sur 3) les caractéristiques des réseaux sociaux d'information, en contrôlant pour la proactivité. Dans un second temps, cette étude a pour objectif d'explorer si le processus de socialisation organisationnelle (les relations entre les variables) diffère entre les nouveaux employés socialisés ou non.

Cinquante-trois nouveaux employés (moins d'un an d'ancienneté) d'une grande entreprise québécoise ont participé à cette étude. L'entreprise a un programme de socialisation en place, mais son exécution est laissée à la discrétion de chaque département, créant deux catégories de nouveaux employés : ceux qui ont été socialisés par leur département, et ceux qui n'ont pas été socialisés (« non socialisés »). Les participants ont été sondés sur les stratégies proactives, les résultantes proximales et distales et les caractéristiques des réseaux sociaux d'information.

Pour le premier objectif, les résultats indiquent que les nouveaux employés socialisés maîtrisent mieux le contenu de la socialisation organisationnelle que les nouveaux employés non socialisés. En ce qui a trait au deuxième objectif, des différences dans le processus de socialisation organisationnelle ont été trouvées. Pour les nouveaux employés « non socialisés », la recherche proactive d'informations et la recherche de rétroaction sont liées à

certaines caractéristiques des réseaux sociaux, alors que le cadrage positif est lié à la satisfaction au travail et à l'intention de quitter, et que la clarté de rôle est liée uniquement à la satisfaction au travail. Les nouveaux employés socialisés, quant à eux, démontrent des liens entre la maîtrise du contenu de la socialisation organisationnelle et chacune des résultantes distales (l'engagement organisationnel affectif, la satisfaction au travail et l'intention de quitter).

Globalement, l'intégration des nouveaux employés non socialisés serait plutôt influencée par leurs stratégies proactives, tandis que celle des nouveaux employés non socialisés serait facilitée par leur maîtrise du contenu de la socialisation organisationnelle.

De façon générale, cette étude comparative offre un aperçu intéressant des nouveaux employés rarement trouvé dans les recherches portant sur les « meilleures pratiques » de la socialisation organisationnelle. Des recommandations pour la recherche et la pratique en suivent.

Mots-clés : Socialisation organisationnelle, adaptation, proactivité, nouveaux employés, réseaux sociaux, recherche comparative

Abstract

Careers today are becoming increasingly multi-organizational (Howard, 1996), as workers are becoming more mobile and less loyal to a single organization (Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011). Retention is a growing problem, and organizations are more and more preoccupied with the successful socialization and integration of their newcomers. However, best practice research on the subject of newcomer socialization has come up with mixed results over the course of the last 25 years of research. This comparative study sought to explore the differences between socialized newcomers and unsocialized newcomers in terms of organizational socialization process variables. Specifically, in its first objective, this study aimed at comparing these newcomer groups in terms of (1) proximal outcomes (learning of socialization content and role clarity) and (2) distal outcomes (affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit) of the organizational socialization process, as well as in terms of (3) information network characteristics (network size, status, range, strength, and density), controlling for newcomer proactive strategies. In its second objective, this study sought to explore how the organizational socialization process (relationships between variables) differed between newcomer groups.

The participants were new employees in a large multi-media company ($n = 53$), all with a tenure of less than one year in the organization. This organization had a sanctioned socialization practice in place, but allowed department managers to socialize their newcomers at their discretion. This resulted in two newcomer groups: those who were socialized by their respective departments (“socialized” newcomer group) and those who were not (“unsocialized” newcomer group). Participants completed a questionnaire measuring proactive behaviors, mastery of socialization content, role clarity, affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and information network characteristics.

The results indicated that, with regards to the first objective, socialized and unsocialized newcomers differ in terms of their mastery of socialization content, namely, learning of job/task, group, and organization knowledge was significantly greater for socialized newcomers than for unsocialized newcomers. No differences in distal socialization outcomes or network characteristics were observed. As for the second objective, the organizational socialization process was different depending on the newcomer group.

Unsocialized newcomers showed a significant positive relationship between proactive information seeking and network size, as well as between feedback seeking and network status. Proactive positive framing was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to intention to quit, and role clarity was related to job satisfaction in unsocialized newcomers. These relationships were not found in socialized newcomers. Instead, socialized newcomers showed significant relationships between learning of socialization content and each of the distal socialization outcomes (affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit).

Overall, unsocialized newcomers' adjustment seems related to their proactive strategies, while socialized newcomers' adjustment is facilitated by a greater mastery of socialization content.

This study's unique sample offers interesting insights into the different experiences of newcomers not normally found in popular best practice research. Recommendations for research and practice are discussed accordingly.

Keywords : Organizational socialization, proactive behaviors, learning, adjustment, social networks, comparative study

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Introduction

Best practice research on the subject of newcomer socialization has come up with mixed results over the course of the last 25 years of research. The only conclusion drawn is that any and all forms of organization-structured socialization benefit newcomers. With newcomer socialization and onboarding programs being seen as highly important for learning and adjustment (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Bauer, 2011), there remain a large percentage of organizations that do not socialize their new employees. In fact, there is a glaring lack of studies comparing socialized newcomers to unsocialized newcomers (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), and therefore, a lack of understanding of how the organizational socialization process differs when newcomers are socialized or not.

In order to help organizations better target their newcomer onboarding and socialization programs, and reap the benefits of their investment, this project empirically investigated two objectives, in a pre-experimental ex-post-facto design. The first was to determine whether there were differences in learning and adjustment outcomes, as well as network characteristics, between socialized and unsocialized newcomers. The second objective was to explore how organizational socialization differs as a *process* (relationships between organizational socialization variables) for socialized and unsocialized newcomer groups. The results point to socialized newcomers learning significantly more organizational socialization content than unsocialized newcomers. The results also showed interesting differences in the relationships between variables, depending on newcomer group, with unsocialized newcomers' proactivity relating to their network characteristics, and socialized newcomers' learning of socialization content being related to their overall adjustment.

Chapter 1 situates the study within the context of the current trend of multi-organizational careers. Employees find themselves adjusting to new jobs, colleagues, and organizations at a higher rate than ever before. Investment in, and improvement of, organizational socialization practices has become imperative.

Chapter 2 lays the theoretical and empirical foundation of how newcomers evolve into well adjusted insiders. Current organizational socialization literature is presented to support the organizational socialization process as both a learning and role development process, highlighting certain questions that remain unanswered in terms of best practice research. A

new distinction between socialized and unsocialized newcomers is introduced, laying the foundation for the study's comparative design. Newcomer information networks are integrated into the organizational socialization framework, as social sources of newcomer learning.

Chapter 3 details the study design and methodology used to meet our research objectives and to test hypotheses, with particular attention paid to pre-experimental ex-post-facto study design considerations.

Chapter 4 describes the results from statistical analyses performed on collected data, for each of the two study objectives.

Finally, these study results, as well as the limitations and unique contributions of this thesis are discussed in Chapter 5. The thesis concludes with recommendations for future research and practice in organizational socialization.

Chapter 1: Statement of the problem

In today's fast-paced, global business world, workers are becoming more mobile and less loyal to a single organization (Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011). Job requirements are being redefined, which has shifted employees off the traditional career trajectory and onto less linear paths. Careers are becoming increasingly multi-organizational (Howard, 1996). Indeed, employees are changing jobs and roles at a higher rate than ever before, once every 2.7 years (U.S. Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2009). The rate has quickly risen from once every four years, just over a decade ago (Delobbe & Vandenberghe, 2000).

This is the present reality that organizations and newcomers alike are faced with, and that researchers and practitioners must consider when trying to find ways to more rapidly and effectively integrate newcomers (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Cooper-Anderson & Thomas, 2005). What this means is that newcomers will go through the organizational socialization (OS) process more often in their careers than ever before.

Organizational socialization is the phenomenon that best describes a newcomer's transformation from an outsider to a full member (Feldman, 1981; Wanous, 1980), meaning the way in which a new employee 'learns the ropes' and is taught the reigning organizational viewpoint (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

Indeed, OS has become an ongoing issue for individuals throughout their work lives (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012). Newcomers must therefore become skilled at rapidly integrating into a new organizational role. This also requires organizations to structure the OS experience for newcomers more frequently (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007).

Ultimately, the time and resources invested in recruitment and selection will have been lost if the socialization process fails, hindering newcomers' proper adjustment to their job, role, and organization. Without it, newcomers may feel like strangers in their still unfamiliar organization long after they should have adjusted to this new environment. This can result in them choosing to leave the organization, thereby increasing voluntary turnover. Organizational socialization is therefore an essential component of any effective talent management strategy,

as well as a key competitive advantage for organizations in the marketplace (Fang et al., 2011; Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Organizational socialization is an opportunity for organizations to guide newcomer experience, order and shape personal relationships, and provide ground rules to manage everyday conduct (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). It is also a crucial process that helps newcomers create a more predictable environment for themselves during organizational entry (Bauer et al., 2007). Consequently, the manner in which a newcomer learns and assumes a specific role can serve as a fundamental building block for understanding his or her future behaviour and attitudes (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994).

In short, OS *facilitates* newcomer adjustment. If carried out properly, an organization will possess effective employees with positive work attitudes (such as high job satisfaction and organizational commitment) who remain with the organization for a longer time (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011).

However, considering the alternative, one can imagine the first day of work for a new hire where no one greets them, no one shows them where to sit during a meeting, or where the tools/resources can be found, what lunchtime breaks are like (do people tend to eat together, do they mingle with other departments?), who to ask for help if they need it. There is no need to search for reasons behind newcomer uncertainty in a situation such as this; from Day One the newcomer is essentially left to fend for him or herself.

Unsurprisingly, neglecting to socialize newcomers can lead to high levels of unmet expectations, poor attitudes, negative behaviors, rebellion, disillusionment, and often, higher turnover (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Indeed, of all the negative consequences of unsuccessful or neglected newcomer socialization, turnover is probably the most important for the organization. It should come as no surprise that one of the most important challenges with employees today is retention. In a survey by Deloitte, 24% of organizations surveyed placed retention of key talent as the most important workplace issue affecting business performance (Deloitte, 2013).

An Aberdeen Group survey (Aberdeen Group, 2006) found that 70% of organizations pursuing onboarding strategies do so for retention purposes, more so than for productivity and company branding reasons. It really is about keeping the talent. Organizations struggle to keep

newcomers in the company long enough to justify the repeated expenditure on recruitment, selection, and training. According to a survey by Mercer Inc. in 2005, 45% of companies estimate the turnover costs to replace and train lost employees at more than \$10,000 (Rollag, Parise, & Cross, 2005), which amounts to nearly \$12,000 today (U.S. Inflation Calculator, 2013). On top of these turnover effects, there are the interim complications of reduced productivity and performance.

In fact, ineffective socialization has been cited as the primary reason for newcomer voluntary departure (Jones, 1986). This causes a disruption in work, a decrease in productivity, and a zero sum return on the organization's investment in recruitment and selection (Fang et al., 2011). Because of these costs and consequences, newcomer socialization remains an important and ongoing issue for newcomers and organizations alike (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011).

In spite of these well-known consequences, most of the research on organizational socialization conducted over the last 25 years has focused primarily on seeking best practices to enable organizations to employ proper strategies to help their newcomers adjust. An important problem with this best practice research is that no clear conclusions can be drawn. This research offers very little understanding of what organizations are concretely putting their newcomers through. Moreover, the different strategies lead to differential outcomes, nearly all of which are positive in terms of newcomer adjustment. The most important thing to come out of any socialization effort by an organization is the *symbolic message* it sends to newcomers – namely, these tactics demonstrate to the newcomers that they are valued by their organization, but also that they have much to learn (Ashforth, et al., 2007; Riordan, Weatherly, Vandenberg & Self, 2001).

In this sense, the process itself, and not the particular content, is what impacts the newcomer the most. In fact, the presence of a formal organizational socialization program may be part of an overarching organizational climate that contributes to the socialization (and welcoming) of newcomers (Slaughter & Zickar, 2006), that is, supervisors, senior colleagues, peers who all value socialization, who feel it is important to socialize newcomers and interact with them (small-talk, discussions over lunch, etc.).

This perspective shifts the focus away from which socialization practice is best, towards a new differentiation: organizations that *do* socialize (at all), and organizations that *don't*. Researchers may simply be asking the wrong questions. Instead, it may be more

pressing to ask the following: how does socialization differ as a *process* when comparing newcomers who have been socialized by their organization to those who were simply left on their own (unsocialized)? This is where the distinction with *unsocialized* newcomers should be highlighted, which means that newcomers received *no form* of socialization officially sanctioned by the organization. Surprisingly little research has approached the merits of even the most individualized tactics compared to *no* socialization whatsoever, focusing instead on “best practice” research which has yet to solve the puzzle. This question is in fact of *utmost* importance given that there are still organizations that do not invest in socialization/orientation/onboarding programs for their newcomers. An important paradox is that, although organizations are aware that retention of key talent is their most important challenge, nearly 40% of organizations surveyed by Aberdeen Group (2008) reported no current or planned onboarding strategy. Moreover, their reasons are mostly a lack of urgency among senior management, but also a lack of awareness on the related benefits of having an onboarding program in place (Aberdeen Group, 2008). Indeed, there are many organizations that are still not preoccupied by newcomer socialization.

It is in this perspective that the present study seeks to highlight the importance of having such a program/strategy in place, by comparing the outcomes of newcomers who are socialized to those who are not. This study is the first of its kind, in that it will highlight where exactly newcomers fare worse when left on their own to navigate the waters of adjustment to a new role. Specifically, this study compares newcomers who have been socialized with those who haven't, in terms of:

- What and how much they have learned about their organization, their work group, their job and their role (proximal outcomes of the organizational socialization process);
- Their attitudes (distal outcomes of the organizational socialization process);
- Their embeddedness in the social fabric of the organization (characteristics of newcomer networks);
- The relationships between these variables, for each newcomer group.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter presents a review of the literature pertaining to the organizational socialization process, as well as a framework for the study. The first section defines organizational socialization and its purpose as a learning and role development process for newcomers. The second section describes the proximal and distal outcomes typical of a successful socialization process. The third section clarifies the contextual and individual factors that facilitate newcomer learning and role development. Finally, the fourth section introduces social sources of newcomer learning in a social capital framework newly integrated into organizational socialization research.

1. Organizational Socialization: A learning and role development process

1.1. Definition of organizational socialization

The organizational socialization process has been conceptualized in many ways (Chao et al., 1994; Feldman, 1976; Reichers, 1987; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), though for the purposes of this project, it will be defined as follows.

First, organizational socialization is “the process through which a new organizational employee adapts from outsider to integrated and effective insider” (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006, p.492). This definition highlights the overarching goal of socialization, which is to bring a new hire from point ‘A’ – a newcomer, unfamiliar to their new job, role, and organizational environment, to point ‘B’, a functional, effective, and productive member of the organization. The significance of this goal is that there is a transformation that must take place in between the input (newcomer) and output (insider) (e.g., Katz & Kahn, 1966) (see Figure 1).

Second, or more specifically, organizational socialization is the process through which "a person secures relevant job skills, acquires a functional level of organizational understanding, attains supportive social interactions with coworkers, and generally accepts the established ways of a particular organization" (Taormina, 1997, p. 29). This definition is in line with most conceptualizations of organizational socialization in that it enumerates *what*

must be acquired/learned during socialization for it to be a success (that is, for a newcomer to have ‘sufficiently adjusted’ to his or her new role).

In order to properly conceptualize organizational socialization, one must never lose sight of the first definition’s message, which is that socialization will help get the newcomer on track and on board, functioning as effectively as any seasoned employee in the organization. Additionally, in order to properly *operationalize* organizational socialization, the second definition is necessary, since socialization is essentially a learning process where the newcomer “learns the ropes” and acquires key information as to how the organization functions.

Both definitions have therefore been melded into one, more all-encompassing definition:

Organizational socialization is a process through which a new organizational employee adapts from outsider to integrated and effective insider, by securing relevant job skills, acquiring a functional level of organizational understanding, attaining supportive social interactions with coworkers, and generally accepting the established ways of a particular organization. (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Taormina, 1997).



Figure 1. The path from newcomer to insider (schematic representation of Cooper-Thomas and Anderson’s (2006) definition).

1.1.1. Stage models and duration of OS: a brief overview

Stage models of organizational socialization have proposed that newcomers pass through no less than three stages as they come to appreciate their new organizational role (Allen, 2006; Feldman, 1976): an anticipatory socialization stage (prior to organizational entry; development of expectations about one’s role), an accommodation stage (anticipations are tested against experiences), and an adaptation stage (passage from newcomer to insider) (Bauer et al., 1998; Louis, 1980).

Socialization research has steered away from stage model research over the last 20 years – focusing instead on other perspectives such as antecedents and outcomes of the

socialization process (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Insightful as they are, stage models have been criticized for several reasons. They have received mixed empirical support, and each researcher tends to conceptualize different prescriptive stages (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007), making the models difficult to use as a framework for OS. Moreover, these prescriptive stages fail to outline just *how* newcomers transition from one stage to the next (Bauer et al., 1998). Finally, they view the individual as passively passing through these stages, rather than incorporating the important role newcomer proactivity plays in the OS process (Morrison, 1993b). It is for these reasons that stage models will not be integrated into the present model of organizational socialization.

The duration of organizational socialization is also a point of contention among researchers. Socialization occurs over the course of several months (give or take), therefore researchers have made temporal considerations relating to the degree of socialization (or ‘level’ of adjustment) that newcomers have arrived at depending on the time point at which assessments take place (Klein & Heuser, 2008).

Indeed, there are different points of measurement at which newcomer adjustment can be ascertained. As Fisher (1986) pointed out, OS is a dynamic process that changes over time, for both the individual and the impact on the organization. At what point is the information gathered on newcomers most relevant – at which point meaningful conclusions can be drawn?

The consideration of an employee as a “newcomer” ranges from a matter of weeks (Bauer & Green, 1994), to 3-6 months (Feldman, 1977) to 12-18 months (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998), though these estimates have not been established empirically (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012). One could argue that a reasonable time frame to have achieved all aspects of the above definition of organizational socialization is *longer* rather than shorter. Ideally, it seems important to consider a point at which the newcomer *should* be up to speed, that is, a point at which the newcomer has been given a reasonable amount of time to know what needs to be known. Although there remains a lack of consensus on specific time lines, anywhere between nine months and a year appears to be an appropriate time to measure socialization outcomes, as the adjustment to a new job would be more or less stabilized by that point (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 1998; Morrison, 1993, 2002).

1.2. Organizational Socialization: A Learning Process

Having described what OS is and why it matters, it is important to fully grasp the ultimate goal of a hiring process. The desired result is not just to have a new member in the organization, but to have a new member who is as functional as any experienced member who has been in the organization longer - one who no longer seems “new” to the job, the group, the organization, but who can now be considered an “insider”.

1.2.1. The finish line: What is an “insider”?

An insider can be defined as an effective member of the organization, who meets standard performance criteria, who makes a functional and valuable contribution to the organization’s success, and who is seen as such by colleagues and superiors (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Specifically, social validation from peers, supervisors, and mentors occurs once these actors begin reinforcing the newcomer’s behaviors (conformity to norms, organizational citizenship behaviors), performance (output, role conformity), and identity markers (attire, use of jargon) (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). This reinforcement affirms the newcomer’s place as an organizational member - part of the group.

It is therefore essential to first understand what newcomers experience upon entering a new organization in order to fully grasp their evolution into insiders, as well as the challenges they will face on the way to successful socialization.

1.2.2. The starting line: What is a “newcomer”?

When newcomers enter into an organization, they must negotiate an appreciation of this new, complex, and dynamic context, as well as their role or place within it (Danielson, 2004). Everything is new, and holds an equivocal meaning in the beginning (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Newcomers must make sense of their environment, giving a weight to what they come to understand of this new situation. They find themselves preoccupied with questions, such as:

- What is required of me in this role?
- What are the acceptable ways of behaving in this organization?

- Can I master the necessary skills to perform well?
- What are my supervisor's expectations of me?
- Will my colleagues like and accept me?
- Did I make the right decision choosing this particular organization?
- Etc.

They also find themselves under pressure to navigate the waters of their new environment and find order in this unfamiliar setting - quickly - in order to perform at an acceptable level and contribute to the organizations success (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). These preoccupations and pressures lead to emotions such as anxiety (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986), disappointment, or doubt (Bullis & Bach, 1989), causing an uncertainty that prompts newcomers to engage in strategies to try to secure a sense of control and reduce these emotions (such as proactive behaviors) (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993b).

1.2.3. Newcomers learning to become insiders

Based on the experience described above, what newcomers need first and foremost is *information* (Saks & Gruman, 2012). As newcomers learn about their new role, their colleagues, supervisors, and the organization itself, their uncertainty is reduced. As they begin to make sense of their surroundings, they develop an accurate cognitive map of their new organizational context that allows them to interpret organizational events just like an insider would (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005). Indeed, the boundary transition into a new organizational role is a situation that particularly intensifies the need for information (Ashford, 1986), as newcomers are not only learning what to do, but also how it gets done in this particular organization (Louis, 1980).

For the organization itself, the addition of a new employee into their team is an opportunity to shape behaviors and attitudes in order to perpetuate the culture, the reigning organizational viewpoint, and to have the newcomer identify positively with it. However, a newcomer is also someone who is incurring a lot of costs and who must be successfully integrated into the organization in order to keep productivity high and turnover low (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Danielson, 2004). Watkins (2003) refers to this as the “Breakeven

Point”, whereby a newcomer is contributing as much to their new organization as they have taken from it.

The newcomer must therefore acquire the information necessary to get up-to-speed, and the organization must facilitate this process to ensure the newcomer has access to such information.

Herein lies the underlying goal of organizational socialization, that is, the task that must be accomplished in order for a newcomer’s socialization to be complete: learning (Morrison, 2002a). A simple example of this is the following: in order for a newcomer to meet performance criteria, the newcomer must learn *what* these criteria are.

The newcomer must learn “what to do (technical knowledge), how to do it (practical knowledge), and why it is done this way (values and affect)” (Korte, 2010, p.29). Organizational socialization allows the newcomer to *learn* the organization’s values, norms, resource networks, and politics (Brass, 1985); basically, OS enables newcomers to learn how to function in their organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Feldman, 1976). Learning precedes and positively impacts organizational socialization outcomes (for example, job satisfaction) (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). The success of an OS process is therefore measured by how well and how quickly this information has been learned and integrated.

1.3. What Do Newcomers Learn About?

The most important question when framing organizational socialization as a learning process is: “What do newcomers learn about?” (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012).

1.3.1. The Mastery of Organizational Socialization Content

The degree or *extent* to which a newcomer can be considered socialized is exemplified by a newcomer’s knowledge and understanding of the norms, values, tasks, and roles that characterize organizational membership. Newcomer learning is therefore at the heart of the OS

process, and is often considered the primary criteria reflecting that socialization was successful (Klein, Fan, & Preacher, 2006).

Socialization literature suggests that, ideally, what a newcomer learns should cover content on the following three domains: the job/task domain, the interpersonal and group relationships domain, and the organization domain (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). The job/task domain pertains to the execution and prioritizing of tasks, how to perform the job duties and assignments correctly, handling equipment, routine problem-solving, etc. The interpersonal and group relationships domain focuses on co-worker interactions, formal and informal group structures, etc. The organizational domain concerns the nature, function, structure, history, goals, values, politics and language of the organization as a whole (Feldman, 1981; Fischer, 1986; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Newcomer learning is central to the OS process (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). In fact, the mastery of socialization content has been shown to be the key/integral mediator in the relationship between antecedents (such as organizational socialization practices) and adjustment outcomes of organizational socialization (including role clarity, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment) (Klein, Fan, & Preacher, 2006).

Different frameworks of content domains exist. The most popular and extensively used are Chao et al.'s (1994) six content dimensions of organizational socialization: performance proficiency (the extent to which the newcomer has learned the tasks required of him or her), people (the establishment of successful work relationships), politics (knowledge of formal and informal power structures), language (the professional jargon, slang, and acronyms used in the organization), history (knowledge of traditions, customs, myths, and rituals), and organizational goals and values (the unspoken rules, informal tacit norms).

Recently, Chao et al.'s dimensionality has come under scrutiny, despite remaining the most widely used model of learning content during socialization. The six domains correspond to the task (performance proficiency), group (people and politics), and organizational (organizational goals and values, history, language) domains outlined in Feldman (1981) and Fischer's (1986) classic research. However, Chao et al.'s (1994) model has neglected the role aspect of socialization learning content. This omission constitutes its primary weakness, as

role information is necessary to understand the organization's expectations of the newcomer, to bridge individual and organizational priorities (Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003).

1.4. Role Clarity

An employee's role comprises the specific set of tasks, duties, and responsibilities to that employee's job position, according to performance criteria (Rizzo, House, & Litzman, 1970). In the case of newly hired employees, when the behaviors expected of them are inconsistent, there is role conflict, and they will experience feelings of stress, dissatisfaction, and will likely perform poorly. If employees do not know how far their authority extends, they will hesitate to make decisions, thereby taking longer to accomplish tasks as they rely on trial and error and increasing the likelihood of them making unsatisfactory decisions (Rizzo et al., 1970).

Role clarity constitutes an important outcome of OS. In fact the entire socialization process can be seen as a *role development* process (Toffler, 1981), as well as a learning process. As newcomers are socialized, they must learn the inner functioning of their job, organization and role, which help them know what is expected of them in all spheres of the workplace. It appears that the main difference between socialization content dimensions resides in the way authors include and define the concept of newcomers' *role*. The role domain deals with non-task specific job aspects (broader responsibilities, authority boundaries, appropriate behaviors, etc.). As previously mentioned, Chao and colleagues (1994) did not measure role clarity in their scale. Some authors integrate it directly into the task, group and/or organization level items (Haueter et al., 2003; Thomas & Anderson, 1998), while others measure role clarity/ambiguity as its own dimension within the scale (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999).

Indeed, in order to provide a more comprehensive measure of socialization content, Haueter et al. (2003) proposed a 3-domain model of job/task, work group, and organizational knowledge of socialization content, with role knowledge being covered across each of these levels. That is, factual knowledge on each domain is complemented by information on one's role (understanding behavior expectations) with respect to the job, coworkers, and the organization in the larger sense – meaning there is a dual task: acquiring knowledge about

each domain, as well as acquiring knowledge about the appropriate role behaviors expected in each domain. Integrating both Schein's (1971) and Feldman's (1981) perspectives of socialization, Haueter and colleagues' (2003) conceptualization takes into account the need to be socialized to one's organization, but also to one's group and one's task – where acquiring knowledge on the three domains is supplemented by knowledge on the expected role behaviors that correspond to each.

Role clarity itself is a key concern for newcomers and organizations alike. Indeed, when a newcomer fails to grasp their new role and thus neglects certain job duties the organizational costs can be astronomical, up to \$37 billion annually for US and UK organizations (Cordin, Rowan, Odgers, Barnes, & Redgate, 2008). Role clarity has been related to organizational commitment (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer & Green, 1998; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992); while role conflict and ambiguity are linked to dissatisfaction and intention to quit (Rizzo et al., 1970). In fact, two meta-analyses, Bauer et al. (2007) and Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina (2007) also found that role clarity mediated the relationship between socialization tactics and socialization outcomes.

In short, OS is simply a learning process whereby the newcomer acquires certain key information essential to becoming an effective member in the organization, via the role clarity that this knowledge provides.

2. Successful socialization for newcomer adjustment

With the previous section defining the organizational socialization process, it is important to keep in mind the goal of this process, namely that a well-adjusted and functional newcomer is one who has been 'successfully' socialized. How this is concretely measured (i.e., translated into empirical research) is as follows.

Successful socialization implies that newcomers have acquired the knowledge (organization, group, and task/job) necessary to function as an insider and possesses a clear understanding of his or her role. Successful socialization is concretely measured by what researchers call "proximal socialization outcomes" (Fang et al., 2011), which essentially represent what must be achieved for socialization to be complete (Morrison, 2002a).

Proximal outcomes directly represent the quality/level/degree of acquisition of the knowledge and skills necessary to perform in their new role correctly, as well as the development of social relationships that embed the newcomer within the new organization (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). As outlined in the previous section, newcomers' immediate task is to learn the socialization content that will provide them with the role clarity necessary to be adjusted. Overall, successful socialization is indicated by the mastery of socialization content domains, which pertain to knowledge of one's task, knowledge of one's work group/department, and knowledge of one's organization, with information about one's role acquired *vis-à-vis* each of these domains.

The term 'well-adjusted' describes the global portrait of a newcomer who has settled in and is happy about it, put plainly. Adjustment is most commonly measured by "distal socialization outcomes" (Saks et al., 2007), indicated by newcomers' job attitudes and behavior (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Concretely, distal outcomes often studied include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, turnover, job performance, role orientation, and stress (Adkins, 1995; Bauer et al., 1998; Katz, 1964; Saks & Gruman, 2012).

As they are featured most prominently in traditional OS research, only the following distal outcomes will be considered in this thesis: affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention.

2.1. Affective organizational commitment

Organizational commitment can be defined as the psychological link that exists between an employee and his or her organization, which decreases the likelihood that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Widely recognized as a multidimensional work attitude, a three-component view of organizational commitment has come to dominate research on organizational socialization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cohen, 2007). The three distinct forms of organizational commitment are *affective commitment*, the identification with, involvement in, and emotional attachment to an organization, *normative commitment*, the sense of obligation to the organization, and *continuance commitment*, the commitment associated with the cost of leaving the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Organizational commitment is frequently cited as an outcome of successful socialization of new employees (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment is of particular importance to the socialization process, as an employee's sense of attachment to an organization is strongly associated to his or her work experiences (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Klein & Weaver, 2000). Indeed, affective attachment is significantly negatively related to both role ambiguity and role conflict (with correlations ranging from $-.22$ to $-.39$) (Bauer et al., 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), which are important proximal outcomes of the socialization process. Moreover, meta-analyses reveal that affective commitment is at least moderately related to socialization tactics (correlations ranging from $.14$ to $.32$) (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007).

2.2. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction reflects the affective orientation or feeling that an employee has towards his or her work (Price, 2001), which results from a concordance (or discordance) between the employee's expectations and reality. It can be studied globally or in terms of extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction, across a variety of facets such as appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, nature of the work itself, policies and procedures, pay, etc. (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is an important factor to consider in the socialization process, since dissatisfied newcomers, whose feeling towards their workplace are unfavourable, may reflect workers who were not adequately socialized to their new role. Indeed, as previously mentioned, newcomers who have been socialized by their organization appear to enjoy a higher level of job satisfaction for institutionalized tactics (correlations at $.26$ to $.31$) (Ashforth et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007), particularly for investiture tactics (correlations ranging from $.33$ to $.40$) (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007).

2.3. Intention to quit

Inadequate socialization has been reported as one of the main reasons for unwanted turnover (Bauer et al., 1998). This is not only a considerable cost for the organization, but an avoidable cost. A newcomer leaving an organization due to poor job-fit or disappointing performance is not a total loss, and may in fact be a good outcome in the long run. However, if an organization loses an employee because the newcomer never fully grasped their job tasks

and duties, or felt alienated from their coworkers, this is the result of failed socialization and the organization is likely to be blamed for not making it more of a priority – or even strategy (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Understandably, if a new recruit voluntarily leaves the organization, then that organization has not successfully transformed the outsider into a participating member (Feldman, 1981).

A new hire's intention to quit the organization reflects the likelihood that he or she will voluntarily leave the organization in the immediate future, and is the most self-evident demonstration of an organizations' capacity to retain their employees. In fact, meta-analyses have shown that the relationship between the intention to quit and voluntary turnover (the act of quitting) is between $r = .38$ (over 10 years) (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and $r = .65$ (over 24 years) (Tett & Meyer, 1993). The degree to which newcomers have been socialized and feel embedded in their organization appears to be reflected in their greater intention to remain in the job (Allen, 2006; Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Saks et al., 2007).

2.4. The relationship between proximal and distal outcomes.

Having described successful socialization and newcomer adjustment in terms of proximal and distal outcomes, respectively, it is important to briefly describe how the two have been related in OS research. Logically, it would seem that proximal outcomes should precede distal outcomes (that is, better role clarity will ultimately lead to higher job satisfaction).

Authors such as Klein and Heuser (2008) place learning at the heart of the socialization process, as a mediator between socialization antecedents and outcomes (*both* proximal and distal). Therefore, it should precede even role clarity as a direct outcome of socialization. According to Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina (2007), the relationship between proximal and distal outcomes is such that there is a partial mediation of socialization tactics (content and social) and distal outcomes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment) by proximal outcomes (role conflict, role ambiguity). Conversely, Ashford and Nurmohamed (2012) point out that there are moderators that will influence this relationship (for example, as clear as a role may be, if it is an undesirable role, job satisfaction may not be higher).

Therefore, it remains unclear how to position proximal outcomes *vis-à-vis* distal ones. Learning is said to precede both role clarity and distal outcomes; yet role clarity has in turn been linked to distal outcomes as well. Both will be tested in this study to gain insight into the relationship between proximal and distal outcomes.

3. How do Newcomers Learn? Facilitating Factors of the Organizational Socialization Process

What become of particular interest to researchers on OS are the *facilitating factors* of the process, which can be organizational and/or individual factors. In fact, both are crucial to the socialization process, and can simultaneously facilitate learning and adjustment.

Indeed, although stage and content models of socialization examine *what* has been achieved as a newcomer becomes an insider (Feldman, 1976), research on socialization as a *process* typically follows one of three approaches to studying newcomer adjustment (Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2000): an *organizational* approach, where newcomers are seen as passive recipients of the socialization practices of their organization, an *individualistic* approach, where the focus is on the newcomer's personal initiative and proactivity which facilitate his or her adjustment, and finally, an *interactionist* perspective, which attempts to integrate the unique contributions of each of the two other approaches (Fang et al., 2011).

On one hand, organizational socialization is an opportunity for organizations to guide newcomer experience, order and shape personal relationships, and provide ground rules to manage everyday conduct (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) (organizational factor). It allows the organization to give the newcomer access to the resources (people and information) needed to become an insider.

On the other hand, OS is a crucial process that helps newcomers create a more predictable environment and reduce their own uncertainty (Bauer et al., 2007) (individual factor). Through their own proactive socialization behaviors, newcomers are able to actively seek out useful relationships with key organizational players, who will help them gain access to the information they need, thus actively and positively contributing to their socialization

success.

In the following sections, these two factors (organizational socialization tactics and newcomer proactive behavior) will be extensively detailed, in order to provide a complete understanding of each factor's unique contribution to the success of the OS process.

3.1. The organization-initiated approach

3.1.1. Organizational Socialization Tactics

There are discrete activities that organizations use to socialize newcomers (referred to as organizational socialization practices): orientation days, training programs, apprenticeships, and mentoring (formal or informal), to name a few. Yet it was Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) classic work that provided a framework through which socialization practices could be organized into six tactics, and then studied in terms of the varying effects they had on adjustment. Organizational socialization tactics are the means through which an organization uniquely organizes the learning experiences of newcomers and indoctrinates them to organizational practices. Each tactic is a key factor to consider in socialization, as it allows organizations to ultimately influence the role response (orientation) adopted by a newcomer (Jones, 1986). Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) typology of 6 tactics distinguishes organizations based on whether practices are (1) *collective* versus *individual*, (2) *formal* versus *informal*, (3) *sequential* versus *random*, (4) *fixed* versus *variable*, (5) *serial* versus *disjunctive*, and (6) *investiture* versus *divestiture* (Gruman et al., 2006; Saks & Gruman, 2012; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) (see Table I. for a definitions of the tactics).

Table I.

The Organizational Socialization Tactics (Johns, 1996; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979)

<p>COLLECTIVE <i>a common set of group learning experiences</i></p>	<p>INDIVIDUAL <i>separate from other newcomers and put through unique sets of experiences</i></p>	Context
<p>FORMAL <i>a training program tailored for newcomers, away from other organizational members</i></p>	<p>INFORMAL <i>learning on the job with experienced organizational members in a trial-and-error learning format</i></p>	
<p>SEQUENTIAL <i>clear guidelines and specific activities that have a fixed sequence of identifiable steps</i></p>	<p>VARIABLE <i>more ambiguous or unknown progression</i></p>	Content
<p>FIXED <i>having a timetable for one's progression and a clear idea of when it will be completed</i></p>	<p>RANDOM <i>no information provided as to the time required to assume the new role</i></p>	
<p>SERIAL <i>with help from experienced insiders who serve as role models of acceptable behavior and attitudes</i></p>	<p>DISJUNCTIVE <i>without the guidance of veteran</i></p>	Social
<p>INVESTITURE <i>feedback from insiders to confirm newcomer's identity and personal characteristics (rather than change the newcomer)</i></p>	<p>DIVESTITURE <i>Newcomers put through a series of experiences meant to humble them and then change them</i></p>	
Institutionalized	Individualized	

This typology had initially received much attention, as subsequent studies showed that the tactics appeared to help newcomers more easily acquire information and facilitate their adjustment (Allen, 2006; Jones, 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). On the basis of factor analysis, Jones (1986) later reclassified organizational socialization tactics into 3 broad types: the *context* in which newcomers are socialized (collective/individual, formal/informal) (an

example of a tactic high on the *context* factor would be a collective experience at an offsite, yet formal setting (Cable & Parsons, 2001)), the *content* of information given to newcomers during socialization (sequential/variable, fixed/random) (high on the *content* factor would be a planning session with management where information is given about typical career trajectories within the organization (Cable & Parsons, 2001)), and the *social* or interpersonal aspects of the socialization process (serial/disjunctive, investiture/divestiture) (for example, a mentorship program based on social support and role modeling rather than task/job functions (Cable & Parsons, 2001)). This tripartite model again showed differential outcomes in role orientations and adjustment variables, since each type provides newcomers with different kinds of information (Jones, 1986).

Considering that tactics are highly and positively inter-correlated (Bauer et al., 2007), the 6 tactics and their opposites could also be seen as both poles of a single dimension: the more structured *institutionalized socialization* at one end, and the more lax *individualized socialization* at the other. Institutionalized tactics (collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, investiture) essentially encourage newcomers to passively accept their given roles and to not question the status quo, by highly structuring their entry into the organization with clearly defined and sequenced activities, common learning experiences with their *cohort*, and planned pairing with a role model. Conversely, individualized tactics (individual, informal, variable, random, disjunctive, divestiture) encourage newcomers to develop an innovative approach to their role, with a less structured, more sporadic and informal approach to socializing newcomers (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Bauer et al, 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986).

This unidimensional conceptualization of organizational socialization tactics has been adopted by most researchers (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). The 3-and 6-factor models described above present similar qualities in terms of confirmatory factor analysis. Although the unidimensional classification is acceptable in terms of minimum standards for confirmatory factor analysis, its quality is the lowest of the three (Ashforth et al., 1997; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Jones, 1986).

3.1.2. The search for a “best practice” in OST research

As “different tactics provide information in different ways” (Jones, 1986, p.266), the various tactics have been extensively researched in the hopes of determining a “best practice”. It seems that the results are mixed.

Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina’s (2006) meta-analysis findings point towards social tactics (serial and investiture) as being the best predictors of adjustment outcomes, such as organizational commitment ($\beta = .40$, $p < .001$ at 6 months, $\beta = .44$, $p < .001$ at 12 months for investiture) (Allen & Meyer, 1990), newcomer’s person-organization fit perceptions ($\beta = .49$, $p < .001$) (Cable & Parsons, 2001), and turnover ($\beta = -.83$, $p < .05$ for serial tactics; $\beta = -.65$, $p < .05$ for investiture tactics) (Allen, 2006). This is all consistent with Jones’ (1986) initial findings showing social tactics as most strongly related to adjustment outcomes. Overall, these results may be due to social tactics providing opportunities for interactions with experienced insiders, fostering a sense of social support and community, which should help lower newcomer anxiety (Cable & Parsons, 2001).

Findings originally reported by Chatman (1991) showed that more informal socialization practices, that is informal mentoring and social activities, were associated with significantly higher person-organization fit ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$ for mentoring; $\beta = .30$, $p < .01$ for social activities), and that those higher on PO fit showed greater job satisfaction ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .15$) and lower intention to leave ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .22$).

However, these findings are inconsistent with the large body of research that points to *institutionalized* tactics being linked to less role ambiguity ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .001$), higher commitment ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$) and job satisfaction ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$) (Jones, 1986), among other studies (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth et al., 1997; Laker & Steffey, 1995; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gordon, 1995; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). Institutionalized tactics have also been shown to be related to more proactive behaviors in newcomers (Gruman et al., 2006), and higher newcomer learning (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007), more task mastery and better social integration (Bauer et al., 2007).

The conclusion researchers come to today (given recent meta-analyses on the subject (Bauer et al., 2007; Saks et al., 2007) remains the same as it was 25 years ago:

“institutionalized socialization tactics result in more positive socialization outcomes than individualized tactics” (Saks & Gruman, 2012, p.37). The reasoning is that, viewing organizational socialization as a learning process, institutionalized tactics allow new recruits to follow a more systematically integrated, structured and organized process of socialization that is tailored to provide newcomers with all the information necessary for their learning, role development, and adjustment.

Yet what this concretely and specifically means for organizations hoping to implement or improve such practices is unclear. There also appears to be a difference in terms of the type of OS tactics encountered depending on the type of job one occupies. According to Watkins (2003), *individualized* socialization is more likely in top level management than in new accountants at a big firm, for example, who tend to be socialized in a more *institutionalized* manner.

Indeed, the emphasis that has been placed on studying socialization tactics in the hopes of finding a best practice has not lead to substantial practical advances.

3.1.3. Socialized versus Unsocialized Newcomers

The only conclusion that can be drawn is that organizational socialization tactics, *no matter the type*, succeed in one way or another at facilitating newcomer adjustment.

The underlying issue here is that most research on organization-initiated practices has concentrated on their structural aspect, using either Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) or Jones’ (1986) framework to describe this element of organizational socialization. Yet it offers very little description as to the activities involved in a *serial* tactic, for example, other than the fact that the socialization occurs in a certain order of steps. It is unclear what can concretely be done based on empirical research findings. As we have seen, Saks, Uggerslev and Fassina (2007) found that social tactics were important predictors of adjustment outcomes. If social tactics imply perhaps having an experience member as a role model paired with a newcomer, the details of this strategy remain unknown (Should newcomers be paired with just one role model? And for how long should this pairing last? Etc.).

The way in which best practice research has categorized socialization tactics is distant from actual onboarding practices currently being implemented in organizations. Although the tactics have been studied through the various poles (either ‘more’ institutionalized or ‘more’ individualized, social, context, or content, etc.), the argument here is that as they are often mixed. Concretely, the tactics can be seen as different strategies, the variety of ways in which organizations can structure newcomer socialization. For example, apprenticeships or mentoring can be considered as serial, yet individual tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). These tactics can be employed and interpreted in different ways, depending on the organization’s intentions and the newcomers’ characteristics (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007), which only further confounds the search for a best practice. In reality, well-designed socialization programs contain a bit of everything depending on the organization’s goals and the newcomers’ needs – combinations of both institutionalized and individualized tactics.

Furthermore, these varying degrees of structure outlined by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) don’t imply that newcomers have not received an organization-initiated socialization. Even a lax and more sporadic individualized tactic can have some formal aspects to it. The point here is that, whether more institutionalized or individualized, these tactics are describing what the *organization* has put in place for newcomers to structure their experience, which can sometimes be very little, but which nevertheless remains an organizationally sanctioned practice.

Authors like Saks and Ashforth (1997a) pointed out the “glaring lack” of quasi-experimental studies in socialization research (p.259), which is unfortunate, as such studies would help establish the organizational gains afforded by implementing such tactics in the first place. In fact, only two studies in OS research have employed a quasi-experimental design. A study by Chao, Walz, and Gardner (1992) compared the effects of formal, informal, and no mentorship on newcomer adjustment. Their results showed significant differences between informal and non-mentored individuals ($F_{(9,489)} = 5.04, p < .01$), and between formal and non-mentored individuals ($F_{(9,323)} = 2.22, p < .01$) in terms of level of organizational socialization and job satisfaction, with non-mentored individuals faring the worst.

Among the few studies examining the availability and helpfulness of orientation training programs (Chatman, 1991; Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983; Nelson & Quick, 1991),

only one evaluated the impact of attending a formal organization-level orientation training program on organizational socialization. In a quasi-experimental design, a study conducted by Klein and Weaver (2000) had new hires at a large educational institution *voluntarily* attend a formal orientation program that was tailor-made to convey the goals/values, history, and language content dimensions of socialization identified by Chao et al. (1994). Newcomers who had attended the program were compared to those who did not on their degree of socialization (all six content dimensions), as well as their level of affective organizational commitment. Their results show that employees who had attended the orientation program had an increment in affective commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F = 4.05$, $p < .05$), and that this relationship was mediated by their knowledge of the content dimensions of socialization (additional variance explained dropped to 0%; $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $F = 0.10$, *n.s.*). This study stands out amongst the body of socialization literature that has only compared one type of socialization strategy to another. Despite its main limitation of not having participants randomly assigned to the groups, this study's quasi-experimental design highlights the unique contribution of organization-initiated socialization practices to newcomer outcomes.

It is with these interesting conclusions in mind that the present study will respond to the need for more comparative research into the organizational socialization process, by comparing *socialized* newcomers to *unsocialized* ones (as defined above). This will likely provide new insights into organizational socialization, as well as nuances to the experiences of each type of newcomer.

3.2. The newcomer-initiated approach

3.2.1. Newcomer Proactive Behaviors

Originally, organizational socialization was seen more as a process of “enculturation” (e.g., being ingrained in the existing culture) (Danielson, 2004), and was studied as a way to increase job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and tenure amongst new hires (Wanous, 1980). More and more, the power of newcomers' proactivity has been recognized.

Lester's (1987) assimilation model utilized Uncertainty Reduction Theory and proposed that when a newcomer enters an organization or assumes a new role within an organization, he or she experiences high levels of uncertainty due to the unpredictability of this new situation (as cited in Mignerey et al., 1995). Uncertainty is reduced as the newcomer seeks out information from various sources in order to gain control over and better understand the work place (Ashford & Black, 1996; Louis, 1980), as well as his or her place within it. This provides the newcomer with a sense of efficacy and competency, as feelings of mastery over the job and job environment increase (Morrison, 2002b).

Proactivity, in this sense, plays a vital role in the socialization of newcomers. Although organizational socialization tactics help newcomers gain access to information pertaining to their new role, as well as reveal the inner functioning of the organization itself, information is often lacking. The perspicacity of most newcomers will bring them to take matters into their own hands, given that they are likely to work in several organizations throughout their career (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b). An important way in which newcomers reduce their uncertainty is by proactively seeking out information and resources to help them "get up to speed" (Morrison, 2002b).

Crant (2000) defines proactivity as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions" (p.436). In a work setting, such proactive behaviours reflect employees taking an active, self-starting approach to their work. It is a sort of 'behavioural self-management' (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), where the employee seeks information and opportunities, initiates situations, and creates favourable conditions for him or herself (Crant, 2000; Gruman et al., 2005). These behaviors serve to allow the new employee to better understand his or her new role and work situation, and to achieve greater socialization more quickly. In short, proactive strategies can be seen as the means by which newcomers facilitate their own socialization (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Some authors have focused on the "proactive personality", which is a personal disposition toward taking action to influence one's environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993), and have identified several underlying traits such as tolerance for ambiguity, self-efficacy, need for affiliation, and desire for control (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashford & Cummings, 1985; Major & Kozlowski, 1997). However, the *expression* of these traits appears to be more context

specific. Newcomer proactivity during socialization in particular is expressed through various types of behaviours or strategies.

Ashford and Black (1996) presented several proactive behaviors that newcomers display during organizational entry: sense making, relationship building, framing behaviors, and job-change negotiating. Negotiation of job changes (to better fit one's skills and abilities), though an important proactive behavior for employees, shows low incidence among organizational newcomers (Ashford & Black, 1996). Indeed, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) noted that, out of the behaviors presented by Ashford and Black (1996), the ones that are *most* employed by newcomers during organizational entry can be classified into three categories: sense-making, positive framing, and relationship building behaviors. For the purposes of the present study, these are the proactive behaviors that will be focused on.

The first, *sense making*, encompasses both information seeking behaviours, such as direct inquiry from supervisors and experienced coworkers (Morrison, 1995; van der Velde, Ards, & Jansen, 2005), as well as feedback seeking behaviours, whereby the newcomer solicits self-referent information about his or her performance (Ashford & Black, 1996).

Information-seeking behaviors have been extensively studied in OS research, which has been associated with greater role clarity (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006), as well as with greater job satisfaction (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Morrison, 1993b; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Indeed, as socialization is, at its core, a learning process, information-seeking is perhaps one of the most important behaviors for new employees to learn about their new environment and thus, facilitate their adjustment (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Feedback seeking behavior has been associated with greater task mastery and job performance (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a), as well as role clarity (Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Overall, these two sense making behaviors are associated with greater integration into the organization and more positive attitudes in newcomers.

The second category involves *positive framing*, a cognitive self-management technique employed by individuals to see the positive side of difficult or stressful situations (i.e., adjustment to a new work environment) – that is, to alter their perception or understanding of problems and challenges in order to see them as opportunities rather than obstacles (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). As newcomers learn socialization

content (information on their job, group, organization, and role) through the socialization experiences they are exposed to, they can approach and frame such experiences in a way that facilitates learning and development (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). This positive reinterpretation of events is an important cognitive strategy for newcomers. Some authors see it as a “problem-focused coping effort” that allows newcomers to reduce and manage stressful situations (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000, p.375), such as organizational entry. Indeed, positive framing has been associated with greater social integration and job satisfaction, as well as lower intention to quit (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), all of which are important newcomer adjustment outcomes.

Finally, *relationship building* behaviours include behaviors associated with general socializing, networking, and forming ties with supervisors and close work groups. These behaviors provide newcomers with friendship and social support, but also instrumental gains in social capital (Ibarra, 1993; Morrison, 1993b; Nelson & Quick, 1991; Reichers, 1987).

Newcomers engage in proactive behaviours in a more or less frequent manner in order to adjust to their new environment (Ashford & Black, 1996). Information and feedback seeking behaviours have been associated with socialization outcomes such as higher job satisfaction ($F = 4.17, p < .001, R^2 = .12$) and lower intention to leave ($F = 2.90, p < .05, R^2 = .06$) (Morrison, 1993b). Feedback seeking ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), positive framing ($\beta = .20, p < .05$), and relationship building ($\beta = .18, p < .05$) have been positively related to job satisfaction, and relationship building has also been negatively related to intention to turnover ($\beta = -.24, p < .01$) (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Indeed, the valuable personal and organizational outcomes of proactive behaviours are non-negligible (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993a, 1993b).

Most importantly, it has been shown that these proactive behaviors are related to proactive outcomes, that is, newcomers who more frequently engage in information and feedback seeking behaviors, as well as relationship building behaviors, effectively receive more information and feedback, and successfully build more relationships (Saks et al., 2011).

This highlights the importance of engaging in such behaviors, as they successfully provide newcomers with what they seek, and both meaningfully and positively affect adjustment.

3.3. Dynamics between facilitating factors: The interactionist perspective

Newcomers differ in their reactions to organizational socialization tactics (Ashford & Black, 1996) as well as in their propensity to proactively engage in their new work environment.

The late 80's saw a shift in how organizations socialized newcomers – a shift to the interactionist perspective, which integrates newcomer attempts at self-socializing with organizational socialization tactics (Griffin, Colella & Goparaju, 2000; Jones, 1983). The interactionist perspective posits that the responses of actors are a function of both the attributes of the actors as well as of their environments (Schneider, 1983). This approach offers a useful framework for understanding the ways in which significant person-by-situation interactions contribute to a more *rapid* socialization of newcomers (Reichers, 1987). Concretely, a newcomer's proactivity is associated with a higher frequency of interactions (by asking more questions, initiating social opportunities, asking for feedback, participating in social activities with colleagues), allowing him to gain access to more explanatory information, thereby increasing his ability to make sense of his new role (Reichers, 1987). As the newcomer creates a more predictable environment, his anxiety and uncertainty are more quickly reduced (Wanous, 1980). As for the organization, it sets the scene by implementing socialization programs that serve the same function, which is to increase interaction opportunities and information access (Reichers, 1987). As a result, the organization reaps the benefits of their newcomers being able to focus on job performance sooner (Katz, 1980).

The interactionist perspective has been put to the test in many studies, with results seemingly in its favour (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Jones (1983) suggested that individual differences influence organizational socialization tactics' impact on socialization outcomes. Conversely, the *type* of organizational socialization tactic may affect the expression of proactive behaviors (Griffin et al., 2000), whereby newcomers engage in more proactive behaviors when they have been through *institutionalized* socialization tactics. Indeed, Gruman, Saks, and Zweig (2006) studied the relationship between socialization tactics, proactivity, and socialization outcomes and found proactivity to be the mediator in the relationship: when

proactivity is held constant, the variance in social integration ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, *n.s.*) and organizational commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .06$, *n.s.*) is no longer explained by socialization tactics. However, in the same study, a paradox emerged, revealing a more complex moderation relationship. Newcomers who were *low* on proactivity showed a *stronger* relationship between socialization tactics and socialization outcomes; for information seeking behaviours, particularly in terms of social integration ($r = .51$, $p < .001$ vs. $.24$, *n.s.*) and job satisfaction ($r = .48$, $p < .001$ vs. $.19$, *n.s.*), as well as for feedback seeking behaviours (particularly in terms of job satisfaction ($r = .50$, $p < .001$ vs. $.18$, *n.s.*)). These results reveal that certain tactics may override newcomers' proactive styles by compensating for those who are low on proactivity, thus facilitating their adjustment. In short, when newcomers are low on proactivity, being socialized should make an appreciable difference in terms of their adjustment.

Taking together the conclusions drawn from both types of facilitating factors, it seems that proactive behaviors are employed varyingly (to different degrees) depending on the individual, but more interestingly depending on the organizational socialization practices. Griffin, Colella, and Goparaju (2000) propose that proactive behaviors compensate the lack of structure from more lax organizational tactics; this may be all the more true for *unsocialized* newcomers, featured in the present study. Moreover, as Gruman, Saks, and Zweig's (2005) study suggests, there may exist an interaction effect whereby newcomers benefit more from the OS practices they are exposed to *if* they lack the self-starting initiative to seek out information and feedback for themselves. Conversely, newcomers who are *not* socialized by their organization (unsocialized, as we refer to it here) may need to rely more on proactive behaviors to get them the information they need. However, even when resorting to their own devices, the information they receive may be selective and lacking.

Given the empirical support for the interactionist perspective, it would be negligent to retain a model of organizational socialization that does not integrate proactive behaviors. Indeed, this perspective represents a more encompassing view of socialization content acquisition – first through passive means (OS tactics) that are supplemented by an active search for what may be lacking. The organizational socialization process, as a learning process affected by both organizational socialization tactics and by proactive strategies is represented in Figure 3 below.

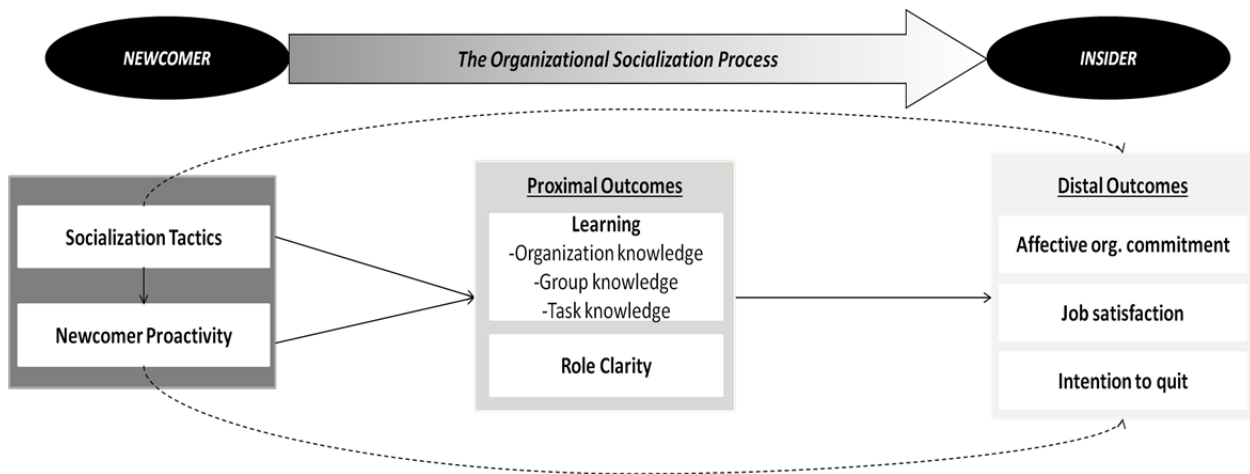


Figure 2. Model integrating the major socialization perspectives (Closely adapted from Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007)

4. Social sources of newcomer learning

Socialization research generally describes a process, but authors have hinted that there is a lack of studies defining the underlying mechanisms linking socialization antecedents to outcomes (Allen, 2006; Fang et al., 2011; Klein & Heuser, 2008; Saks et al., 2007). Recently, it has been proposed that *how* antecedents such as organizational socialization tactics and proactive behaviors influence adjustment outcomes is through the *social resources* that newcomers have in their network (Fang et al., 2011).

It is with this idea that the social network approach has been integrated into organizational socialization research (Fang et al., 2011). The social network approach suggests that newcomer learning is based in social relations and interactions in the workplace (Burt, 1992). The characteristics of one's network will describe the access individuals have to information, advice, opportunities, and resources (Burt, 1992). In the context of organizational socialization and newcomer adjustment, creating a rich network of insiders can help the

newcomer learn to become proficient in his or her job tasks, reduce the risk of committing behavioral *faux pas*, gain role models on which to base their attitudes, values and behaviors, and gain acceptance as an organizational member (Chao, 2007).

Social capital theory, developed within the social network approach, takes this further, describing these network ties as being social resources that could in fact be the means through which newcomers are able to obtain desired outcomes (role clarity, task mastery, political information, job opportunities, etc.). The proposed mechanism is simple: passive (organizational socialization tactics) and active (proactive behaviors) efforts facilitate newcomers' *interaction* and *communication* with insiders, providing the newcomers with information and helping them understand their new environment. If this is the case, successful socialization is dependent on having access to and mobilizing this information, contained within the newcomers' social resources (Fang et al., 2011).

In the following section, newcomer relationships will be presented as social resources. We will describe what social resources are and how they are measured, why they are important to newcomers, and how they have thus far been integrated into organizational socialization research.

4.1. Newcomer relationships as social resources

When a newcomer arrives in an organization, he or she will interact with others *initially* either on purpose (to obtain information through simple inquiry from a co-worker), coincidentally or randomly (perhaps due to proximity in the work space, being part of the same work group, or due to similarity), or because of the constraints of external factors (an orientation day, socialization program or formal mentorship) (Brass, 1995). Such initial interactions are generally seen as opportunities for newcomers to obtain information in order to make sense of, and successfully operate on, their new work environment, and to learn their new organizational role. What is most important from a social network perspective is that when an initial interaction is *helpful* (allows one to better understand one's environment or role), the interaction is likely to be repeated and a relationship is eventually formed (Brass, 1995).

Social relationships allow newcomers to integrate the various pieces of information they have gathered, as well as provide more subtle details that may not be explicitly communicated by the organization (that is, not immediately available to the newcomer through sanctioned socialization tactics) (Bauer et al., 1998; Hatmaker, Park, & Rethemeyer, 2011; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Senior colleagues, peers and supervisors can therefore be seen as “socializing agents”, who provide newcomers with task advice, strategic decision-making direction, and social support (Bauer & Green, 1998; Burt, 1992; Podolny & Baron, 1997). They also help newcomers make sense of their experiences, develop an identity within the new organization, and convey a sense of personal belonging (Coleman, 1988; Klein et al., 2006; Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987).

4.2. The social network approach: types of networks and their characteristics

The social network perspective focuses on the relationship patterns between actors, the structure of the interconnections between them, rather than the mere presence of social ties or the particular attributes of the actors themselves (Brass, 1995).

Overall, social network researchers describe networks as serving two purposes: informational access through the unique set of ties that an individual acquires, and friendship (or expressive) networks that describe satisfying relationships that provide social support, and a sense of belonging (Ibarra, 1992; Podolny & Baron, 1997). Information networks arise through communication with insiders and are especially useful to newcomers, who experience high levels of uncertainty during organizational entry (Fang et al., 2011). This is reduced through newcomers’ social interactions with insiders such as supervisors and peers (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). In many cases, the same relationship can represent both an informational and a friendship tie (Morrison, 2002a). This is particularly true for newcomers, who are new to the social fabric of the organization and are still building relationships outside of their close work group. In the case of such overlap, although it is certainly possible to describe characteristics of both types of networks, it may be less insightful when describing newcomer networks. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, only information network characteristics

will be examined, as the learning of socialization content is the focus of this research, more so than social integration via friendship.

Network ties can also be studied at different levels of analysis (individual, group, the entire organization, or even across organizational boundaries) (Brass, 1995). Most often in scientific research, authors look at an individual's *egocentric* (or *personal*) network (Marsden, 1990). An egocentric network comprises an individual's direct ties and his or her perception of the relationships among these ties, as well as how his or her unique set of contacts affects various individual variables. Egocentric networks are particularly appropriate for studying newcomers, as these individuals represent only a small proportion of the *whole* (or complete) organizational network within which they are embedded (Morrison, 2002a).

4.2.1. Egocentric Network Characteristics

Egocentric networks can be measured in terms of strength, size, density, range, and status (Brass, 1995; Morrison, 2002a). These characteristics define either the relational or structural characteristics of an individual's network. Social network theory argues that both the relational *and* structural characteristics of one's network will have an impact on the newcomer's access and use of network resources (Morrison, 2002a).

Relational quality: *Tie Strength*

Relational characteristics of a network refer to the quality or closeness of each relational tie that a newcomer forms, for both information and friendship networks (Granovetter, 1992; Morrison, 2002a). This is characterized by a sense of liking, reciprocation, cooperation, and trust (Burt, 2005; Krackhardt, 1992).

Typically, the relational aspect of a network is measured through *network tie strength* (Granovetter, 1973). Strong ties are characterized by their closeness and the frequency of interactions between ties, which engender high levels of trust that are particularly useful for newcomers during times of uncertainty (Burt, 1992; Krackhardt, 1992). Strong ties are more conducive to social exchange and resource sharing (information flow) – such as facilitating tacit knowledge sharing (Hansen, Mors, & Løvås, 2005), and have been related to task mastery and role clarity (Morrison, 2002a). The reason behind this is that contacts who trust

the newcomer are more motivated to help them out and provide access to the information they hold (Higgins & Kram, 2001).

Structural characteristics: Network Size, Density, Range, and Status

Structural network characteristics underlie the pattern of interconnections among people – it is a more impersonal aspect of networks (Granovetter, 1992; Morrison, 2002a). Nonetheless, it represents an essential feature in the development of useful social capital. The structure of ties will help determine the *access* that the newcomer has to useful information, the knowledge of which person to approach without wasting time (Nakamura & Yorks, 2011).

Network size refers to the number of contacts in the focal person's network (Morrison, 2002a). The more the person has contacts, the larger the breadth and variety of information available to them, and the more integrated into the social fabric of the organization one is (Granovetter, 1973).

Network status refers to the 'prestige' of having a certain person in one's network, that is, the extent to which the contacts of one's network hold high-status positions within the organizational hierarchy (Morrison, 2002a). Such individuals may be important sources of political information that is unavailable at lower levels (Brass, 1995; Morrison, 2002a). Ties to high-status individuals can help newcomers gain political knowledge, clarify their roles and understand the organizational environment better, thus reducing their uncertainty (Fang et al., 2011; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

Network range refers to the diversity of a network, specifically the access to individuals from different units within the organization, which enables newcomers to tap into different information networks, and gain a sense of the interdependency of the newcomer's position within the social fabric of the organization (Morrison, 2002a). A larger network range offers a greater capacity to acquire knowledge and information if ties are strong, as it will increase the willingness to not only initiate a request for information, resources, or help, but also the likelihood that the recipient will be open to the request (Tortoriello, Reagans, & McEvily, 2012).

Network density refers to the interrelation among the contacts in one's network (the contacts are mutually linked). Also referred to as *network cohesion*, it would seem that a low density network facilitates the acquisition of new information, and a high density network allows members to share more tacit knowledge and resources with those they trust (Nakamura & Yorks, 2011). Although low density ties are useful in competitive or political settings (Burt, 1983), highly dense ties offer the most rewards for newcomers in particular, allowing them to gain consistent and trustworthy information essential for learning of socialization content.

4.3. Social capital theory: Access to insider information

The network characteristics described above allow for a consideration of the *value* of a newcomer's network, an overall sense of whether the ties formed are rich in information and useful to the newcomer's adjustment. In this sense, relationships are seen as social capital, a concept that is rapidly being considered a critical factor in organizational success (Nakamura & Yorks, 2011).

Social capital can be seen as the utilization of one's network, whereby actual and potential resources in and from network relationships are mobilized (Lin, Cook, & Burt, 2001; Nakamura & Yorks, 2011). The savvy newcomer will want to understand the social fabric of the organization, and fit in with colleagues - not simply for the social support this offers, but for the most important gain: information. Organizational insiders are the gatekeepers to key political information, performance-relevant information, informal norms, etc. Therefore, developing relationships with them (supervisors, peers, and senior colleagues) and becoming accepted by them is the most useful card a newcomer can play to learn the ropes quickly (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006). Relationship development largely depends on the extent to which new hires are exposed to insiders, providing them with opportunities to meet and get to know members of the organization (for example, getting introduced to key people, invitations to lunch, being told who to contact for a certain expertise or resource, etc.) (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

Having a larger, richer social network may help newcomers feel more at ease when soliciting colleagues for information. Social capital can thus have a positive impact on

newcomers' adjustment in that it facilitates access to broader sources of information, improves information quality, relevance, and timeliness (by knowing who to go to for information) – saving time and effort to locate the information needed. As a result, building networks with organizational members is crucial for newcomers to help them learn about their new role and work environment (Morrison, 2002a).

4.4. Social capital and the organizational socialization process

Overall, it is clear that is not simply *to whom*, but also *how* a newcomer is connected (network characteristics) to organizational insiders that will influence learning and adjustment outcomes (Morrison, 2002a).

Research consistently shows that colleagues and supervisors play a critical role in newcomer learning, the gatekeepers of essential information (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Louis et al., 1983; Morrison, 2002a; Nelson & Quick, 1991). As we have seen, the learning of content remains the central task of any successful socialization process. Yet throughout the literature, little detail is given on the underlying mechanisms that enable newcomers to acquire this socialization content knowledge (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005).

In fact, social capital can be utilized through two sequential processes (Lin, 1999): *access* to social capital and *mobilization* of social capital. In the socialization process, both individual (proactivity) and contextual (organizational socialization tactics) factors affect the ease with which newcomers can build relationships and construct information and friendship networks (Fang et al., 2011). These facilitating factors provide the interaction opportunities that give newcomers access to social capital. The newcomer then mobilizes the social capital he or she has gained in order to obtain valuable information necessary to function as a member of the organization (information about his or her role, job, group, and organization). This places social networks at the center of the socialization process, as both an outcome of socialization tactics and proactive behaviours, and as the facilitator in newcomer learning and role clarity (see Figure 4).

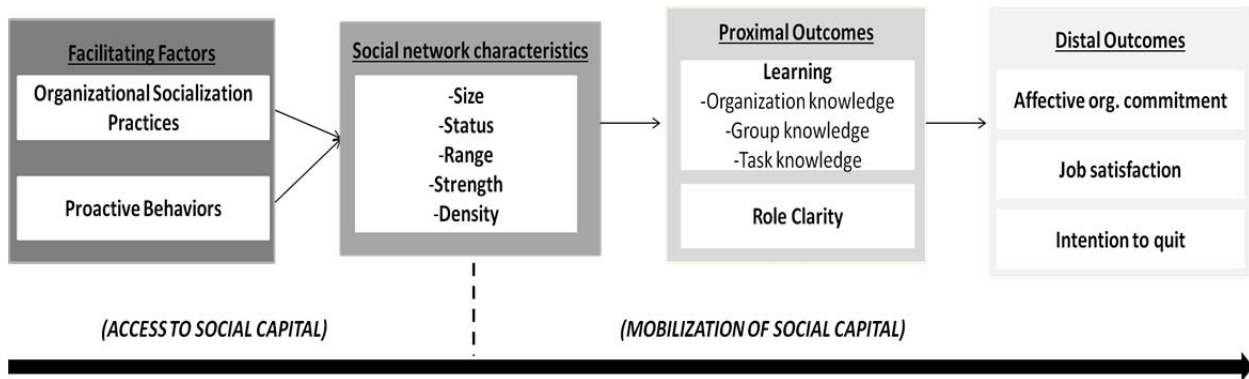


Figure 3. Social capital model of the organizational socialization process (adapted from Fang et al., 2011).

4.4.1. Organizational socialization tactics and proactive behaviors: facilitating *access* to social capital

Institutionalized tactics influence newcomers’ interactions with insiders (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Indeed, these tactics reduce the uncertainty experienced by newcomers by shaping the information they receive and providing them with initial social resources. Upon entry, newcomers do not yet possess comfortable routines for interacting with insiders (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim, Cable & Kim, 2005), or else may lack the social confidence to initiate such interactions (more on this below with proactivity). It is here that institutionalized tactics exert their influence: by helping newcomers overcome these “temporary disadvantages” and providing them with a structure that promotes communication with coworkers and supervisors (Mignerey et al., 1995). Institutionalized socialization programs can directly guide newcomers to reliable sources of information, for example: orientation days, training, or mentoring create positive interaction opportunities with supervisors and experienced insiders from various departments (Fang et al., 2011). The basic gain is that the newcomers know where to turn when they need advice or information (Miller & Jablin, 1991), and most importantly, without wasting time.

Organizations can structure initial interactions between newcomers and insiders, and newcomers can play an active role in constructing and developing their social network.

Through their proactive efforts, newcomers may acquire more ties (though weak at first) in their network – getting invited to and participating in more informal social activities than those less proactive. There is more active engagement in various communication behaviors, more interpersonal exchanges with organizational insiders (Mignerey et al., 1995) – essentially, proactive newcomers are mindfully and strategically increasing opportunities for interaction and thus increasing their access to important information.

4.4.2. Empirical evidence

The following studies highlight the role of socialization tactics and proactivity in giving access to social capital, as well as how the mobilization of social resources further impacts socialization outcomes.

Thompson (2005) explored the relationship between proactive personality and job performance, specifically the role of behavioural mediators such as social network building. In his study, 126 employee-supervisor dyads were assessed in terms proactive personality (employees only), network building ability (employee and supervisor ratings), and organizational initiative taking and performance (supervisor ratings). Structural equation modeling suggested that network building was a partial mediator of the relationship between proactive personality and job performance ($\chi^2(32) = 43.0, p > .05; CFI = .988; SRMR = .057$), with the parameter estimates for the relationships between network building and proactive personality, and network building and job performance at .37 and .46, respectively.

These findings seem to imply that social network building represents a key skill through which proactivity expresses itself, and that one's ability to take the initiative to create a network of contacts and friendships will not go unnoticed by supervisors, thus affecting performance evaluations. The implications for newcomers are that proactivity helps them feel both structurally and relationally tied to their new social context, which in turn should positively affect their adjustment.

A study by Allen (2006) places social networks as both the cause and the consequence in the socialization process, whereby embeddedness (a concept that includes the extent to which individuals have social connections) plays the role of mediator in understanding how socialization tactics influence turnover. A sample of 222 new hires at a large financial

organization was surveyed on the basis of individual perceptions of socialization tactics and embeddedness. Organizational records were consulted in order to obtain turnover rates. Both serial ($\beta = -.83, p < .05$) and investiture ($\beta = -.65, p < .05$) tactics were significantly related to turnover. These two tactics were classified by Jones (1986) as more *social* tactics and highlight the importance of relationships in socialization outcomes. Nevertheless, on-the-job embeddedness only mediated the effects of investiture socialization tactics on turnover ($\beta = -.87, p < .05$). Investiture tactics appear to help newcomers build the relationships necessary to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity and allow them to feel more embedded in their new work context. This study highlights the importance of socialization tactics in newcomer retention. By helping newcomers establish relationships and feel more embedded in the organizational environment, organizational socialization tactics are able to reduce their fears of turnover during the precarious adaptation period.

In a key study by Morrison (2002a), 154 new hires in a global accounting firm were surveyed to assess the effect of social relationship patterns on socialization. Newcomers' egocentric friendship and information networks were assessed and computed in terms of size (listing up to 8 people), density, tie strength, range, and status. The socialization outcomes measured were organizational knowledge, task mastery, role clarity, social integration, and organizational commitment. It was hypothesized that information networks would promote learning outcomes (task mastery, role clarity, and organizational knowledge), while friendship networks would be indicative of assimilation (adjustment) outcomes (social integration and organizational commitment). Results indicated that for *information* networks, network size was positively related to organizational knowledge ($\beta = .21, p < .05$) and task mastery ($\beta = .18, p < .05$). Network density was positively related to task mastery ($\beta = .29, p < .01$) and role clarity ($\beta = .31, p < .01$), with similar results for network strength ($\beta = .30, p < .01$, for task mastery; $\beta = .23, p < .01$, for role clarity). Range was positively related to organizational knowledge ($\beta = .30, p < .01$), and network status was positively related to task mastery ($\beta = .21, p < .05$) as well as role clarity ($\beta = .31, p < .01$). Information networks appear to be related to proximal outcomes of newcomer socialization. Moreover, informational networks were better predictors of socialization outcomes than friendship networks, explaining as much as 48% of the variance of role clarity. Overall, the results imply that the *higher* one is on each of

the five dimensions, be it for information or friendship networks, the “better” one’s network is – the better one’s socialization outcomes will be. There thus appear to be more *favourable* network patterns for newcomer adjustment to be successful. Morrison’s (2002a) concluding remarks also revealed that participants in her study had received a formal and collective (more institutionalized) socialization, suggesting that individuals who are socialized in a cohort should build stronger friendship ties, and that proactive individuals should build stronger and more numerous ties. However she raises no further predictions as to the pattern of networks that should emerge when newcomers are socialized in this manner.

These same conclusions have recently been brought forth in a model proposed by Fang, Duffy, and Shaw (2011), whereby *institutionalized* socialization tactics (such as collective formal orientation programs, such as the one in Morrison’s (2002a) study) and newcomer proactivity facilitate newcomers’ access to social capital, and mobilizing such social capital should affect newcomer adjustment and career success. Although it remains to be tested, the theoretical conclusions drawn by this model are consistent with the implications of the studies mentioned above, and of the increased prominence of social network building as a key mechanism of the socialization process. This model allows for a comprehensive and clear path from socialization antecedents (Socialization tactics and proactive behaviors) to learning and adjustment outcomes, through social networks.

Taken together, organizational socialization is a learning process through which newcomers adjust to their role in order to become insiders (1). This requires them to acquire the information necessary to do so successfully and effectively (2). Learning the socialization content necessary requires having information sources, in the form of social resources (network characteristics) that the newcomer can mobilize as needed (3). These social resources must be built, either through initial interactions put in place by the organization or initiated by the newcomer (facilitating factors of socialization).

The figure below (Figure 5) presents the model of organizational socialization as it will be considered in this study. It integrates Fang et al.’s (2011) model with Morrison’s (2002a) measurement of network by the 5 characteristics described above, and positions social networks within the traditional learning process of organizational socialization. This model

also adds the comparison of socialized newcomers with unsocialized ones, shying away from common best practice frameworks (as described in Section 3).

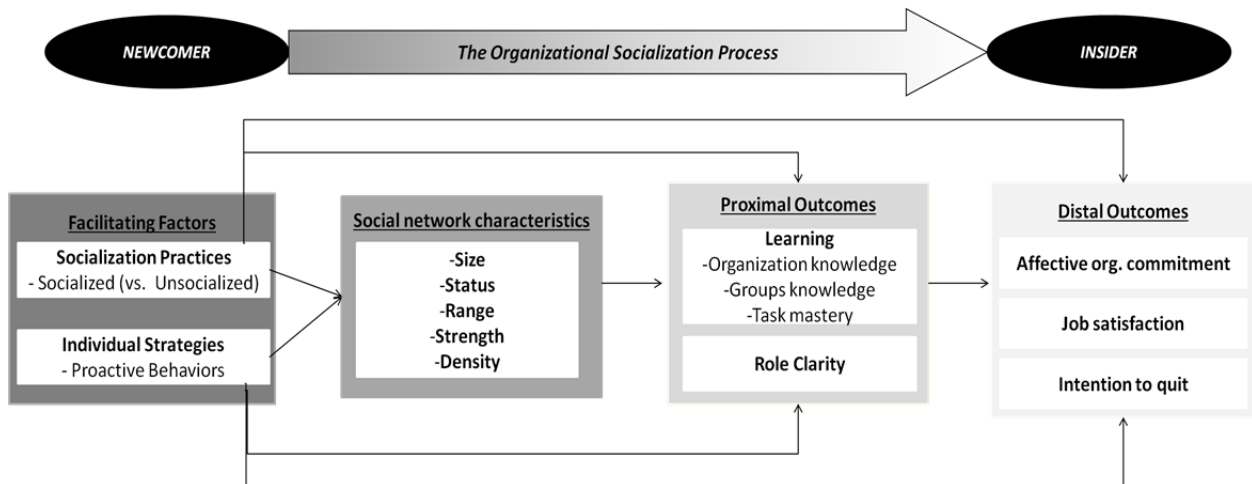


Figure 4. Integrated model of the organizational socialization process (including comparative design, social network characteristics and socialization content; adapted from Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002a).

Summary of study objectives and hypotheses

The literature review presented the organizational socialization process as both a learning and role development process for newcomers to become effective and productive insiders. Both organizational (socialization tactics) and individual strategies (proactive behaviors) have been shown to facilitate this process in order to help newcomers adjust quickly and successfully. Moreover, recent research has begun to integrate the social network approach into the organizational socialization process, the studies seemingly in favor of this new trend.

The majority of research on this process, however, remains “best practice research”, which falls short of providing conclusive advice that can be operationalized for organizations. In order to gain more practical and empirical insight into this process, it seems warranted to investigate a new strategy of comparing socialized newcomers to *unsocialized* ones.

This study constitutes one among less than a handful of studies having taken a comparative approach to newcomer socialization, and answers the call for the noticeable lack of such research in this field (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). The same is true for the still small amount of studies integrating social resources (networks) into the OS framework. With this in mind, the present study pursues the following two research objectives:

Objective 1

The primary objective of this project is to compare socialization outcomes in two separate newcomer groups, one in which newcomers have been socialized by their organization and one in which they have not in a pre-experimental ex-post-facto design (see Figure 6 for a model of hypothesized links).

Moreover, in accordance with research on socialization tactics' influence on newcomer adjustment, that is, on proximal and distal outcomes (Jones, 1986, among others), as well as on social networks (Allen, 2006; Morrison, 2002), a difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers should theoretically be detected at each of these outcomes. Here, proactivity will be controlled for, in order to properly assess the organizational socialization strategy's specific contribution to newcomer adjustment (as per the interactionist perspective of newcomer socialization (Bauer et al., 2007; Griffin et al., 2000; Gruman et al., 2006)).

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are put forth to test the first objective:

- 1) There is a significant difference between SN and USN newcomers in terms of proximal outcomes of organizational socialization.
 - a) Controlling for proactivity, newcomers having been socialized by their organization ("socialized newcomers", SN) show levels of **learning of socialization content** (task, group, and organization) that are significantly higher than those of "unsocialized newcomers" (USN) (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Haueter et al., 2003; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Sonnentag, Niessen, & Ohly, 2004).
 - b) Controlling for proactivity, SN show levels of **role clarity** that are significantly higher than USN (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986; Saks et al., 2007)

- 2) There is a significant difference between SN and USN newcomers in terms of distal outcomes of organizational socialization.
 - a) Controlling for proactivity, SN show levels of **affective organizational commitment** that are significantly higher than USN (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986; Klein & Weaver, 2000).
 - b) Controlling for proactivity, SN show levels of **job satisfaction** that are significantly higher than USN (Chao et al., 1992; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986).
 - c) Controlling for proactivity, SN show levels of **intention to quit** that are significantly lower than USN (Allen, 2006; Bauer et al., 1998; Saks et al., 2007).

- 3) Controlling for proactivity, SN information network patterns will be significantly different from USN network patterns (Allen, 2006, Morrison, 2002a). This hypothesis also tests the first leg of Fang, Duffy, and Shaw's (2011) model.
 - a) SN networks will be significantly larger than USN networks (**size**).
 - b) SN networks will be significantly denser than USN networks (**density**).
 - c) SN network ties will be significantly closer than USN network ties (**strength**).
 - d) SN networks will be significantly wider in range than USN networks (**range**).
 - e) SN network status will be significantly higher than USN network **status**.

Objective 2

The second objective of this study is to verify the relationships between organizational socialization variables, and to explore whether and how these relationships differ depending on the newcomer group (socialized/unsocialized).

- 4) The relationship between proactive behaviors and all outcomes will be different for socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of:
 - a) Proximal outcomes (learning of socialization content and role clarity) (Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Saks et al., 2011)

- b) Distal outcomes (affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit) (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Morrison, 1993b; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller)
- c) Network characteristics (size, status, range, status, density) (Ibarra, 1993; Nelson & Quick, 1991; Thompson, 2005)

5) The relationship between proximal (learning and role clarity) and distal outcomes will be different for socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of:

- a) Affective organizational commitment (Bauer et al., 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002)
- b) Job satisfaction (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Haueter et al., 2003; Klein et al., 2008).
- c) Intention to quit (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Klein et al., 2008).

6) The relationship between network characteristics and proximal outcomes will be different for socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of:

- a) Learning of socialization content
- b) Role clarity

This final hypothesis will attempt to replicate Morrison’s (2002a) findings on information networks, which were variably related to organizational knowledge and task mastery (here assessed as learning of socialization content domains), and role clarity.

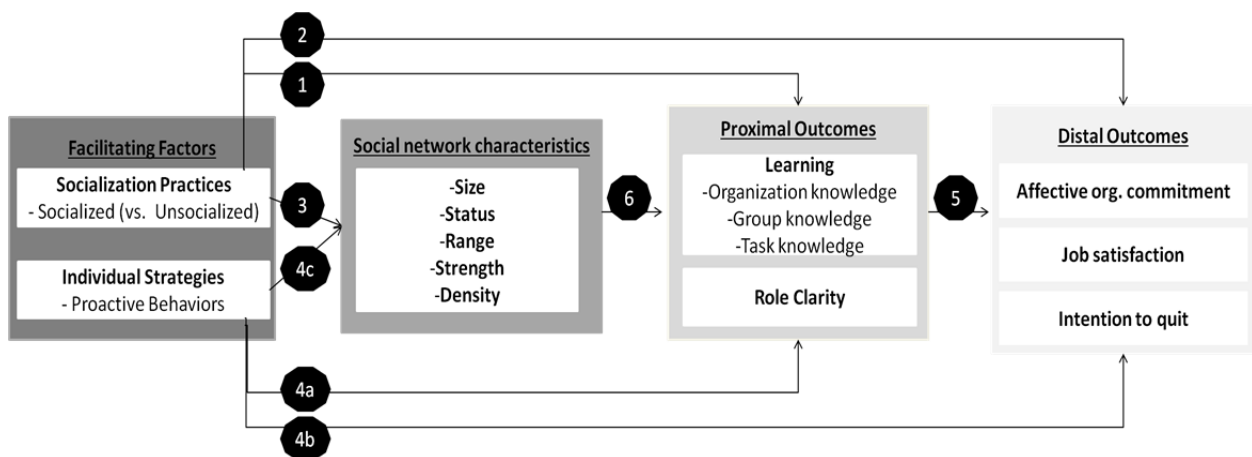


Figure 5. Model of hypothesized relationships between variables.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodology used to investigate the differences between socialized and unsocialized newcomers on proximal and distal outcomes, as well as social networks. Specifically, this chapter describes the details of pre-experimental ex-post-facto design considerations, participants, study procedure, and data collection materials.

3.1. Pre-experimental ex-post-facto design considerations

3.1.1. Independent variable: “Socialized” and “Unsocialized” newcomer groups

Once again, the main objective of this project is to compare new employees on the basis of the presence or absence of a socialization strategy, in a pre-experimental ex-post-facto field study. This requires a careful selection of the environments from which data will be collected. In order to determine which organizational sites would be used to recruit participants from the two comparison groups (socialized and unsocialized), feasibility of the project (given the organizational context, recruitment practices, size and potential for recruitment) was carefully assessed. The present study conducted a static group comparison, where two groups were compared, one having been exposed to a socialization program and one not, then evaluated on the basis of outcome variables (assuming that differences will be attributable to the program).

However, there are limited ways of knowing if the groups were equivalent *before* the program (Suchman, 1967). Comparative studies often encounter difficulties, given the non-randomized “control” groups that are used as a comparison. It is often difficult to identify a well-matched “control” group, though it will be safe to assume that, in this case, newcomers in either of the two groups used in this study will have similar “baselines” in terms of networks – that is, no or very few network contacts upon entry into the organization (Cook & Campbell,

1979). Regardless, “all non-equivalent group designs suffer from comparability problems to some extent” (Anderson & Ball, 1978, p.49).

This is why, in order to minimize potential threats to validity, great lengths were taken to ensure the highest possible equivalency between samples and sample environments.

Both socialized and unsocialized samples were provided by a single organization, *Transcontinental*, a large Quebecois multi-media company. This greatly eliminated differences in organizational variables such as culture, values, norms, policy, norms, mission, etc. Though it would seem rare for socialized and unsocialized newcomers to co-occur within the same organization, in this company, socialization of newcomers is left at the discretion of the manager of each department (this information was conveyed by the director of Human Resources). Specifically, the organization has official socialization practices for their newcomers. The department manager is given the *option* to apply them or not. Therefore, within the divisions of *Transcontinental*, certain departments put their newcomers through a socialization process, whereas others do not. This organizational socialization policy offered a unique opportunity to compare socialized newcomers to unsocialized ones, all the while maintaining important organizational variables stable (e.g., culture, norms, values, mission, etc).

In order to distinguish the two groups of newcomers (socialized versus unsocialized), participants were asked to respond to a question asking them directly whether or not they had been exposed to their company’s socialization program.

3.1.2. Socialization activities used in the organization studied

As previously mentioned, certain departments within the organization socialized their newcomers using specific activities. Information on these activities was collected upon the selection the participating organization, in a discussion with the HR advisor assigned to the study.

Upon entry, all new hires (the new hires of the week) would meet with Human Resources to discuss all aspects of their contract (pay, insurance, vacation, sick leave, etc.),

and would be presented a very general overview of the organizational structure (the organizational chart).

Department heads or managers were subsequently left to carry out the following socialization activities at their discretion:

1. A one-on-one meeting between the manager and the newcomer, the content of this meeting centering about details about the work, the team and the company.
2. One-on-one meetings between the newcomer and each member of his or her team (this meeting can be conducted formally at the office or at a lunch). The purpose of these meetings is simply to familiarize the newcomer with the people in his or her team, beyond that of simple first-day introductions.
3. A “Buddy System”, where the newcomer is paired with a more experienced member of the team (a colleague, not a supervisor) to provide ongoing support and guidance for day-to-day activities. This relationship has no formal guidelines or agenda of what must be learned, rather it is a general form of help provided to newcomers to familiarize them with the company’s inner workings.

These activities, though formally sanctioned by the organization, were more or less informally carried out by managers at their discretion. Therefore, newcomers could have passed through one, two, all three, or (in the case of “unsocialized” newcomers, none). Even the extent to which each activity was carried out could vary, for example, a newcomer might meet with some team members one-on-one but not others; even the buddy system could continue over shorter or longer periods of time.

In light of this description, the activities performed by the organization studied could arguably be categorized as individualized tactics, whereby newcomers are socialized in a less structured, and more sporadic and informal manner. That is, they are not socialized in a group following the same set of structured activities; rather, they are socialized by their manager who initiates them to the department, by their team who integrate them into the group, and by their “buddy” who provides them with tacit knowledge about their role. The more formal aspect of these activities is that they are known to the organization (HR is able to communicate what activities are performed in the organization, even if the extent of their execution is less structured and monitored).

3.1.3. Description of the pre-experimental ex-post-facto study design

The present study's design is known as "pre-experimental ex-post-facto", where there is no control exercised by the researcher over the independent variable. Pre-experimental studies include no true "control" group, that is, an equivalent non-treatment group, despite following basic experimental steps (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Therefore, this type of study does not satisfy the minimum conditions for causal inference, distinguishing it slightly from quasi-experimental designs, though this distinction is considered to be more semantic than fundamental (Boivin, Alain, & Pelletier, 2000).

An ex-post-facto design compares two groups of individuals with similar backgrounds who have been exposed to different conditions; here, the two conditions being compared are whether newcomers have been socialized or not. The measurement on the dependent variables of interest occurs *after* socialization (in the case of "socialized" newcomers), in order to determine whether differences exist between the two groups. Most importantly in ex-post-facto research is that there is no interference from researchers (no manipulation or measurement) before the fact. Technically, the groups compared are pre-existing, but are identified only after data is collected (post-test), based on participants' response to a group adherence question. There is no "treatment" performed, simply a membership to either groups determined based on whether or not individuals have participated in the organization-sanctioned socialization activities (Boivin et al., 2000; Kirk, 1982).

3.1.4. Threats to internal validity

Though different from quasi-experimental designs, pre-experimental studies still follow an experimental protocol that must be carefully chosen in order to maximize internal and external validity (minimize threats to invalidity), all the while maintaining a parsimonious research design.

The factors that can potentially jeopardize internal and external validity, as outlined by Campbell and Stanley (1963) are the following:

Internal threats to validity pertain to drawing correct conclusions that the independent variable (here, socialized newcomers vs. unsocialized) is indeed responsible for variations in the dependent variable (such as role clarity) (Kirk, 1982). Internal threats to validity include the following: history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, statistical regression, selection bias, experimental mortality, and selection-maturation interaction. *External threats to validity* are reactive or interaction effects of testing, that is, interaction effects of selection biases and the experimental variable, reactive effects of experimental arrangements, and multiple-treatment interference. Of these, only the following constituted potential threats in our study, and are therefore described in greater detail:

Internal

- History: events other than the treatment variable that influence the success of the intervention.
 - In our study this could refer to newcomers who already knew employees (network ties) within the organization. However, this is just as likely both SN and USN conditions. A question in the demographic section of the questionnaire was included to see if participants were previously working in the organization (and had thus simply changed jobs or roles). In our sample, 89.4% of participants reported that they were indeed newly hired employees, thereby minimizing this threat to internal validity.
- Maturation: psychological and biological processes that are a function of the passage of time itself rather than to the particular events being studied.
 - In our study, this was be controlled by narrowing the definition of ‘eligible’ newcomers to only include employees working in the organization for less than a year.
- Selection bias: the difference observed between treatment groups could be due to previous differences, particular characteristics of the selected groups, which happen to bias results in favor of the treatment.

- Given that the two groups were from the same organization, it is unlikely that the organization employs a certain type of employee that would be particularly attracted to the company based on their socialization policy.
- Selection-maturation interaction: difference between groups is a function of the organization's employees being different in terms of age, tenure, auto-selection, etc.
 - One option is to do *selective matching* (Suchman, 1967). However in our case, demographic characteristics were compared, and there were no significant differences on any of these characteristics (see Results for details).

External

- Reactive or Interaction effect of testing: the intervention could seem desirable to the control group and they could attempt to know the conditions
 - This is controlled by having the employees who were randomly assigned to either group by their respective departments (who decided whether to socialize or not).
- Reactive effects of experimental arrangements: make sure the treatment variable is not confounded by other variables.
 - In our study, proactivity is the variable most likely to affect the impact of organizational socialization practices on newcomers and was used as a control variable to avoid confounding results.

3.2. Participants

Recruitment was initiated by the principal researcher, in contact with Human Resources directors of two divisions within the organization, who approved the project. The logistics of the data collection phase of the project were coordinated by Human Resources advisors, such as sending invitations to qualifying new employees to participate, reserving a room on the date of data collection, etc.

A total of 138 new employees from the organization's corporate (Finance and IT) and Media divisions were originally contacted to participate in the study, as they were newcomers with less than 1 year of experience (in line with Bauer, Morrison, and Callister's (1998) time frame).

Participation in the project was entirely voluntary. Of those, 53 agreed to participate in the survey, with a total of 45 participants completing the survey in its entirety (32.61% response rate) overall. It is noteworthy to mention that according to Selltitz et al. (1976), for an invitation to complete a questionnaire sent to a sample of a population, the response rate generally falls between 10 and 50%. A sample size ranging from 30 to 100 participants is adequate for a comparative study such as this, as orientation programs are usually performed in group sessions that accommodate at around 12 individuals at a time (Lawson, 2006; Sims, 2002).

Of the 53 respondents, demographic characteristics were completed by 50 participants. Responding to our "socialization" verification, 52% responded accordingly to be placed in the "socialized" group (n = 26) and 48% were considered "unsocialized" (n = 24) as per the criteria listed in the previous section. For comparative purposes, this means that the socialized/unsocialized groups are nearly equal in size.

Participants' age ranged mostly between 21-30 years old (51.1%), followed by 31-40 years old (29.8%), then 41-50 (14.9%), and finally 51-60 (4.3%). About half held at least a bachelor's degree (51.1%), some held a graduate degree (21.3%), and others a collegial ("*Cégep*") degree (21.3%). All participants held full-time positions in the organization. Average tenure in the organization was six months. The sample was more or less equally divided between participants having been employed less than 6 months in the company (46.8%), and between 6 months and 1 year (53.2%).

Socialized and unsocialized groups showed no significant differences in terms of demographic characteristics (n= 50) (see Results section for details).

3.3. Procedure

Paper-and-pencil copies of the questionnaires were made available to participants through the Human Resources departments, to be filled out under supervision of the researcher

at a time of convenience. The questionnaire was accompanied by a brief description of the purposes of the study, as well as a consent form to be filled out by participants before commencing the survey, in order to ensure that confidentiality and ethics requirements are met (see Appendix A).

Human Resources contacted the organization's new employees (tenure of maximum 1 year) and invited them to participate in the study, which would take place on a given date. A conference room was reserved for 2 hours and participants could come during this window of time and complete the 20-40 minute survey as their schedule permitted. A one-time paper-and-pencil assessment, completed on location was the method recommended, as Morrison's (2002a) network analysis chart posed potential confusion. Of the 138 persons contacted, 30 arrived on the scheduled date to complete the survey in its entirety (21.7% response rate).

Recruitment using this methodology proved successful, though for those newcomers who were not able to attend the on-place assessment, an online version of the questionnaire was made available through the survey website www.surveymonkey.com. Of these 108 newcomers not able to attend the in-house assessment, 23 participated and 15 completed the online survey in its entirety (13.89% response rate).

The two methods produced different response rates. It is noteworthy to mention that the persons contacted for the second (online) round included those who had declined to attend the assessment the first time. While one reason for not responding the first time could have been an unavailability to attend on the scheduled date, another reason could have been that they were simply not interested in participating in the study. Their lack of response to the online questionnaire would therefore not be unexpected.

3.4. Materials

In the case of three measures used in our study (Proactive Behaviors, the NSQ, and Intention to Quit), French-language versions were created and reviewed by bilingual experts using the double-translation (or back translation) method (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Following this, a preliminary testing of items was conducted on an independent sample of

subjects to ensure these translated versions constituted sound measures for our study (see Appendix B for results).

3.4.1. Proactive Behaviours

Proactive behaviours were assessed according to Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) three-components: sense making (which comprises information seeking behaviours as well as feedback seeking behaviours), relationship building, and positive framing. The reasons behind this choice are that these behaviours best represents newcomer proactivity (during organizational entry), as outlined in the literature review.

Information seeking was assessed using 8 items developed by Major and Kozlowski (1997), where participants were asked to respond in terms of how frequently they had initiated interactions with coworkers or supervisors on a variety of job-related topics (e.g. "how to handle problems on the job" and "procedures for the completion of work"). Four items for feedback seeking, three items for relationship building, as well as three items for positive framing were all taken from Ashford and Black's (1996) scale, with adapted versions of some items taken from Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) that are more appropriate for the context. Participants were asked to rate to what extent they engage in the behaviours listed. All items were on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very infrequently) to 5 (very frequently), and alpha coefficients range from .73 to .87 in Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) version and from .82 to .92 in Ashford and Black's (1996) original conception, supporting the psychometric properties of these scales.

Given that the sample was French-speaking, French versions of proactive behaviour items were created and reviewed by bilingual experts using the double-translation (or back translation) method (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). A preliminary testing of items was conducted on an independent sample of 54 subjects to assess the validity of the questionnaire, and showed satisfactory internal consistencies ranging from .84 to .87, across behaviors (see Appendix C for French items).

Alpha coefficient for the French translation of Major and Kozlowski's (1997) information seeking scale was .88 in our final sample, supporting its usage. Alphas for the

feedback-seeking, relationship building and positive framing scales (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) in our sample were .84, .76, and .77, respectively, supporting the psychometric properties of these scales.

3.4.2. Mastery of socialization content

In order to effectively assess the degree to which newcomers have acquired and integrated information pertaining to their organization's values and goals, their colleagues, as well as their task, a French-language translation of the Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire (NSQ) was used (Haueter et al., 2003). This 35-item scale measured three content dimensions of newcomer socialization: organization (12 items; e.g., "I understand how my job contributes to the larger organization"), group (12 items; e.g., "When working as a group, I know how to perform tasks according to the group's standards"), and job/task (11 items; e.g., "I know which job tasks and responsibilities have priority"). Items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This scale was chosen over others, particularly Chao et al.'s (1994) widely used content dimensions of socialization scale. Though popular, this scale has come under scrutiny for researchers' failure to reproduce the six dimensions supposedly measured by the scale (Bauer et al., 1998; Bourhis, 2004), as well as items being less formulated to measure *learning* of content domains (Perrot, 2009). Moreover, several items of Chao's scale are formulated to capture job performance, rather than task socialization specifically (Haueter et al., 2003). Therefore, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the NSQ are .88, .92, and .89 for organization, group, and task socialization, respectively.

A preliminary testing of the French-language version of the NSQ was conducted on an independent sample of 54 subjects to assess the validity of the questionnaire. The factorial structure of this French version was verified and showed a satisfactory 3-factor structure corresponding to the English version. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the French-language translation of the NSQ were .94, .91, and .95 for organization, group, and task socialization, respectively (see Appendix D for French items).

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the French version of the Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire (NSQ) (Haueter et al., 2003) were .91 for organizational socialization, .95 for group socialization, and .91 for individual socialization in our final sample. Overall reliability for socialization content mastery was .96.

3.4.3. Role conflict and ambiguity

One of the central and most proximal outcomes of organizational socialization remains the newcomer's understanding of his or her new organizational role. In the present study, a French-language adaptation of Rizzo and colleagues' (1970) Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scales was used (Lachance, Tétreau, & Pépin, 1997). The scale comprises 8 items that assessed role conflict (in French, "*On m'attribue une tâche sans les ressources et le matériel adéquats pour l'exécuter*"), and 6 items for role ambiguity (in French, "*Mes responsabilités sont clairement définies*"). Alpha coefficients for this French adaptation were .79 for role ambiguity and .77 for role conflict (see Appendix E for items).

Our final sample showed Cronbach's alpha coefficients at .74 for role conflict and .90 for role ambiguity in the French translation of House and Rizzo's (1970) measure, which are considered good. Alpha for overall role clarity was .79 which is perfectly acceptable.

3.4.4. Affective Commitment

The items measuring affective commitment of participants were taken from the French-language adaptation by Lemire and Saba (1997) of Allen and Meyer's (1990) questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Scale. This scale was chosen, as it takes into account the multidimensionality of the concept of organizational commitment and has shown consistent validity in the multitude of studies in which it has been used (Meyer et al., 2002). Participants responded to 8 items measuring the affective commitment dimension on a 7-point Likert scale (in the French version, 1 = "*tout à fait en désaccord*"; 7 = "*tout à fait en accord*"). For each of the items, participants were asked to rate their level of agreement (for example, in French, "*Cette organisation revêt pour moi un sens très particulier*") (see Appendix F for all items). The French-version items pertaining to affective commitment have a perfectly

adequate internal consistency of $\alpha = .84$ and thus constitute an appropriate choice for assessment.

The French-version items pertaining to affective commitment have a perfectly adequate internal consistency of $\alpha = .80$ in our sample.

3.4.5. Job Satisfaction

The “*Échelle de satisfaction globale au travail*” (ESGT), was used to measure global job satisfaction of the participants (Blais, Lachance, Forget, Richer, & Dulude, 1991). It is a 4-item scale pertaining to overall satisfaction one’s job (for example, “*Jusqu’à maintenant, j’ai obtenu les choses importantes que je voulais retirer de mon travail*”, and participants were asked to respond in terms of their level of agreement with each statement. The items was on a 7-point Likert scale (in French: 1 = “*fortement en désaccord*”; 7 = “*fortement en accord*”). This questionnaire was chosen over others (such as the Job Diagnostics Survey from Hackman and Oldham (1975), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) of Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967), or the “*Inventaire de satisfaction au travail*” of Larouche (1972)), as these scales tended to be lengthy, as well as easily affected by various other contextual factors (such as psychological health, P-O fit, etc.). Moreover, these items manage to be parsimonious yet thorough, more so than single-item measures of job satisfaction so often used in socialization research (e.g., Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). A mean score is computed from the ESGT items, and Cronbach’s alpha for this measure is .76 (see Appendix F)

3.4.6. Intention to quit

The measure used to evaluate participants’ intention to leave the organization was a three-item scale developed by Arnold and Feldman (1982) in their study on factors related to turnover. Participants were asked to respond in terms of the degree to which the items reflect their attitudes towards the organization. The scale was translated into French for this study (for example, “*Je serai prêt à accepter un emploi dans une autre entreprise*”), with the three items

placed on a 7-point Likert scale of agreement (in French, 1= “*tout à fait en désaccord*”; 7= “*tout à fait en accord*”), with Cronbach’s alpha at .70 (see Appendix F).

Cronbach’s alpha for the French-language version, pre-tested on an independent sample of 54 subjects, was .91. In our final sample, alpha coefficient was at .88 on intention to quit items.

3.4.7. Information Network Characteristics

Newcomers’ egocentric information network structures were assessed using the method elaborated by Morrison (2002a), which is similar to the “name generator” method of social network testing (Lin, 1999). This method employs a chart where participants were asked to write the initials of up to eight people in the company who have been regular and valuable sources of job-related or company-related information (for French instructions, see Appendix G). This gives an indication of the participant’s network *size*. Participants (‘ego’) are then asked to respond to a set of questions for each of the people listed (‘alters’). The first question assesses the ego’s network *status* characteristics, in terms of each alter’s hierarchical position (1 = ego’s employee or employee at a lower level than ego; 2 = employee at same level as ego; 3 = ego’s hierarchical superior; 4 = other manager/employee at a higher level than ego). Overall network *status* is calculated by the average hierarchical position according to the network size (Ibarra, 1995). The second question indicates the *range* of the ego’s network, by having participants indicate the department or industry group within which each alter works; *range* is thereby calculated in terms of the total number of department or industry groups indicated (e.g., if an ego lists 6 alters who are all from the same department, *range* is 1) (Morrison, 2002a). The average frequency at which participants exchanged information with each alter (1 = daily, 2 = a few times a week, 3 = 3-5 times a month, 4 = once or twice a month, 5 = less than once a month) indicates the *strength* of these ties, and is again calculated as an average in terms of network size (Morrison, 2002a). And finally, the ego is asked to indicate the number of other persons in the network with whom each alter interacts during any given week, in order to assess the network *density*. The *density* score is an average of the number of links between members of the network (excluding the ego) relative to the total number of possible links (network size) (Morrison, 2002a).

Once more, given that the sample will be French-speaking, a French version of Morrison's (2002a) chart was created (see Appendix G).

It is noteworthy to mention that all questionnaires were adapted to include some jargon and terminology that would be more suitable to the sample at this company. For instance, terms like "my work group" were changed to "my work team", and the word "supervisor" was changed to "manager".

3.4.8. Sociodemographic information

In addition to the measures outlined above, demographic information was collected pertaining to participants' age, sex, level of education, tenure, etc. (see Appendix H).

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter presents the results of the different analyses carried out to investigate the differences between socialized and unsocialized newcomers. Specifically, the chapter details the findings as they relate to each of the two study objectives:

1. Whether differences exist between newcomer groups in terms of proximal outcomes, distal outcomes, and social network characteristics.
2. Whether the socialization process (relationships between variables) differs for each of the two newcomer groups.

4.1. Preliminary analyses

4.1.1. Analysis of sociodemographic data

Preliminary analyses of sociodemographic data was conducted in order to determine if the two groups (socialized and unsocialized) were comparable.

Descriptive statistics were collected on participants and a verification of the equivalence between both groups was conducted. As previously mentioned, a total of 53 recently hired employees participated in the study. Of these, 50 responded to the treatment question, whereby 26 were “socialized” (experimental group) and 24 fell into the “unsocialized” or comparison group. This variable will henceforth be labelled “newcomer group” (socialized/unsocialized groups). As previously described, since socialization was left to the discretion of each department, placement into each group was *random*. Still, it is important to verify that there are no sociodemographic characteristics that could account for differences between groups.

A Chi-square test for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated no significant association between socialization and gender, $\chi^2(1, n = 47) = .43, p = .37, \phi = .16$. Three separate Fischer’s Exact Probability tests were conducted to determine if there were associations between socialization and age, level of education, and tenure, as these variables had over 20% of cells with an expected count less than 5, and all had designs larger than 2 x 2, thus not meeting the criteria for a Chi-square test. Socialization groups showed no significant

differences in terms of age ($p = .65$, FET, 2-tailed), level of education ($p = .94$, FET, 2-tailed), and tenure ($p = 1.00$, FET, 2-tailed).

This demographic data is of particular importance to the comparative nature of this study, where the variance across groups needs to be taken into careful consideration for inferences to be drawn. Fortunately, there were no differences in the demographic information that could influence interpretations drawn from the data.

4.1.2. Description of network characteristics

Participants filled out a grid assessing the characteristics of their egocentric information networks (closely adapted from Morrison (2002a)). Means and standard deviations for each of the characteristics, namely network size, status, range, strength and density, are presented in Table I and described below.

Table II.

Description of network characteristics.

	<u>Unsocialized Newcomers</u>		<u>Socialized Newcomers</u>		<u>Both Groups</u>	
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Size	5.48	2.02	5.25	2.29	5.36	2.14
Status	2.60	.41	2.70	.45	2.65	.43
Range	1.96	1.26	2.00	1.06	1.98	1.15
Strength	1.73	.63	1.76	.54	1.74	.58
Density	3.97	1.87	3.95	2.25	3.96	2.05

The information networks present in the organization studied here are rather large in size: newcomers reported an average of over 5 people with whom they interact regularly. These contacts are generally colleagues holding a similar hierarchical position as them (status of 2) or their immediate supervisor (status of 3). The scope of newcomer networks does not extend much beyond their immediate work group – on average to one or two other departments (range (1-2)) in the organization. These are close ties, in that there is frequent,

almost daily interaction with these individuals (strength of 2). Finally, these information networks are reasonably dense, in that the contacts within each newcomer's network tend to know each other as well (density of 4 *vis-à-vis* size of 5.5).

4.1.3. Statistical design

The comparative nature of this study has newcomers placed in two independent groups: "socialized" and "unsocialized". As per the organization's practices, socialization practices are structured and organized by the company, but are left to the discretion of each department's manager to carry out, or not carry out. As such, newcomers may not have been formally socialized at all. Thus, newcomers' response to the question reflecting this socialized/unsocialized condition in the questionnaire placed them in either group.

Mean scores of outcome variables were computed (information network size, status, range, strength and density, mastery of socialization content (NSQ), role clarity, affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit). All dependent variables and covariates were continuous.

4.2. Verification of hypotheses

4.2.1. Objective 1

The first objective was to determine whether newcomer groups differ in terms of proximal socialization outcomes, distal socialization outcomes, and network characteristics.

Hypothesis 1

According to the first hypothesis, it is predicted that socialized newcomers would report higher levels on proximal outcomes of the OS process.

Specifically, it was predicted that SN newcomers would report higher levels of a) learning of socialization content and b) role clarity than unsocialized newcomers, controlling for proactive behaviors.

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of covariance was conducted to compare socialized and unsocialized newcomers on learning of socialization content, as measured by the NSQ, and role clarity, as measured by Rizzo et al.'s scale (1970). The

independent variable was the newcomer group (socialized, unsocialized). Following multiple regressions of the four proactive behaviors on proximal outcomes, only positive framing showed a significant contribution, and was thus used as a covariate (see Table II).

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions for conducting a MANCOVA. Results of evaluation of the assumption of normality of sampling distribution led to the transformation of Positive Framing (reverse log). Univariate and multivariate normality of the dependent variables were assessed and showed no violations. (Maximum value Mahalanobis Distance for both dependent variables did not exceed the critical value of 13.82). Neither univariate nor multivariate outliers were found. Results of the evaluation of the assumptions of linearity and homogeneity of variance ($M_{\text{Box}} = 2.53$, $F(3530484.25) = .81$, $p = .49$) were satisfactory. Multicollinearity was determined by the correlation among dependent variables, which should not exceed .70 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Here it was .48, which is acceptable (see Table III). Levene's tests of equality of error variances were also tested and non-significant. There was no significant difference between the newcomer groups (socialized, unsocialized) on the covariate Positive Framing, $F(1, 49) = .05$, $p = .82$, making this an acceptable variable for the analysis. Homogeneity of regression slopes for Positive Framing with the NSQ was tested and was not significant: $F = .68$, $p > .05$. The same was done for Positive framing with Role Clarity and was non-significant, $F = 1.23$, $p > .05$. Reliable measurement of the covariate was also assessed, and showed no violations.

The results from the MANCOVA revealed that the multivariate test for the covariate of Positive Framing was significant ($F(2, 46) = 16.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .42$) and accounted for 42.1% of the variance in proximal outcomes. Higher positive framing scores were associated with higher reported learning of socialization content and role clarity. The univariate tests, with Bonferroni correction setting the α at .025 (.05/2), showed that positive framing (reverse log) was a significant predictor of learning of socialization content, $(1, 47) = 33.91$, $p < .001$, as well as of role clarity $F(1, 47) = 5.70$, $p < .025$.

A main effect was found for socialization groups. There was a statistically significant difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers on the combined dependent variables, $F(2, 46) = 7.04$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .23$, controlling for Positive Framing. This explained 23.4% of the variance of proximal socialization outcomes. With Bonferroni correction setting

the α at .025 (.05/2), the univariate tests showed that there was a statistically significant difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers on NSQ scores (mastery of socialization content), $F(1, 47) = 14.35, p < .001$. Specifically, socialized newcomers reported higher levels of socialization content mastery than unsocialized newcomers, controlling for Positive Framing (see Table IV).

Hypothesis 1a) is confirmed. Controlling for proactive behaviors, there is a significant difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of socialization content mastery, whereby socialized newcomers report more knowledge on organization, group and task domains than unsocialized newcomers. Hypothesis 1b) is not confirmed; there is no significant difference in role clarity observed between socialized and unsocialized newcomers. Overall, Hypothesis 1 is only partially supported.

Table III.*Multiple regression analyses for proactive behaviors as covariates predicting all outcomes*

Predictors	NSQ	Role Clarity	Affective Comm.	Job Sat.	Int. to Quit	NW Size (tr)	NW Status	NW Range (tr)	NW Strength	NW Density
Information Seeking	.10	-.04	.16	.08.	-.13	-.33	.14	-.19	-.40*	.10
Feedback Seeking	-.13	.12	.09	.25	-.13	.28	-.11	.27	.16	.17
Relationship Building	.21	.00	.13	-.03	.10	-.19	.08	.45**	-.19	-.45**
Positive Framing (tr)	-.54**	-.30	-.25	-.31	.19	.02	.11	.23	-.25	.00
R^2	.42	.12	.18	.21	.09	.16	.03	.27	.18	.19
F	8.04**	1.61	2.64*	3.15*	1.13	1.95	.34	3.83*	2.36	2.32

Note. Bonferonni sets α at .012. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Values in the table are standardized β coefficients (tr): Variables that were transformed following normality evaluations

Table IV.*Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations between dependant variables*

Measure	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. NSQ	5.57	.84	-	.48*								
2. Role Clarity	4.96	.68		-								
3. Affective Org. Com.	4.50	.84			-	.44**	.52**					
4. Job Satisfaction	5.08	1.02				-	.49**					
5. Intention to quit	3.28	1.54					-					
6. Network Size (tr)	.69	1.99						-	-.25	.38**	.28	.68**
7. Network Status	2.65	.43							-	-.09	.21	-.21
8. Network Range (tr)	1.35	.38								-	.01	-.02
9. Network Strength	1.74	.58									-	.03
10. Network Density	3.96	2.05										-

Note. N=50 ** Correlations are significant at the p <.01 level (bilateral) *Correlations are significant at the p <.05 level (bilateral)
(tr): Variables that were transformed following normality evaluations

Table V.

MANCOVA results and descriptive statistics for proximal socialization outcomes and positive framing Scores

	Newcomer group	Observed Mean	Adjusted Mean	SD	n
NSQ	Unsocialized	5.22	5.23	.89	24
	Socialized	5.90	5.89	.67	26
Role Clarity	Unsocialized	4.82	4.82	.77	24
	Socialized	5.10	5.09	.62	26
Source of Variance	DV	SS	df	MS	Univariate F
Positive Framing (tr)	NSQ ^a	12.27	1	12.27	33.91**
	Role Clarity ^b	2.53	1	2.53	5.70*
Newcomer Group	NSQ	5.20	1	5.20	14.35**
	Role Clarity	.87	1	.87	1.96
Error	NSQ	17.01	47	.36	
	Role Clarity	20.85	47	.44	

Note. **p < .01 *p < .05

^a R² = .51, Adj. R² = .49.

^b R² = .14, Adj. R² = .11.

Hypothesis 2

It was predicted that SN and USN newcomers would differ in terms of distal outcomes of organizational socialization.

Specifically, it is predicted that socialized newcomers would report a difference in distal outcomes of the OS process, that is, a) higher affective organizational commitment, b) higher job satisfaction, and c) lower intention to quit, than unsocialized newcomers.

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to compare newcomer groups on distal outcomes. The independent variable was the newcomer group (socialized, unsocialized), and the three dependant variables consisted of affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. Of the four proactive behaviors measured, none presented a significant enough contribution to the dependent

variables to be considered as a covariate, as per the multiple regression analyses (see Table II). Therefore, a MANOVA rather than a MANCOVA was appropriate.

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions for a MANOVA. First, sample size per cell must be greater than 20, which is respected as the lowest here is an n of 24 for unsocialized newcomers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Univariate and multivariate normality, linearity, and homogeneity of regression are all respected. To ensure that there are no violations of multicollinearity, the highest correlation among dependent variables should be below .70. Here it was .51, perfectly adequate according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) (see Table III). Homogeneity of variance-covariance was also tested and respected ($M_{\text{Box}} = 6.47$, $F(616387.34) = 1.00$, $p = .42$). Levene's tests of equality of error variances were also tested and non-significant.

There was no significant difference between socialized and unsocialized groups in terms of distal socialization outcomes, $F(3, 46) = .93$, $p = .43$ (see Table V).

Hypothesis 2 is not confirmed. Socialized newcomers do not significantly differ from unsocialized newcomers in terms of affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit.

Table VI.

MANOVA results and descriptive statistics for distal socialization outcomes

		Observed Mean	Adjusted Mean	SD	n
Affective Comm.	Unsocialized	4.33	4.34	.81	24
	Socialized	4.65	4.64	.91	26
Job satisfaction	Unsocialized	4.92	4.93	1.16	24
	Socialized	5.23	5.21	.95	26
Intention to quit	Unsocialized	3.26	3.25	1.43	24
	Socialized	3.29	3.30	1.75	26
Source of Variance	DV	SS	df	MS	Univariate F
Newcomer Group	Affective Comm.	1.26	1	1.26	1.68
	Job Satisfaction	1.15	1	1.15	1.03

	Intention to quit	.01	1	.01	.00
Error	Affective Comm.	35.90	48		
	Job Satisfaction	53.58	48		
	Intention to quit	123.64	48		

Note. **p < .01 *p < .05

^a R² = .03, Adj. R² = .01.

^b R² = .02, Adj. R² = .00.

^c R² = .00, Adj. R² = .02.

Hypothesis 3

It was hypothesized that, controlling for proactivity, SN information network characteristics would differ significantly from USN network characteristics (size, status, range, strength, and density).

The network pattern characteristics were not meaningfully related to each other (see Table III). Therefore, five separate analyses were conducted for each of the network characteristics (size, status, range, strength, and density), with the independent variable being socialized and unsocialized newcomers. To minimize Type II error, Bonferroni correction set the α significance level at $\alpha \leq .01$ (.05/5). Normality verification led to a reverse log transformation of network size scores, as well as a square root transformation of network range scores, with no violations of the respective tests of homogeneity of variances found. Only network range required the covariate relationship building to be controlled for, following the preliminary multiple regression analyses (see Table II).

An ANOVA tested the difference between network size in terms of newcomer group and yielded a non-significant result, $F(1, 46) = .37, p = .55$ (see Table VI).

An ANOVA tested the difference between network status in terms of newcomer group and yielded a non-significant result, $F(1, 46) = .64, p = .43$ (see Table VI).

An ANCOVA was performed to test if there was a difference in network range in terms of newcomer group, controlling for Relationship Building. There was no significant difference between the newcomer groups (socialized, unsocialized) on the covariate Relationship Building ($F(1, 49) = .28, p = .60$). Homogeneity of regression slopes for Relationship Building on network range was tested and was not significant ($F = .15, p > .05$). The ANCOVA that tested the difference between network range in terms of newcomer group,

controlling for Relationship Building, was non-significant, $F(1, 46) = .01$, $p = .94$. The covariate Relationship Building was significantly associated with Network Range, $F(1, 46) = 7.99$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .15$ (see Table VII).

An ANOVA tested the difference between network strength in terms of newcomer group and yielded a non-significant result, $F(1, 46) = .03$, $p = .87$ (see Table VI).

An ANOVA tested the difference between network density in terms of newcomer group and yielded a non-significant result, $F(1, 44) = .00$, $p = .98$ (see Table VI).

Hypothesis 3 is not confirmed. There were no significant differences in any of the information network characteristics between socialized and unsocialized newcomers, controlling for proactive behaviors.

Table VII.

Results from four separate one-way analyses of variance comparing newcomer groups in terms of network size, status, strength, and density

Dependent Variable	Newcomer Group				F	η^2
	Unsocialized		Socialized			
	n = 23		n = 24			
	M	SD	M	SD		
Network size (tr)	.71	.17	.67	.22	.37	.01
Network status	2.60	.41	2.70	.45	.64	.01
Network strength	1.73	.63	1.76	.54	.03	.00
Network density ¹	3.97	1.87	3.95	2.05	.00	00

¹For density: n unsocialized = 22; n socialized = 23.

Table VIII.

Results from one-way analysis of covariance comparing newcomer groups in terms of network range, controlling for relationship building

Source of Variance	Adjusted SS	Df	MS	F
Relationship Building	1.03	1	1.03	7.99**
Newcomer Group	.00	1	.00	.01

Error 5.68 44 .13

Note. $R^2 = .15$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .12$)

4.2.2. Objective 2

The second objective of this study was to explore the socialization process for each of the two newcomer groups. More specifically, the relationships between variables were examined in order to determine whether there were differences depending on newcomer group (socialized/unsocialized).

In order to test this objective, correlation coefficients between the groups of variables were obtained and subsequently compared in order to determine whether there were any significant differences between them (see Table VIII below).

Table IX.

Zero-order correlation coefficients between variables by newcomer group

		Information Seeking	Feedback Seeking	Relationship Building	Positive Fr. (tr)	NSQ (tr)	Role Clarity
Unsocialized	NW size (tr)	-.62**	.01	-.03	.02	.38	.05
	NW Status	.08	-.45*	.04	.30	-.31	-.17
	NW Range (tr)	-.36	.30	.36	.03	.24	.35
	NW Strength	-.55**	-.17	-.11	-.23	.35	.16
	NW Density	-.09	.04	-.37	.17	.20	-.18
	NSQ (tr)	-.31	.11	.08	-.19	-	-
	Role Clarity	.01	.16	.11	-.40	.24	-
	Affective Comm.	.01	.13	.36	-.60**	.20	.47*

	Job Satisfaction	.16	.31	.18	-.65**	.19	.69**
	Intention to Quit	-.14	-.21	-.04	.55*	-.34	-.26
Socialized	NW Size (tr)	-.06	.18	-.32	.16	-.07	-.28
	NW Status	.09	.14	.00	-.10	-.17	.35
	NW Range (tr)	.15	.20	.44*	.04	-.17	-.33
	NW Strength	-.12	.18	-.13	-.01	-.19	-.01
	NW Density	.13	.11	-.40	.05	.03	-.19
	NSQ (tr)	-.33	-.26	-.24	.30	-	-
	Role Clarity	.09	.20	.12	-.26	-.23	-
	Affective Comm.	.43*	.29	.18	-.13	-.39*	.37
	Job Satisfaction	.27	.38	.10	-.07	-.42*	.24
	Intention to Quit	-.22	-.18	.00	-.04	.39*	-.43*

Note. ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$; (tr): variables were transformed following evaluation of normality.

Assumptions for this statistical analysis technique must be respected. The two groups were obtained from random independent samples, and the distribution of variables for the two groups are normal (following reverse log transformation of positive framing, NSQ scores, and network size, and a square root transformation of network range). Moreover, it is necessary to have at least 20 cases in each group (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), which is the case here (lowest $n = 22$) (see table IX).

Table X.

Descriptive statistics of proactive behaviors, network characteristics, proximal and distal outcomes by newcomer group

Variables	Unsocialized			Socialized		
	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Information Seeking	3.68	.62	24	3.63	.81	26
Feedback Seeking	3.07	.69	24	3.15	.95	26
Relationship Building	2.87	.91	24	3.00	.77	26
Positive Framing (tr)	.30	.14	24	.30	.15	26
NW size (tr)	.71	.17	23	.67	.22	24
NW Status	2.60	.41	23	2.70	.45	24
NW Range (tr)	1.34	.41	23	1.37	.36	24
NW Strength	1.73	.63	23	1.76	.54	24
NW Density	3.97	1.89	22	3.95	2.26	23
NSQ (tr)	.43	.13	22	.31	.13	26
Role Clarity	4.82	.77	24	5.10	.62	26
Affective Comm.	4.33	.81	24	4.65	.91	26
Job Satisfaction	4.92	1.16	24	5.23	.95	26
Intention to Quit	3.26	1.43	24	3.29	1.75	26

Note. (tr): variables were transformed following evaluation of normality.

First, *r* values were converted into a standard score form (here, *z* scores) (Edwards, 1967), then the observed value of *z* (*z*_{obs} value) was calculated using the following equation:

$$z_{\text{obs}} = \frac{z_1 - z_2}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{N_1 - 3} + \frac{1}{N_2 - 3}}}$$

If $-1.96 < z_{\text{obs}} < 1.96$, then the correlation coefficients are *not* statistically significantly different. Conversely, if *z*_{obs} is less than or equal to -1.96 or if *z*_{obs} is greater than or equal to 1.96, the correlation coefficients are statistically significantly different.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis of the study, and first of this objective, was to determine whether there existed a difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of the relationship between proactive behaviors and outcome variables (specifically, a) network characteristics, b) proximal outcomes, and c) distal outcomes).

Any Pearson correlation coefficients that were significant were compared between groups (see Table VIII).

First, there was a statistically significant difference between correlation coefficients of newcomer groups for the relationship between Proactive Information Seeking and Network Size (reverse log transformed) (z_{obs} value = -2.32). Unsocialized newcomers showed a strong statistically significant relationship between information seeking and network size ($r = -.62$, $n = 23$, $p < .01$), whereas socialized newcomers showed none ($r = -.06$, $n = 24$, $p > .05$), and the difference between the two was substantial (see Table X).

A similar trend was found between Proactive Feedback Seeking and Network Status, whereby the relationship between these variables is significant and reasonably strong for unsocialized newcomers ($r = -.45$, $n = 23$, $p < .01$), but non-significant for socialized newcomers ($r = .14$, $n = 24$, $p > .05$), a difference in correlation coefficients that is significant (z_{obs} value = -2.14). Moreover, the relationship between the variables goes from negative to positive, for unsocialized and socialized newcomers, respectively (see Table X).

Finally, the pattern of results repeats itself for the relationship between Proactive Positive Framing (reverse log transformed) and Job Satisfaction (z_{obs} value = -2.42), whereby the relationship is strongly significant for unsocialized newcomers ($r = -.65$, $n = 24$, $p < .01$), but non-significant for socialized newcomers ($r = -.07$, $n = 26$, $p > .05$). The same holds true for the relationship between Positive Framing and Intention to quit (z_{obs} value = 2.49), that is, the relationship is significant and large for unsocialized newcomers ($r = .55$, $n = 24$, $p < .01$), but

non-significant for socialized newcomers ($r = -.04, n = 26, p > .05$), with the direction of the relationship changing from positive to negative (see Table X).

Hypothesis 4a) is partially supported. Proactive Information Seeking and Feedback Seeking Behaviors are differentially related to Network Size and Network Status, respectively, depending on newcomer group.

Hypothesis 4b) is not confirmed. The relationship between Proactive Behaviors and Proximal Outcomes does not differ in terms of newcomer group.

Hypothesis 4c) is partially supported. Proactive Positive Framing is differentially related to Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit, depending on newcomer group.

Table XI.

Differences between correlation coefficients between proactive behaviors and all outcome variables

Proactive Behaviors with All Outcome Variables		Newcomer Group		Z _{obs} value
		Unsocialized	Socialized	
Information Seeking	Network Size (tr)	r = -.616**	r = -.063	<u>-2.322</u>
		n = 23	n = 24	
		z = -.750	z = -.065	
	Network Strength	r = -.555*	r = -.118	-1.712
		n = 23	n = 24	
		z = -.626	z = -.121	
NSQ (tr)	r = .033	r = .413*	-1.420	
	n = 24	n = 26		
	z = .035	z = .442		
Feedback Seeking	Network Status	r = -.454*	r = .142	<u>-2.142</u>
		n = 23	n = 24	
		z = -.491	z = .141	
Relationship Building	Network Range (tr)	r = .358	r = .438*	-.322
		n = 23	n = 24	
		z = .377	z = .472	
	NSQ (tr)	r = .310	r = .512**	-.844
		n = 24	n = 26	
		z = .321	z = .563	
Positive Framing (tr)	NSQ (tr)	r = -.670**	r = -.641**	-1.185
		n = 24	n = 26	
		z = -.811	z = -.758	
	Affective	r = -.605**	r = -.135	-1.915
		n = 24	n = 26	
		z = -.811	z = -.135	

Commitment	n = 24	n = 26	
	z = -.701	z = -.136	
Job Satisfaction	r = -.654**	r = -.070	<u>-2.420</u>
	n = 24	n = 26	
Intention to Quit	z = -.784	z = -.070	
	r = .548**	r = -.036	<u>2.495</u>
	n = 24	n = 26	
	z = .700	z = -.036	

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

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis of the study was to determine whether there was a difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of the relationship between a) Learning of socialization content and distal socialization outcome variables, and between b) Role clarity and distal outcomes.

Any Pearson correlation coefficients that were significant were compared between groups (see Table VIII). NSQ scores (reverse log transformed) were statistically significantly related to each of the distal outcomes for *socialized* newcomers, but not for unsocialized newcomers. The differences between correlation coefficients for each of these relationships were statistically significant.

First, there is a statistically significant difference between correlation coefficients of newcomer groups for the relationship between NSQ and affective commitment (z_{obs} value = 2.08). Socialized newcomers show a moderately statistically significant relationship between information seeking and affective commitment ($r = -.39$, $n = 26$, $p < .05$), whereas unsocialized newcomers do not ($r = .20$, $n = 22$, $p > .05$), and the difference between the two is substantial. Moreover, the direction of the relationship changes from negative to positive, from socialized to unsocialized (see Table XI).

The same trend is seen between NSQ and job satisfaction scores (z_{obs} value = 2.19), whereby socialized newcomers show a significant moderately relationship between these variables ($r = -.42$, $n = 26$, $p < .05$), but unsocialized newcomers do not ($r = .19$, $n = 22$, $p > .05$), with a change in the relationship direction once again (see Table XI).

Finally, this pattern is again found between NSQ and Intention to Quit scores (z_{obs} value = -3.75). Socialized newcomers show a statistically significant relationship between these variables ($r = .39, n = 26, p < .05$), but unsocialized newcomers do not ($r = -.34, n = 22, p > .05$). The sign of this relationship changes between newcomer group (see Table XI).

There was a statistically significant difference between correlation coefficients of newcomer groups for the relationship between Role Clarity and Job Satisfaction (z_{obs} value = 2.14), though here it is unsocialized newcomers who show a significant and strong relationship between these variables ($r = .69, n = 24, p < .01$). For socialized newcomers, this relationship is non-significant ($r = .24, n = 26, p > .05$) (see Table XI).

Hypothesis 5a) is fully supported. Learning of socialization content is differentially related to each of the distal socialization outcomes depending on newcomer group.

Hypothesis 5b) is partially supported. Role clarity is differentially related to job satisfaction, depending on newcomer group.

Table XII.

Differences between correlation coefficients, between proximal and distal outcomes

Proximal and Distal Outcome Variables		Newcomer Group		z_{obs} value
		Unsocialized	Socialized	
NSQ (tr)	Affective Commitment	$r = .202$	$r = -.389^*$	<u>2.085</u>
		$n = 22$	$n = 26$	
		$z = .203$	$z = -.412$	
	Job Satisfaction	$r = .194$	$r = -.420^*$	<u>2.1898</u>
		$n = 22$	$n = 26$	
		$z = .198$	$z = -.448$	
	Intention to Quit	$r = -.340$	$r = .394^*$	<u>-3.746</u>
		$n = 22$	$n = 26$	
		$z = -.530$	$z = .575$	
Role clarity	Affective Commitment	$r = .469^{**}$	$r = .374$	-1.174
		$n = 24$	$n = 26$	

	z = .510	z = .560	
Job Satisfaction	r = .693**	r = .241	<u>2.139</u>
	n = 24	n = 26	
	z = .858	z = .245	
Intention to Quit	r = -.260	r = -.427*	.523
	n = 24	n = 26	
	z = -.455	z = -.605	

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

Hypothesis 6

It is predicted that network characteristics will be differentially related to proximal socialization outcomes, that is a) Learning of socialization content and b) Role clarity, depending on newcomer group.

Pearson correlations between network variables and proximal outcome variables showed no significant results (see Table VIII). Therefore, no comparisons were performed, as network characteristics do meaningfully relate to proximal outcomes, for either of the newcomer groups.

Hypothesis 6 is not confirmed.

In order to better visualize the results from this second objective, a schematic representation of the results from hypotheses 4-6, separated by newcomer group, are shown in Figure 7. The relationships represented in the figure are correlations that were significant *and* significantly different between newcomer groups (z_{obs} values below -1.96 or above 1.96).

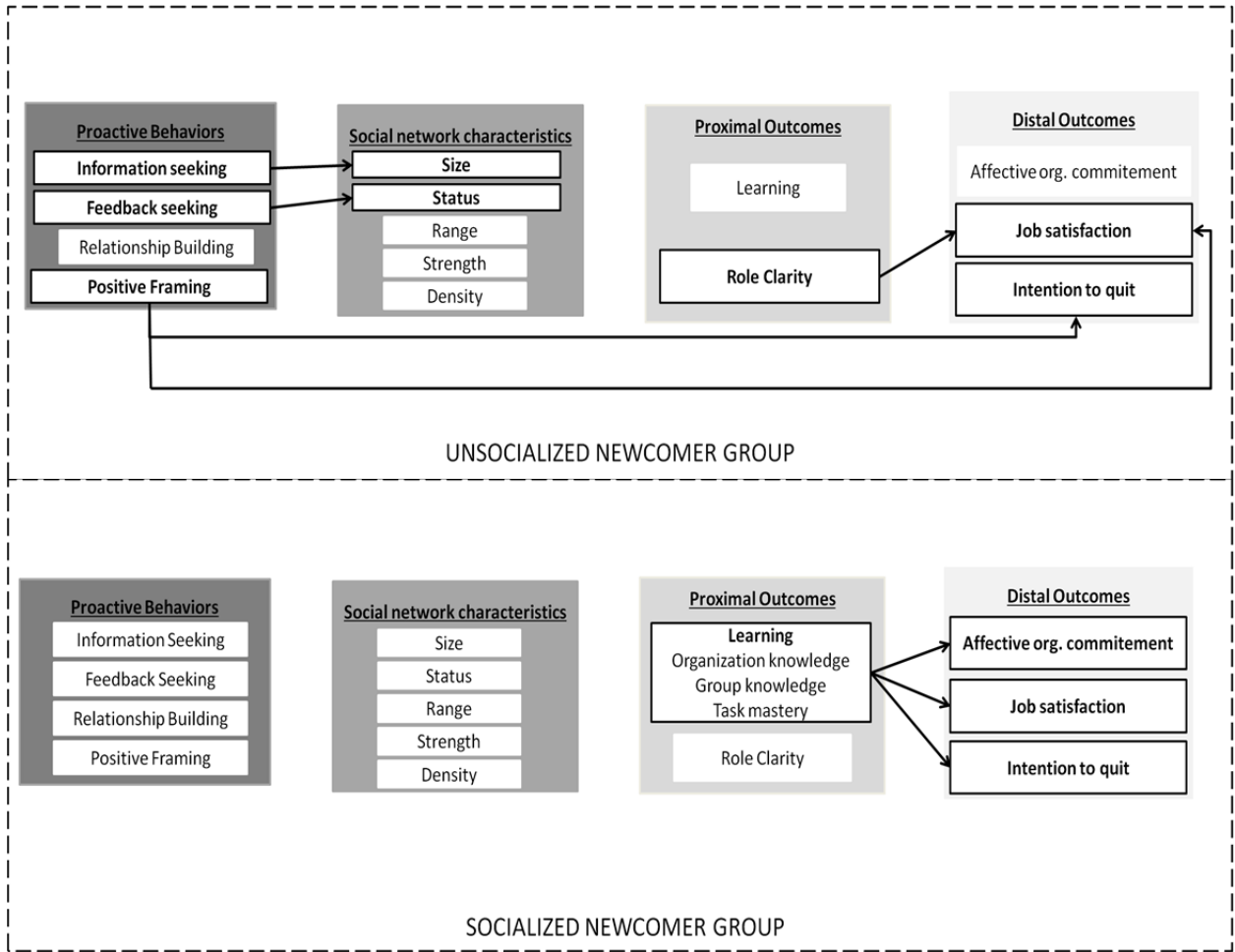


Figure 6. Schematic representation of Objective 2 results.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This chapter highlights and discusses this study's findings in each of the two objectives, and extends on their implications for both research and practice. The chapter concludes with the limitations of the study, along with its strengths and contributions to organizational socialization research.

5.1. Discussion of Objective 1

The first and central objective of this study was to compare socialized newcomers to unsocialized newcomers in terms of traditional outcome variables of the organizational socialization process (Ashforth, et al., 2007), as well as social network characteristics (Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 2002a).

The first hypothesis, testing whether there was a difference in terms of proximal socialization outcomes was partially supported. Socialized newcomers showed significantly higher levels of socialization content mastery (learning) than unsocialized newcomers. These results hint at the possibility that the socialization practices employed by this organization play a role in the acquisition of organization, group (interpersonal and group relationships) and job/task knowledge on the part of the newcomers who received it. This is consistent with best practice research that links socialization tactics with learning (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007), as well as with Klein and Weaver's (2000) quasi-experimental study results.

Most telling of these results is what it implies for *unsocialized* newcomers. Surely, a large amount of tacit knowledge is implicitly learned or figured out through the newcomers' immersion in their new organizational context (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). However, the unsocialized newcomers in this study did not achieve the same level of learning of socialization content through other means - that is, they do not appear to have compensated. Moreover, there is always the risk that organization-sanctioned formal messages are contradicted by more 'hands-on' theories used by peers and informal mentors (Argyris & Schön, 1987; DiSanza, 1995, as cited in Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). When the

organization does not structure a newcomer's entry, more experienced members can welcome the newcomer into their informal groups and convey their own take on the inner functioning of the organization (Brunet & Savoie, 2003). While this may not hinder the newcomer's overall adjustment, what they learn about key socialization content domains (what the organization *wants* them to know) may be lacking or distorted. This highlights the importance of having the organization provide clear messages in areas of interest – specifically the organization's inner functioning (its culture, mission, goals, values, explicit norms, etc.), group dynamics (Is this a competitive environment? Are colleagues meant to be transparent and open in terms of information sharing? How much work will be in teams, what are the formal and informal roles teammates generally play, etc.), and job/task details (performance expectations, behavioral expectations, etc.). To be sure, the newcomer can fether out enough information to get by, but an easy way to ensure that expectations are clear is to explicitly communicate them to the newcomer upon his or her arrival (Kraimer, 1997).

Another important consideration is that when organizations socialize their newcomers, they are fostering a faster learning curve (Bauer, 2011). This is not surprising, but points to a self-evident benefit to invest in socialization to avoid lost productivity costs later on, which is cited as being an important concern for organizations (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006; Danielson, 2004; Watkins, 2003).

Additionally, the proactive strategy of positive framing accounted for a reasonable amount of variance in the learning of socialization outcomes. Still, socialized newcomers showed higher levels above and beyond the effect of positive framing than for unsocialized newcomers. These results are more or less consistent with the interactionist perspective, whereby both socialization tactics and proactive behaviors affect socialization outcomes (Griffin et al., 2000; Gruman et al., 2006).

Though mean levels of role clarity were slightly lower for unsocialized newcomers than for socialized newcomers, the difference between the two was not significant. This is an interesting result, if perhaps not entirely unexpected. Ashforth and Saks (1996) found only institutionalized socialization tactics to be related to role clarity, among others (Jones, 1986; Saks et al., 2007). However, Bauer and colleagues (2007) found role clarity to be significantly related to each of the six organizational socialization tactics. Looking at the specific

correlations in Bauer et al.'s (2007) study, the more institutionalized tactics did show slightly higher correlations than the individualized ones. Nevertheless, Bauer's (2007) study suggests that most all types of socialization practices, from highly structured to more lax will be related to role clarity. Her reasoning is that any tactic will serve to reduce newcomer uncertainty, thus helping socialization outcomes such as role clarity (Bauer et al., 2007). However, our study suggests that between such practices and *no* socialization at all, there also appears to be no difference in role clarity. Without a tactic to reduce the uncertainty – newcomers must be managing it in another way – namely through their own proactive behaviors.

Indeed, for role clarity, where there was no difference between newcomer groups, positive framing played an important part in its prediction. It seems that role clarity in *this* organization is affected by the positive cognitive frame that newcomers place on their new role. Role clarity has been shown to be related to relationship building (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) and feedback-seeking (Gruman et al., 2006), though not consistently with positive framing. Yet, seeing the difficulties and ambiguities newcomers encounter as opportunities rather than obstacles appears to be related to how they face role ambiguities and role conflicts. This could perhaps help newcomers persevere to find clarity rather than succumb to the frustrations they may face while adapting. The implications of these findings hint at role clarity being particularly influenced by proactive individual strategies, and less by contextual variables - adding another nuance to the interactionist perspective for researchers.

No difference was found between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of distal socialization outcomes, that is, affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit. As we have seen, best practice research has led to mixed results, with both institutionalized and individualized tactics being related to these distal outcomes, depending on the study (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Chatman, 1991; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986). However, in their meta-analysis cited above, Bauer and colleagues (2007) showed significant correlations between each of the six tactics (institutionalized and individualized) and organizational commitment (with the exception of formal tactics), job satisfaction, and intention to remain. These results hint that all tactics are related to distal outcomes, in some way. Again, taken together with our results, it seems that these more distal variables are likely

affected by other behavioral, attitudinal, and contextual factors, since there is no difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers on these outcomes.

No difference was observed between newcomer groups in terms of network characteristics. The hypothesis tested here was more exploratory in nature. Indeed, social capital and social network research have only begun to explore their place within the newcomer socialization process. So far, network characteristics have been placed as antecedents to newcomer adjustment outcomes, most notably in Morrison's (2002a) study. In her research, newcomers had received more *institutionalized* (formal and collective) socialization, though this variable was not part of her study hypotheses. Fang and colleagues (2011) developed a model whereby social networks were placed in the center of this process, as both an outcome of organizational socialization practices and proactive behaviors, as well as in turn affecting socialization outcomes, but the model had yet to be tested. So far, only Allen's (2006) study showed certain tactics being related to newcomer embeddedness. In our study, this proved not to be the case, as socialized and unsocialized newcomers appeared to have created comparable networks.

The company that participated in this study had newcomers socialized by their respective departments. It is perhaps not surprising then that, here, the organizational socialization practices might not have provided newcomers with access to more contacts within the company, despite what was suggested by the literature (Lin, 1999; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Saks & Gruman, 2012). This company in particular is large, with various departments that function largely in parallel rather than interdependently. Moreover, as described in the Results chapter, the networks in this organization were more tight-knit, close and dense within newcomers' respective departments. Therefore, the way the tasks are divided and executed may be different, and the information necessary to perform these tasks may also not be of the same type across departments. The company's socialization practices may not emphasize inter-departmental socializing and networking, since it is less important to their newcomers' work in general. As it is, newcomers socialized by this company do not appear to have created different networks from unsocialized newcomers.

Unsurprisingly, for all newcomers, relationship building was related to Network range. Actively creating relationships with coworkers will help all new employees find relationships

that have a larger scope within the organization, helping them to build contacts beyond their immediate work group, promoting their social capital (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Here, it was the newcomers themselves who proactively sought out relationships outside of their departments, and not the socialization program that provided such opportunities.

Overall, our first objective uncovered an important difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of learning of socialization content, one that could not be compensated for by proactive strategies.

5.2. Discussion of Objective 2

The second objective of this study was to explore the organizational socialization process within these two groups, in order to determine whether and where differences exist.

The interactionist perspective views organization-driven processes (such as socialization practices) as potentially minimizing the need for newcomers to actively seek out information on their own (Gruman et al., 2006). However, the opposite may be true – whereby newcomers who have socialization structured for them are given more opportunities to actively search for information, to seek feedback, to build relationships, etc. (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). This study showed results somewhere in between these two ideas.

While there was no difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of any of the proactive behaviors studied, that is, information and feedback seeking, relationship building, and positive framing, there *were* difference in terms of how proactive behaviors related to other key socialization variables. Specifically, differences were found between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of how certain proactive behaviors related to network characteristics and distal outcomes, but not proximal outcomes. *Unsocialized* newcomers showed significant relationships between proactivity and nearly all distal outcomes, as well as with certain network characteristics, while *socialized* newcomers showed no such relationships.

The results suggest that for unsocialized newcomers, information seeking is related to the size of networks, and feedback seeking is related to the hierarchical status of individuals in

one's network. What our study results suggest is that *sense-making* proactive behaviors are important to the formation of newcomer information networks when newcomers have *not* been formally socialized by their workplace. Unsocialized newcomers have not had their socialization structured for them, so it may be their own proactive behaviors (seeking out information and feedback) that are allowing them to get to know their colleagues and supervisors. Socialized newcomers have likely been introduced to the contacts in their networks during a socialization activity, so it may be that socialized newcomers do not create their networks in the same *active* way as unsocialized newcomers must. True, in our study the propensity to employ these proactive behaviors was the same for socialized and unsocialized newcomers alike. However, it may be that these proactive behaviors simply served a greater purpose for unsocialized newcomers, or that socialized newcomers are using these behaviors for other means not studied here, for example job performance (Ashford & Black, 1996), person-job and person-organization fit (Gruman et al., 2006).

Positive framing showed a significant relationship with certain distal outcomes for *unsocialized* newcomers. Specifically, there was a significant difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers for the relationships between positive framing and job satisfaction, between positive framing and intention to quit, and nearly significant between positive framing and affective commitment. This hints at the possibility of positive framing playing a more important role for unsocialized newcomers in terms of their overall adjustment than for socialized newcomers. This important cognitive strategy appears to be a key ingredient for socialized newcomers in terms of how they adjust overall. Socialized newcomers, it would seem, may need to rely less on such strategies when their work environment has structured socialization for them. Again, it is important to note that, as the first objective points out, no difference is found between the two groups in terms of outcomes *or* propensity to engage in positive framing.

Interestingly, positive framing was significantly related to learning of socialization content in both socialized and unsocialized newcomers (consistent with the results from our first objective). This cognitive strategy appears to be useful in both contexts when it comes to interpreting information on the organization, group and task. With positive framing, newcomers are interpreting environmental events as supportive and challenging rather than

antagonistic and threatening (Kim et al., 2005, p. 234). Again, it is important to note that not all individuals apply positive frames to stressful situations they may find themselves in. Newcomers are preparing themselves for the situation with positive frames – allowing themselves to see organizational activities as positive and helpful rather than controlling. This is said to make newcomers more receptive to organizational tactics, thus helping them adapt to their new organization (Kim et al., 2005). For example, Kim and colleagues (2005) found that positive framing moderated the relationship between socialization tactics and person-organization fit perceptions. Here, the results point to a more complex relationship. When newcomers are bombarded with new information - either through a socialization program or simply by the context of beginning work in a new company, their cognitive frame is helping them be more *receptive* to this information, allowing them to learn and retain more of it. Interestingly, while positive framing has been positively related to job satisfaction in newcomers (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), in our study this was only found in *unsocialized* newcomers. This was also true of positive framing and intention to quit. Organizational entry is a time of uncertainty for the newcomers, and a situation that could perhaps be exacerbated when left unsocialized. One might suggest that positive framing could potentially compensate for this, allowing newcomers to adjust overall in spite of their lack of socialization.

Second, there is a difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of the relationship between learning of socialization content and distal socialization outcomes, as well as the relationship between role clarity and distal socialization outcomes.

According to certain models of organizational socialization, the success of any socialization process does not stop at learning – rather, learning will be related to amelioration in other relevant outcomes, most commonly, attitudinal outcomes (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). This was true to a certain degree in our study. Specifically, for socialized newcomers, greater learning of organizational socialization content was associated with higher affective organizational commitment, higher job satisfaction, and lower intention to quit. These three relationships were not found for unsocialized newcomers. Taken together with the results from our first objective, socialized newcomers not only showed higher learning (more organization, group, and task knowledge) than unsocialized

newcomers, this knowledge contributed to newcomer adjustment for socialized newcomers. Again, levels of distal outcomes between newcomer groups were not different. Unsocialized newcomers managed to be just as affectively attached to their organization (affective organizational commitment), to be satisfied with their job and with intentions to remain in the company. Yet *how* newcomers managed this when they are unsocialized does not appear to have been meaningfully determined by the organizational socialization practices.

Furthermore, for these *unsocialized* newcomers, greater role clarity is associated with greater job satisfaction. This relationship was not found for socialized newcomers. Taken together with other results of this study, positive framing contributed to role clarity for both socialized and unsocialized newcomers, contributed to job satisfaction only for *unsocialized* newcomers. This may partially explain the relationship found here, whereby unsocialized newcomers are utilizing positive framing in a way that serves to allow role clarity to influence job satisfaction. This positive outlook in the face of obstacles clears the path for role clarity to better serve the adjustment of unsocialized newcomers.

Finally, information network characteristics were not found to relate differently to proximal outcomes depending on newcomer group. Network characteristics were in fact *unrelated* (non-significantly related) to proximal outcomes in both groups.

This is interesting, as Morrison's (2002a) study found that institutionally socialized newcomers showed a relationship between network characteristics and proximal outcomes (task mastery and role clarity). In the organization studied in our research, the networks formed seemed to play a less salient role in the outcomes of the socialization process. One interpretation could be the fact that when information is readily available, information network resources play a less important role. Network structure is said to play a role in the successful acquisition of this knowledge, as one's network provides *access* to individuals who hold this information and will share it with the newcomer (Morrison, 2002a). The instrumental value of one's network likely varies with the *type* of information needed and with *how* the information will be used (Morrison, 2002a). In the context of the company studied here, it may be that the information was *already* available and accessible to newcomers. In that case, the newcomers

may have had less reason to rely on their networks to acquire knowledge, in which case these variables would be unrelated, as they were in this study.

Taken together, this study shows that networks may themselves constitute an outcome of the socialization process, affected primarily through proactive behaviors. Social capital theory may only partially explain the relationships observed here. While proactive behaviors such as information and feedback seeking play a role in how networks are developed (in the case of *unsocialized* newcomers), the *mobilization* of these resources is less present here in terms of how networks affect newcomers. According to Morrison, “newcomers need contacts whom they can approach again and again with questions and who are familiar with the newcomers’ particular job and role requirements” (Morrison, 2002a, p.1150). This means that newcomers may have formed their networks, but may not be far enough along to properly *utilize* these networks to their advantage. Perhaps this leg of social capital theory takes longer to be actualized.

It is possible that social capital is less crucial for newcomers in the early stages of socialization. That is, while relationships are essential (Ibarra, 1992; Podolny & Baron, 1997), they may not be important *yet* in terms of instrumental gains. Network resources may only be mobilized *when necessary*. Lin (1999) explains that once network resources are accessed, they are subsequently mobilized (capitalized on) in order to obtain certain instrumental returns (here, information for newcomer learning). If there is no need for it, or no need for it *yet*, if newcomers are still understanding who knows what in their organization, they may not have reached the ‘capitalization’ stage. The influence of a newcomer’s network on socialization may then be more subtle; its added value not yet exploited. Organizational socialization is a dynamic process that changes over time (Fisher, 1986). The duration of socialization, which as we have seen is still a debated topic in socialization research (Ashford & Nurmohamed, 2012), may be longer to see the impact of newcomer networks on outcomes.

Another possibility is that there are different outcome variables involved than more traditional OS outcomes when considering the social capital of newcomers specifically. Status attainment (power) and career success (Burt, 1992; Lin, 1999; Podolny & Baron, 1997) have all been cited as being empirically linked to social capital, yet these are perhaps not salient outcomes for newcomers who are still in the process of becoming insiders. While new hires may be building towards these outcomes by building connections to key social resources, they

may not yet be in a strategic position to mobilize them – they may still be establishing their reputation and credibility (Burt, 1992).

Overall, our second objective proved insightful in terms of uncovering two important differences in the organizational socialization process when newcomers are socialized versus unsocialized. Proactive behaviors play a particular role in *unsocialized* newcomer network characteristics and distal outcomes, while *socialized* newcomers' learning of socialization content is particularly important for their overall adjustment.

5.3. Limitations of the study

This comparative study sought to explore the little investigated difference between socialized and unsocialized newcomers. Specifically, it aimed to look into the differences between newcomer groups, in terms of (1) proximal socialization outcomes (learning and role clarity), (2) distal socialization outcomes (affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to quit), and information network characteristics, as well as (4) the differences in the socialization process (relationships between variables) for each group.

This study presented a particularly interesting research design that inevitably had some limitations. Comparative research (be it experimental, quasi-experimental or pre-experimental) always presents some concerns regarding internal validity. As presented in the Methodology chapter, these threats were controlled as much as possible. Most importantly, sociodemographic characteristics were comparable in both newcomer groups, ensuring these variables would not influence results. One concern is that pre-intervention baseline measures of proactive behaviors were not taken. Used as a covariate in the first set of analyses, pre-intervention measures would have ensured that this variables is not affected by the intervention (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Though not ideal, proactive behaviors were compared in both groups to ensure that there were no differences, which there weren't.

A main limitation of this study lies in its pre-experimental ex-post-facto design whereby participants were not randomly assigned to their independent variable group (here, unsocialized or socialized). The consequence of this is that it is not possible to make any causal inference with regards to the results found, that is, it is not possible to conclude with minimal certainty that the socialization practices are the source of differences found.

Another concern is the small sample size, which reduces the power of our analyses, particularly in the second set of analyses (second objective of the study). Sample sizes in both groups were just above the minimum requirement for correlation analyses; therefore no violations of assumptions occurred. Moreover, studies such as this one can be considered program evaluations, where very large samples rarely participate in orientation or training programs, at most 30 participants per session (Klein & Weaver, 2000). Again, though this is in a way a limitation of the study, the fact that the two groups were part of the same organization and were so comparable is an asset that helped counterbalance the effects of a modest sample.

Data was collected at a single point in time, though the duration of socialization is still a debated topic. Therefore, the point (or stage) at which newcomers were assessed may have influenced how certain variables – particularly network characteristics – affected outcomes at the time of assessment. Longitudinal studies are likely to help clarify certain outcomes and causal direction.

Finally, as in most research in this field, self-report measures were used, which can pose problems of common method variance and, particularly, social desirability given their subjective nature. However, self-report measures are often unavoidable in research concerned with assessing employee knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes (Bauer & Green, 1994). Though job performance is an important outcome of the organizational socialization process (Saks & Gruman, 2012), particularly to assess task knowledge more effectively, and can be evaluated by supervisor or co-worker ratings, methodological limitations prevented us from including such methods in our study. Furthermore, as this study assessed newcomers' egocentric information networks, it was necessary to use self-report measures (Morrison, 2002a) – though a confirmation of these networks with colleagues would have served to triangulate this data, that is, to confirm that those whom the newcomer included in their networks agreed with this. Future research should consider including more objective measures to assess socialization outcomes.

5.4. Contributions of the study

The strength of our study lies in its sample. This study is one of less than a handful of comparative studies that exist in organizational socialization research to date. It addresses the issue in Klein and Weaver's (2000) study, in which newcomers had the option of not participating in their intervention, resulting in a potentially biased group of voluntary participants. In our study, socialization was determined by the department. Therefore, newcomers being required to participate in socialization activities depended on what department they worked in. The uniqueness of this study's sample is that the pervading organizational culture was the same in both groups. Moreover, what must be learned in terms of organizational socialization content is the same in both groups.

Second, this study contributes to both socialization research as well as the literature on social networks. An integration of these two streams is gaining popularity, yet is just beginning to be studied empirically.

On a more practical note, this study also provides insight into organizations that do not have company-wide socialization practices (either out of budget or planning concerns). What our results suggest, with regards to unsocialized newcomers in particular, is that newcomers *do* get by without any organization-sanctioned socialization practices. Learning of socialization content may not be as strong as in socialized newcomers, but proactive behaviors, role clarity and overall adjustment do not suffer. This study may indicate to organizations that the investment in socialization practices need not be gargantuan, and that a lot of the popular best practices may not make all the difference. Organizations have the option of creating more smaller-scale and targeted practices, which will likely be just as effective in terms of newcomer adjustment.

Conclusion

This thesis aimed at being one of the first of its kind to compare socialized and unsocialized newcomers in terms of learning, social network, and adjustment outcomes, in a pre-experimental ex-post-facto design.

The goal was to shed light on the differences that could exist between these newcomer groups, in terms of the organizational socialization process as a whole. Overall, this study highlighted that socialization practices are essential in helping newcomers learn key organizational socialization content (organization, group, and job/task domains). This more advanced learning related to better overall adjustment in socialized newcomers.

Most importantly, unsocialized newcomer did not appear to be able to hash out this information on their own, that is, to compensate for the learning of content they may have missed. Researchers should further explore antecedents to newcomer learning. While proactive behaviors have been shown to play a role, there are many avenues, particularly in adult learning theories, that could be integrated into this field.

Proactive behaviors appear to be most important to help unsocialized newcomers build networks of greater size and status. Positive framing in particular played an important role for *unsocialized* newcomers' overall adjustment (in terms of job satisfaction, and intention to remain).

These results are most interesting in terms of the recent integration of social network and social capital research into the organizational socialization process. In spite of the literature in its favor, this study nuances social networks' importance in newcomer adjustment, hinting that while networks *are* being formed, newcomers may not mobilize them right away. More research on newcomer network relationships should explore network building at various stages of newcomer adjustment, in order to better understand how and when these relationships are most instrumental.

What is interesting here is that role clarity and overall adjustment in newcomers, whether socialized or not, was the same. This is as suspected the issue with best practice

research which boasts the necessity to socialize newcomers, failing to examine how unsocialized newcomers are able to find their way regardless.

Future studies should similarly shift the focus away from best practice research towards determining what actually makes a difference (even a small difference), in order to help organizations more efficiently invest in newcomer onboarding and socialization programs. The importance of these programs has been demonstrated, but organizations should proceed with caution at adopting best practices – if anything, the subtlety of differences presented here highlight the importance of larger contextual variables, and of the organizations conducting a needs analysis before planning their onboarding strategy. Organizations may be more willing to invest in socialization if the interventions can be smaller in scale without sacrificing their positive impact. In the interest of providing levers for practitioners, a strong organizational culture or climate that fosters open sharing of knowledge and positive relationships with newcomers, adjustment of new hires may not always require a socialization program (or as large a program).

As our unique sample allowed for important organizational context variables to be held stable across groups, this pre-experimental ex-post-facto study has an added value among the already scarce comparative studies in the field of organizational socialization. This type of research design requires more effort in terms of recruitment of participants and proper contexts, but the insights gained offer a distinctive contribution to the field.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Participant Consent Form

Directives

Vous êtes invité(e) à participer à une recherche sur la socialisation et les réseaux sociaux de nouveaux employés. Cette recherche est dirigée par Carolyn Hass, doctorante en psychologie du travail et des organisations à l'Université de Montréal. L'organisation a donné son appui à cette initiative de recherche. Le comité d'éthique de l'Université de Montréal a statué que celle-ci satisfait aux normes éthiques en recherche.

Votre collaboration est importante, car elle contribuera à déterminer quels facteurs influencent l'intégration et l'adaptation de nouveaux employés. Sentez-vous libre d'y participer et de répondre avec sincérité : vos réponses à cette étude sont confidentielles et traitées par une équipe de chercheurs indépendants de l'administration de l'organisation.

Bien que la Direction ait donné son accord à la tenue de cette recherche, vous êtes libre d'y participer ou non. Si vous avez des questions concernant cette recherche, vous pouvez contacter madame Carolyn Hass.

L'étude se déroulera en une seule étape. Vous êtes invité(e) à répondre à un questionnaire. Il n'y a pas de limite de temps pour y répondre, mais vous pouvez prévoir **entre 20 et 40 minutes** pour le compléter.

Pour l'ensemble des questions, veuillez noter qu'il n'y a pas de bonne ou de mauvaise réponse. La meilleure réponse est celle qui vous vient à l'esprit spontanément. Nous vous prions donc de répondre de la façon la plus honnête et transparente possible. Pour assurer la validité de vos réponses, il est important de répondre à **toutes** les questions. Si aucun choix de réponse à une question donnée ne vous semble approprié, veuillez sélectionner l'option qui s'apparente le plus à votre réponse idéale.

Nous vous remercions pour votre contribution à l'amélioration de votre qualité de vie au travail et à l'avancement des connaissances en ressources humaines!

Carolyn Hass, Ph.D.

Chercheure principale

Doctorante en psychologie du travail et des organisations, Université de Montréal

Titre de l'étude : La création d'un solide réseau social: le rôle des programmes de socialisation dans l'adaptation des nouveaux employés

Chercheuse principale : Carolyn Hass, Ph.D. (cand)
Étudiante au doctorat en psychologie du travail et des organisations
Université de Montréal

Directeur de recherche : Luc Brunet, Ph.D.

A) RENSEIGNEMENTS AUX PARTICIPANTS

Objectifs de la recherche

Ce projet cherche à mieux comprendre comment les réseaux sociaux se développent chez les nouveaux employés.

Participation à la recherche

Votre participation à cette étude consiste à:

- Répondre à un questionnaire portant sur les comportements proactifs, les attitudes envers le travail et les réseaux sociaux.
- Répondre à un questionnaire qui porte sur des caractéristiques personnelles du participant (âge, sexe, niveau de scolarité, ancienneté, type de poste, le temps travaillé dans l'organisation et dans le département actuel, le statut).
- Remplir ces questionnaires devrait requérir **entre 20 et 40 minutes** de votre temps.

Confidentialité

Les renseignements que vous nous donnerez demeureront confidentiels. Chaque participant à la recherche se verra attribuer un numéro et seul le chercheur principal et/ou la personne mandatée à cet effet auront la liste des participants et des numéros qui leur auront été attribués. De plus, les renseignements seront conservés dans un classeur sous clé situé dans un bureau fermé. Aucune information permettant de vous identifier d'une façon ou d'une autre ne sera publiée. Ces renseignements personnels seront détruits 7 ans après la fin du projet. Seules les données ne permettant pas de vous identifier seront conservées après cette date, le temps nécessaire à leur utilisation.

Avantages et inconvénients

En participant à cette recherche, vous pourrez contribuer à l'avancement des connaissances sur le processus de socialisation et les réseaux sociaux. Votre participation à la recherche pourra également vous donner l'occasion de mieux vous connaître.

Droit de retrait

Votre participation est entièrement volontaire. Vous êtes libre de vous retirer en tout temps, sans préjudice et sans devoir justifier votre décision. Si vous décidez de vous retirer de la recherche, vous pouvez communiquer avec la chercheuse, au numéro de téléphone indiqué à la dernière page de ce document. Si vous vous retirez de la recherche, les renseignements personnels vous concernant et qui auront été recueillies au moment de votre retrait seront détruits.

6. Indemnité

Aucune compensation financière ne sera versée pour votre participation à la présente recherche.

B) CONSENTEMENT

Je déclare avoir pris connaissance des informations ci-dessus, avoir obtenu les réponses à mes questions sur ma participation à la recherche et comprendre le but, la nature, les avantages, les risques et les inconvénients de cette recherche.

Après réflexion, je consens librement à prendre part à cette recherche. Je sais que je peux me retirer en tout temps sur simple avis verbal sans préjudice et sans devoir justifier ma décision.

Je consens à ce que les données recueillies dans le cadre de cette étude soient utilisées pour des projets de recherche subséquents de même nature, conditionnellement à leur approbation par un comité d'éthique de la recherche et dans le respect des mêmes principes de confidentialité et de protection des informations.

Signature : _____ Date : _____

Nom : _____ Prénom : _____

Je déclare avoir expliqué le but, la nature, les avantages, les risques et les inconvénients de l'étude et avoir répondu au meilleur de ma connaissance aux questions posées.

Signature du chercheur _____ Date : _____

Nom : _____ Prénom : _____

Pour toute question relative à l'étude, ou pour vous retirer de la recherche, vous pouvez communiquer avec Carolyn Hass, candidate au doctorat au département de psychologie à l'Université de Montréal. Toute plainte relative à votre participation à cette recherche peut être adressée à l'ombudsman de l'Université de Montréal.

Appendix B – Verification of construct validity for French-language translated items

Participants

A total of 208 individuals were contacted through Facebook and LinkedIn, and were invited to participate in the online preliminary survey containing the French-language translations of three measures (Proactive behaviors (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), the NSQ (Haueter et al., 2003), and Intention to Quit (Arnold & Feldman, 1982)). Participation in this survey was entirely voluntary, and consent was obtained prior to questionnaire completion. The requirements to participate were to be over 18 years of age and employed on a full-time basis. Of those 208 persons contacted, 54 agreed to participate and 53 completed the questionnaire in full (25.5% response rate). Data was collected through SurveyMonkey.

The demographic characteristics of this sample obtained upon data collection were sex and age only, for methodological reasons. The independent sample was 69% female (31% male), and the age distribution was mostly 21-30 (48%), followed by 41-50 (36%), then 31-40 (17%), and finally 51-60 (9%). It is noteworthy to mention that these demographic characteristics are comparable to those of the study's final sample, with a slightly higher representation of the 41-50 age bracket.

Procedure

French-language versions of each of these measures were created and reviewed by bilingual experts using the double-translation (or back translation) method (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003).

Materials

The measures translated are:

Proactive Behaviors: Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) measure is constructed of four proactive behaviors that were chosen from Ashford & Black's (1996) original measure, due to their suitability for testing newcomers specifically. The four separate scales they selected, and that are used in this study are Information Seeking (8 items; Major & Kozlowski, 1997), Feedback Seeking (4 items), Relationship Building (3 items), and Positive Framing (3 items) (Ashford & Black, 1996).

The Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire: Haueter et al.'s (2003) 35-item questionnaire assessing the mastery of socialization content on three dimensions, namely, task, group, and organization knowledge.

Intention to quit: Arnold & Feldman's (1982) 3-item measure.

Refer to Section 3.4. Materials for details on each of these measures in their original English form.

Results

The French-language version of Major & Kozlowski's (1997) 8 items measuring Information Seeking proactive behaviors were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was at .82, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a single factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 58.93% of the total variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. The factorial structure is well defined, as all 8 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on the single factor extracted (see Table i.).

Table i.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for the French version of Information Seeking items

Items	Information Seeking
1.	.85
3.	.84
4.	.81
2.	.78
5.	.75
6.	.72
8.	.71
7.	.65

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

The French-language version of Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) 4 items measuring Feedback Seeking proactive behaviors were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was at .80, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a single factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 66.83% of the total variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. The factorial structure is well defined, as all 4 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on the single factor extracted (see Table ii.).

Table ii.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for the French version of Feedback Seeking items

Items	Feedback Seeking
2.	.85
3.	.83
1.	.83
4.	.74

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

The French-language version of Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) 3 items measuring Relationship Building proactive behaviors were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was at .69, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a single factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 76.43% of the total variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. The factorial structure is well defined, as all 3 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on the single factor extracted (see Table iii.).

Table iii.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for the French version of Relationship Building items

Items	Relationship Building
2.	.90
1.	.89
3.	.82

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

The French-language version of Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) 3 items measuring Positive Framing proactive behaviors were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was at .72, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a single factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 78.60% of the total variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. The factorial structure is well defined, as all 3 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on the single factor extracted (see Table iv.).

Table iv.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for the French version of Positive Framing items

Items	Positive Framing
2.	.91
1.	.90
3.	.85

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

The French-language version Haueter et al.'s (2003) 35 item Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value was at .78, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a five factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 42.49%, 20.19%, 6.21%, 5.32%, and 3.88% of the variance, respectively. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the third component. Often using the Kaiser criterion, too many components are extracted. There is little break after the third component. The factorial structure is well defined, as nearly all 35 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on only one factor, and lower than .45 on other factors (see Table v.).

It is noteworthy to mention that the number of items contained in each factor differs slightly from the English version. This could be due to the small sample sized used to conduct such a test. Normally, a sample size greater than 150 is recommended, along with a ratio of at least five cases for each of the variables (which was not the case here).

Nevertheless, a three-factor structure was found, and since only global NSQ scores were used in our study's final analyses, these deviations from the English version may not have affected results.

Table v.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for each of the subscales of the French version of the Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire items ont their

Item	Task Knowledge	Group Knowledge	Organization Knowledge
1	.72		
2	.78		
3	.82		.31
4	.86		
5	.73	.41	
6	.84	.35	
7	.39	.70	
8	.36	.62	
9	.58		
10	.74		
11	.73		.37
12	.71		.51
13	.37	.78	
14	.38	.71	
15	.46	.62	
16		.69	
17	.41	.64	
18		.71	
19			.80
20			.87
21			.84
22			.86
23			.87
24			.84
25			.88
26		.55	.66
27		.56	.67
28		.34	.69
29		.31	.59

30			.81
31			.91
32			.92
33		.48	.57
34		.57	.65
35	.32	.39	.59

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis. Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

The French-language version of Arnold & Feldman’s (1989) 3 items measuring Intention to Quit were examined through Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to ensure their construct validity. Kaiser-Meyer-Oklín value was at .74, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .6. and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. PCA revealed the presence of a single factor with an eigenvalue exceeding 1, explaining 85.84% of the total variance. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the first component. The factorial structure is well defined, as all 3 items present saturation coefficients higher than .55 on the single factor extracted (see Table vi.).

Table vi.

Factorial Structure and Saturation Coefficients for the French version of Intention to Quit items

Items	Positive Framing
2.	.95
1.	.93
3.	.90

Note. Extraction Method: Principle Component Analysis. Rotation Method: varimax with Kaiser normalisation

Appendix C – Proactive Behavior Measure

Les énoncés suivants correspondent à des comportements que vous émettez au travail.

Consigne :

À l'intérieur d'une semaine de travail typique, à quelle fréquence initiez-VOUS des conversations avec vos collègues et supérieurs à propos des sujets suivants :

Très rarement	Assez rarement	Plus ou moins fréquemment	Assez fréquemment	Très fréquemment
1	2	3	4	5

1. Des sujets reliés au travail en général.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Des procédures nécessaires à l'accomplissement du travail.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Comment traiter des problèmes au travail.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Certaines tâches précises.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Les priorités de travail.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Comment utiliser les équipements et fournitures.	1	2	3	4	5
7. La quantité et la qualité du travail.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Les demandes et processus de travail.	1	2	3	4	5

À quelle fréquence avez-vous...

9. Cherché à avoir une rétroaction sur votre performance à la fin d'un projet ou d'un mandat ?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sollicité des critiques de votre supérieur ou de vos collègues ?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Cherché à avoir une rétroaction sur votre performance en cours de mandat ?	1	2	3	4	5
12. Demandé d'avoir l'opinion de votre supérieur ou de vos collègues par rapport à votre travail ?	1	2	3	4	5
13. Participé à des activités sociales au travail afin de rencontrer des gens (c.-à-d. soirées, équipe sportive, sorties, clubs, dîners) ?	1	2	3	4	5
14. Assisté à des événements sociaux de votre entreprise ?	1	2	3	4	5
15. Tenté de socialiser et de mieux connaître vos collègues ?	1	2	3	4	5
16. Tenté de voir une situation difficile au travail comme étant une chance au lieu d'une menace ?	1	2	3	4	5
17. Tenté de voir le côté positif des choses ?	1	2	3	4	5

18. Tenté de voir votre travail comme un défi au lieu d'un problème ? 1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D – Newcomer Socialization Questionnaire

Les énoncés suivants correspondent à votre socialisation en tant que nouvel employé.

Consigne :

Indiquez jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.

Fortement en désaccord	En désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Ni en accord, ni en désaccord	Un peu en accord	En accord	Fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1.	Je connais les noms précis des produits/services de mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Je connais l'histoire de mon organisation (p.ex. : quand cette organisation a été fondé et par qui, les produits/services originaux, comment cette organisation a survécu à des temps difficiles).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Je connais la structure de mon organisation (p.ex. : comment les départements sont liés entre eux).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Je comprends les opérations de mon organisation (p.ex.: qui fait quoi, la contribution de chaque département).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Je comprends les objectifs et buts de mon organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Je comprends comment les divers départements et/ou secteurs contribuent aux objectifs organisationnels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Je comprends en quoi mon travail contribue à cette organisation au sens large.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Je comprends comment agir afin de correspondre aux valeurs et croyances organisationnelles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Je connais les grandes politiques et/ou règlements de l'organisation (p.ex. : compensation, code vestimentaire, limites des frais de voyage).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Je comprends les politiques internes de l'organisation (p.ex.: la chaîne de commande, qui est influent, ce qui doit être fait afin de grimper les échelons ou maintenir une bonne réputation).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Je comprends le style général de gestion (p.ex.: «top-down», participatif) utilisé dans cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Je comprends ce qui est en train d'être dit quand les membres utilisent un langage propre à l'organisation (p.ex. : acronymes, abréviations, surnoms).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Je comprends comment mon équipe de travail contribue aux objectifs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	de l'organisation.						
14.	Je connais les objectifs de mon équipe de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
15.	Je comprends la relation entre mon équipe de travail et les autres équipes.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
16.	Je comprends l'expertise (p.ex.: compétences, connaissances) apportée par chaque membre à mon équipe de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
17.	Je comprends comment le rendement de chaque membre contribue aux produits ou au service final de l'équipe.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
18.	Je comprends ce que le gestionnaire de l'équipe attend de l'équipe de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
19.	Je comprends le style de gestion du gestionnaire de l'équipe (p.ex. : actif/impliqué, participatif).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
20.	Je connais mon rôle au sein de l'équipe de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
21.	Lors du travail en équipe, je sais comment exécuter des tâches à la hauteur des normes de l'équipe.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
22.	Je connais les politiques, règlements et procédures de mon équipe de travail (p.ex.: présence, participation).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
23.	Je comprends comment me comporter de manière à être compatible avec les valeurs et idéaux de mon équipe de travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
24.	Je comprends les règles non écrites de mon équipe de travail (p.ex.: qui est influent, ce qui doit être fait afin de grimper les échelons ou maintenir une bonne réputation).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
25.	Je connais les responsabilités, tâches et projets pour lesquels j'ai été engagé.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
26.	Je comprends comment exécuter les tâches requises pour mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
27.	Je comprends quelles tâches et responsabilités sont prioritaires.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
28.	Je comprends comment utiliser les outils dont je me sers dans mon travail (p.ex. : messagerie vocale, logiciels, machinerie, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
29.	Je sais comment acquérir les ressources nécessaires à l'exécution de mon travail (p.ex. : équipement, fournitures, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
30.	Je sais à qui m'adresser lorsque j'ai besoin de soutien pour faire mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
31.	Je sais qui sont mes clients (à l'interne et à l'externe).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
32.	Je sais comment répondre aux besoins de mes clients.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
33.	Je sais quand j'ai à informer mon gestionnaire du progrès de mon travail (p.ex. : à tous les jours, de manière hebdomadaire, proche des échéanciers, seulement s'il/si elle me le demande).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
34.	Je sais ce qui constitue une performance de travail acceptable (c.-à-d., ce que mon gestionnaire et /ou mes clients attendent de moi).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
35.	Lorsque j'exécute mon travail, je comprends comment compléter les documents/formulaires nécessaires (p.ex. : feuille de temps, relevé de dépenses, bons de commande, formulaires d'accès aux ordinateurs).	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

Appendix E – Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scale

Les énoncés suivants correspondent à votre rôle organisationnel.

Consigne :

Indiquez jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.

	Fortement en désaccord	En désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Ni en accord, ni en désaccord	Un peu en accord	En accord	Fortement en accord				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
1.	Je sais à quel point j'ai du pouvoir décisionnel dans mon travail.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Mon emploi comporte des objectifs clairs et planifiés.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Je dois faire des choses qui devraient être faites autrement.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Je sais que j'ai bien réparti mon temps.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	On m'attribue une tâche sans la main-d'œuvre nécessaire pour la compléter				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Mes responsabilités sont clairement définies.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Je dois aller à l'encontre des règles ou des politiques pour accomplir mes tâches.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Je travaille avec deux ou plusieurs groupes de personnes qui fonctionnent assez différemment.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Je sais exactement ce qu'on attend de moi.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Je reçois des demandes incompatibles de deux ou plusieurs personnes.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Je fais des choses susceptibles d'être acceptées par les uns et non acceptées par les autres.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	On m'attribue une tâche sans les ressources et les fournitures adéquates pour l'exécuter.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Les explications de ce que je dois faire sont claires.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Je dois travailler sur des choses peu importantes.				1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix F – Affective Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Intention to Quit Measures

Les énoncés suivants correspondent à vos attitudes et perceptions envers votre organisation.

Consigne :

Indiquez jusqu'à quel point vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.

Fortement en désaccord	En désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Ni en accord, ni en désaccord	Un peu en accord	En accord	Fortement en accord
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Par rapport à l'organisation...

1.	Je serais très heureux de terminer ma carrière dans cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	J'aime parler de mon organisation avec des gens de l'extérieur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Je considère que les problèmes de mon organisation sont aussi les miens.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Je crois que je pourrais développer un sentiment d'appartenance aussi grand pour une autre entreprise que pour cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Dans cette organisation, je n'ai pas l'impression de «faire partie de la famille».	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Je ne me sens pas «émotivement attaché» à cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Cette organisation revêt pour moi un sens très particulier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Je n'ai pas l'impression d'être un membre à part entière de l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Par rapport à votre travail...

9.	Les conditions dans lesquelles je fais mon travail sont excellentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Je suis satisfait(e) du type de travail que je fais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Jusqu'à maintenant, j'ai obtenu les choses importantes que je voulais retirer de mon travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Même si je pouvais changer quoi que ce soit à mon travail, je n'y changerais presque rien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Par rapport à vos intentions...

13.	Je suis actuellement ou serai éventuellement à la recherche d'un emploi dans une autre entreprise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Je serai prêt à accepter un emploi dans une autre entreprise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Il existe d'autres entreprises pour lesquelles je préférerais travailler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix G – Information network grid

Consigne: Dans la première rangée, dans l'espace fournie, les lettres (A, B, C, D,...) correspondent à des personnes de votre organisation auprès desquelles vous avez régulièrement **obtenues de l'information** utile liée au travail ou à l'entreprise. Vous pouvez vous référer à jusqu'à 8 personnes, selon la pertinence.

Mise en garde : Comme aide-mémoire, et afin d'assurer la confidentialité des personnes auxquelles vous vous référez, vous pouvez inscrire l'identité de ces personnes (ex : Personne A = Jean Lapointe, Personne B = Jessica Miller, etc.) sur une feuille brouillon que vous pouvez garder pour vous ou détruire. Ni les chercheurs, ni votre organisation sauront l'identité de ces personnes.

Pour chacun des personnes, veuillez répondre aux énoncés suivants.

Personne ➡	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Item 1 : Indiquez le numéro correspondant à la position hiérarchique <u>de chaque personne</u> . 1 = Mon employé/collègue niveau plus bas 2 = Un collègue du même niveau que moi 3 = Mon supérieur hiérarchique 4 = Un (autre) gestionnaire/collègue niveau plus haut	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Item 2 : Indiquez le nom du département dans lequel chaque personne œuvre.								
Item 3 : Indiquez le numéro correspondant à la fréquence moyenne d'interaction <u>avec chaque personne</u> . 1 = à chaque jour 2 = quelques fois par semaine 3 = 3 à 5 fois par mois 4 = 1 à 2 fois par mois 5 = moins qu'une fois par mois	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Item 4 : Indiquez un chiffre (0-8) correspondant au nombre de personnes <u>parmi celles listées</u> avec qui chaque personne interagit dans une semaine donnée.								

Appendix H – Sociodemographic information

Ces questions visent à mieux connaître l'ensemble des gens interrogés dans le cadre de cette étude. Elles ne visent en aucun cas à vous identifier personnellement. Pour chaque question, veuillez indiquer la réponse qui vous décrit le mieux.

1. Vous êtes ...

- Une femme
- Un homme

2. Dans quelle catégorie d'âge vous situez-vous?

- 20 ans et moins
- Entre 21 et 30 ans
- Entre 31 et 40 ans
- Entre 41 et 50 ans
- Entre 51 et 60 ans
- 61 ans et plus

3. Quel est le dernier niveau de scolarité que vous avez complété

- Secondaire
- Collégial
- Universitaire (1^{er} cycle)
- Universitaire
(cycles supérieurs)

4. Depuis combien d'années occupez-vous votre poste actuel dans cette organisation?

- Moins de 6 mois
- Entre 6 mois et 1 an

5. Après combien de temps dans l'entreprise avez-vous participé à leur programme de socialisation?

- Moins de 6 mois
- Entre 6 mois et 1 an
- Je n'ai participé à aucun programme de socialisation

6. Travaillez-vous déjà dans cette entreprise avant de commencer ce nouveau poste?

- Oui
- Non

7. Quel type d'horaire de travail correspond à votre emploi actuel?

- Temps plein
- Temps partiel
- Autre