## Chapter 2
### Socialization: Conceptual Issues

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2.1 Meaning and Definition of Socialization

Socialization is defined as “a process in which an individual acquires the attitudes, behaviors and knowledge needed to successfully participate as an organizational member.” (Van Maanen, et al, 1979) Socialization represents a sense-making process that helps new employees to adapt, form new work group relationships and to find their place within the organization. A typical socialization process includes three phases (Noe, 2005)

1. **Anticipatory Socialization:** This phase occurs before newcomers join the organization. Through the interactions with representative recruiters of the company (e.g., recruiters, managers), the newcomers develop perceptions about the new job i.e. expectations about the company and the job prior to their actual organizational entry.

2. **Encounter:** When new employees begin a new job, they start learning their job tasks and receive training. Managers play a vital role by exerting their influence by helping new employees understand their roles and duties. At this phase, managers can also try to cultivate a high-quality work relationship with newcomers by understanding their initial job related anxiety and issues that they experience.

3. **Settling In:** During this phase, new employees begin to feel comfortable with their job demands and social relationships in the organization. They tend to get interested in the performance evaluation process conducted by the company which helps them learning the potential career opportunities within the company.

In other words socialization provides evidences that it is one of the best explanation for why employees behave in the way they do in today’s organization. Organizations together with the employees play a vital role to achieve successful socialization. Organizations employ a variety of useful techniques to socialize the employees starting from the encounter phase till they adjust themselves in the new environment. These techniques initiated the process of socialization by reducing initial work related uncertainty and anxiety and simultaneously help the newcomers to adapt and learn different values, norms, attitudes and behaviors necessary to become organizational insiders from being outsiders. Specific techniques used in socializing new employees include the following:
Socialization deals with learning that generates through the interrelationship between the individual and group which is termed as social role learning (Monane, 1967). It often attends most carefully to the impact of the group on the individual, no matter how powerful or important that person might be. Different forms of socialization interactions give rise to diverse outcomes. Scholars clearly highlighted that different forms of adult socialization. Professional socialization and organizational socialization describe processes that differ in kind and substance. Professional socialization refers to the learning a person acquires to develop the skills, knowledge, and disposition needed to be a member of the profession (Bullough, 1990; Bullough, Knowles, & Crau, 1989). Organizational socialization on the other hand helps a person to acquire the knowledge, values, and behaviors required to fulfill the assigned role within a particular organization (Buchanan, 1974). In the early induction period professional and organizational socialization occurs simultaneously, but later on organizational socialization in the subsequent years have gradually established values and norms that are totally different from those learned during professional socialization. Organization socialization quickly and steadily overwhelms professional socialization (Bucher & Stelling, 1977; Duke, 1987; Schein, 1968, 1985). The salience, immediacy, and power of the work impose great influence over education and training. The importance of the tasks performed by the employees has been controlled by the overall demands of the work (Guy, 1985).

Despite of the years of work experience that new employees have, knowing the technical and social aspects specifically related to the job and the company is essential to function in a new environment. The extent of employees learning and development through socialization is referred to as socialization content (Chao et al. 1994) or what is being imparted to the newcomer in the organization (Louis, 1980). Four content categories that have been identified in different literatures are task, group, organizational, and personal. Further these contents are specified as (1) organizational values, goals, and culture, (2) work group values, norms, and friendships, (3) how to perform the job duties, needed skills and knowledge, and (4) personal change relating to identity, self-image, and
motives. These contents are categorized and utilized to evaluate socialization effectiveness including: (1) task mastery, (2) functioning within the work group, (3) knowledge and acceptance of organization's culture, (4) personal learning, and (5) role clarity. These categories are represented as indicators of socialization effectiveness and they also reflect the salient aspects of information that newcomers are expected to acquire within an organization.

2.2 Theories of Socialization

Socialization is a multistage process consisting of at least three stages, anticipatory socialization stage that occurs prior to organizational entry, encounter stage which starts when the newcomer enters the organization and a metamorphosis stage in which the newcomer learns to adapt and settles within the organization (Bauer et al., 1998; Louis, 1980). The literatures suggests that there exist a number of work describing the phases and activities of the socialization process through detailed analysis (Porter, Lawler and Hackman, 1975; Van Maanen 1975; Schein, 1968) which explains the recruitment procedure and various methods that are adopted to achieve successful socialization of employees (Wanous, 1973; Caplow, 1964). Beside these, literature has also demonstrated clearly the impact of the organizational environment, job duties and influence of supervisors on new employees (Gomersall and Myers, 1966; Dunnette, Arvey and Banas, 1973; Schein, 1964).

There are also empirical studies that identify the critical variables in the socialization process and specify when or how each of them operates. Daniel Charles Feldman (1976) proposed the contingency model of socialization which clearly demonstrates the socialization process by identifying the stages of socialization, highlighting the activities engaged in each stage of the process and the most relevant outcomes to be achieved during the entire socialization experiences of the newcomers. The model proposed three stages in the socialization process by identification of eight process variables indicating the procedure with which an individual has concluded favorably a particular activity in the socialization process. Each variable reflect the impacts of the day to day organizational activities on the feelings of individual employees regarding a particular aspect of the socialization process. The model also identifies four outcomes variables which can be considered as an indicator of the success of the entire socialization experience.

The stages developed in the model are –
Stage I – Anticipatory Socialization
The first stage of socialization process entails the overall learning that takes place through discussion with the recruiters or managers before the newcomer enters the organization. At this stage there exist two process variables indicating the progress through socialization.

(a) Realism – This variable helps the newcomer to get a clear idea of the organizational life and what is actually expected from them. It also identifies whether the newcomers have successfully completed the information sharing and information evaluation which is a major part of their recruitment process.

(b) Congruence – This variable identifies how much or how well the organization’s resources and the needs and skills of the newcomers are mutually satisfying each other. It also tries to indicate how successful the newcomers are in making decisions regarding their employment.

Stage II – Accommodation
The second stage of the socialization process deals with the phase in which the newcomers try to find out how the organization really looks like and attempts to become an active member of it. Four process variables are identified which initiates the progress through socialization.

(a) Initiation to the task – This variable measures the degree of competency level of the employees in completing the assigned organizational task. It also highlights how well the newcomer has learned their assigned new task at work.

(b) Initiation to the group – This indicates the degree to which a newcomer feels that his/her self identity is accepted and trusted by the co workers. It is the indicator for measuring the socializing power of the newcomer in establishing new and active interpersonal relationships within the organizational environment.

(c) Role definition – This refers to the agreement with the work group about the task they have to perform, the priorities to be considered and the time allocated for those tasks to be done.

(d) Congruence of evaluation – It helps the newcomers to measure the degree of agreement between them and supervisors in regard to their overall progress in the organization as well as their individual strengths and weaknesses.
Stage III – Role Management

This is the third stage of socialization, where the newcomers have come to some tentative solution of problems in their own work groups and also tries to mediate the work related conflicts between their own group and other groups which may in turn place demands on them. Role management stage is influenced by two process variables.

(a) Resolution of outside life conflicts – This measures the degree to which the employees have been able to strike a balance between their personal and professional life conflicts. They also have been able to reach a decision point to properly deal with such conflicts.

(b) Resolution of conflicting demands – This measures how the employees have tried to resolve a balance between group conflicts within the organizational environment. This also indicates their ability to deal with different work groups within the organization.

The above mentioned three stages of socialization give rise to four possible comprehensive socialization outcomes.

General Satisfaction – This is an overall measures of the degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy in his or her world. It reflects the differences in the nature of jobs or work situation of individuals (Vroom, 1964)

Mutual Influence – This is the extent to which individuals feels some control over the way work is carried out in their department.

Internal Work Motivation – This is the degree to which an employee is self motivated to perform effectively on the job.

Job Involvement – This is the degree to which employees are personally committed and involved in their work. Weiner and Grechman (1977) and Katz and Kahn (1966) both linked job involvement with the values learned in the socialization process and with the degree of internalization of organizational goals.

Later on two theoretical models of group socialization have been proposed. First, model considered newcomer adjustment into social groups (Moreland and Levine, 1982, 1984, 1988; Moreland, 1985; Levine and Moreland, 1994). But this model was not successful
when applied to the workplace. Anderson and Thomas (1996), in their integrative summary of research into group-level socialization, proposed a general model of socialization into work groups which included a series of propositions for subsequent empirical research to address. This has been followed up in research by Chen and Klimoski (2003) in one of the few studies where they investigated the socialization of newcomers and their new teams. They found that performance of newcomers, rated by their team members, was affected principally by the expectations of the newcomers regarding their own performance which is influenced by their own self-efficacy, and also by team expectations. Team expectations are usually influenced by the experience of the newcomers. This provides initial support for the importance of the team or work group during organizational socialization.

Besides this, several theories have been developed based on the impact of socialization tactics on adjustment of newcomers. Among different theories notable conceptual work in this area is that of Van Maanen & Schein’s (1979) model describing six dimensions along which socialization tactics vary. According to them tactics of socialization refers to ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by other in the organization. They proposed six tactics, Collective (vs. Individual), Formal (vs. Informal), Sequential (vs. Random), Fixed (vs. Variable), Serial (vs. Disjunctive), and Investiture (vs. Divestiture). These tactics are often used by organizations to facilitate the adjustment of newcomers. Jones (1986) further argues that the six tactics of Van Maanen & Schein (1979) should be categorized into two specific dimensions like organizational/institutionalized socialization vs. individualized socialization. According to him, organizational socialization includes tactics like Collective, Formal, Sequential, Fixed, Serial, Investiture, and on the other end as individualized socialization including Individual, Informal, Random, Variable, Disjunctive, and Divestiture. Further with the help of theorization of Van Maanen & Schien (1979) and Jones (1986), research indicates that organizational socialization has been used by organizations to encourage confirmation of newcomers (Allen & Mayer, 1990; As forth & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986)

2.3 Tactics of Socialization

Socialization tactics refer to the methods organizations use to help newcomers to adapt themselves to early entry experiences, by reducing the uncertainty and anxiety associated
with the reality faced by them while joining a new organization and to develop desired or necessary attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge required to fulfill organizational role (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

The six tactics suggested by Van Maanen & Schein (1979), consists of bipolar continuum. These are Collective (vs. Individual) socialization reflects grouping and putting newcomers through a common set of experiences rather than treating each of them independently and putting them through unique set of experiences. Collective versus Individual socialization tactics are hypothesized to produce divergent role orientations. With Collective tactics, newcomers go through common learning experiences designed to produce standardized responses to situations. In group settings interactions among newcomers reinforce the definition of the situation offered by socialization agents. By contrast, Individualized socialization practices give each newcomer a unique set of learning experiences that allows heterogeneity in their responses. Collective socialization is efficient and allows newcomers to learn from and bond with one another. Tactics that are more collective also provide a common message about the organization, roles, and appropriate responses. This tactics reduces uncertainty concerning roles and develop greater sense of shared values (Baker & Feldman, 1991; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Feldman, 1994).

Formal (vs. Informal) socialization suggests separating newcomers from more experienced colleagues rather than not clearly distinguishing a newcomer from others. Formal tactics segregate newcomers into clearly defined socialization activities such as training programme while they learn their roles, whereas Informal tactics involve learning on the job during activities that may not be clearly defined socialization activities. When organizations employ Formal tactics, they segregate newcomers from other organizational members while they learn the responsibilities of their roles. With Informal tactics, newcomers become part of work groups and learning takes place on the job. As a result, Formal tactics, especially when coupled with Collective practices, increase the propensity of newcomers to accept definitions of situations offered by significant others in their organizations. This increases the degree to which newcomers will share common norms, values, and attitudes, and develop custodial orientations. By contrast, Informal and Individual tactics provide newcomers with great latitude to make differentiated responses,
and innovative responses are a likely result. Socialization activities that are more formal also provide a consistent message and signal the importance of adapting to the new environment. Thus, tactics that are more formal are also suggested to lead to shared values and reduced uncertainty (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Feldman, 1994).

Sequential (vs. Random) socialization reflects a set of specific information to newcomers about the sequence of learning activities and experiences whereas this sequence is absent in a Random process. Sequential tactics may reduce anxiety and stress during adjustment to a new environment. Sequential tactics provide recruits with explicit information concerning the sequences of activities or experiences they will go through in their organizations. When a process is Random, they do not know the sequence of its stages. Thus, Random practices will increase the levels of uncertainty of the newcomers since they are missing information concerning their organizational futures. Tactics that are more Sequential indicates specific training events that are intended to reduce process uncertainty. Newcomers desire to establish routine works which help them to develop a sense of personal control (Feldman & Brett, 1983). Thus tactics that are more Sequential may reduce anxiety and stress associated with the adjustment procedure to a new environment.

Fixed (vs. Variable) socialization provides information to newcomers about the timing associated with completing each socialization stage whereas there is lack of timing in a Variable process. Similar to tactics that are more Sequential, tactics that are more Fixed by indicating the timing of progression through specific stages of socialization reduce uncertainty and anxiety and may help newcomers develop a sense of control over their new environment. Fixed tactics provide recruits with precise knowledge of the timetables associated with completing each stage in the organizational processes. By contrast, Variable socialization tactics provide no information about when newcomers may reach a certain stage in a learning process. Variable practice will increase the levels of uncertainty of the newcomers as they are missing information regarding their organizational futures.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argued that Serial (vs. Disjunctive) socialization provide experienced organizational member as role models whereas Disjunctive tactics do not provide experienced models. More Serial tactics take the advantage of social learning processes to help newcomers a sense of competence and task mastery (Bandura, 1991).
Relationships with experienced insiders aid in making sense of the environment and provide resources to turn to for assistance (Louis, 1980). Mentorship program deliberately pair a newcomer with a senior role model so that the newcomer can hopefully bond with the senior member of the organization and learn ‘insider’ information.

Investiture (vs. Divestiture) socialization provide newcomers social support from experienced colleagues whereas Divestiture tactics provide more negative social feedback till the newcomers adapt themselves to the new environment. Tactics that are more Investing helps the newcomers to develop the sense of competence. An important aspect of newcomer adjustment is gaining a proper sense of competence and confidence (Feldman, 1976). Organizations use executive search because they wish to hire individuals with certain aptitude and knowledge. Individuals are basically valued for what they bring to the organization.

**Figure 2.1: Socialization Tactics**

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<th>Tactis concerned mainly with</th>
<th>Organizational</th>
<th>Individualized</th>
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<td>Context</td>
<td>Collective Formal</td>
<td>Individual Informal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Fixed Sequential</td>
<td>Variable Random</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>Serial Investiture</td>
<td>Disjunctive Divestiture</td>
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Source: Jones (1986) modified

In the empirical study on socialization tactics, Jones (1986) classified the tactics as being either organizational (consisting of Collective, Formal, Sequential, Fixed, Serial, and Investiture) or individualized (consisting of Individual, Informal, Random, Variable, Disjunctive, and Divestiture) (Figure 2.1). According to Jones, the Collective, Formal, Sequential, Fixed, Serial and Investiture tactics encourage newcomers to passively accept established rules, thereby reinforcing the status quo. On the other hand, at the opposite end of the continuum, the Individual, Informal, Random, Variable, Disjunctive and Divestiture tactics encourage newcomers to examine and challenge the status quo and develop their own approaches to their roles.
Jones (1986) also argued that the six tactics have their distinct foci. Firstly Collective (vs. Individual) and Formal (vs. Informal) pertain mainly to the context in which organizations provide information to the newcomers. In spite of the fact that the basic logic behind the term context is uncertain, there exists a clear similarity between the two tactics. The tactics refer to common and shared experiences among newcomers (Collective) in an environment explicitly oriented toward training (Formal). In this context, newcomers are usually provided with orientation in a group setting, separated from other existing organizational members and are provided with more structured formal experiences. Newcomers are not likely to have many interactions with experienced co-workers or even supervisors. In contrast, socialization contexts that are more individually oriented offer informal learning experiences and individuals are socialized separately (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). When the context of organizational socialization is institutionalized, newcomers will be unlikely to interact with experienced co-workers, supervisors, and potential mentors, indeed, most contact will be with other newcomers. Therefore, their ability to seek information from and build relationships with these sources will be seriously curtailed. Also, due to the structured nature of the entry experience, where activities and work are specifically defined, newcomers will be less likely to be able to engage in job change negotiations or involve themselves in extra work-related activities. Socialization experiences are structured and uniformly applied to all newcomers in an organizational context. In other words, because newcomers in individual contexts are not provided with specific socialization experiences, anything that they can do to facilitate their own socialization should have a bigger effect than if they were provided with lock-step socialization experiences.

Secondly, Sequential (vs. Random) and Fixed (vs. Variable) are said to pertain mainly to the content of the information provide via socialization. Although the rationale for the term content is unclear, there is an obvious affinity between the tactics; both refer to a step pattern, where stages are specified in a fixed order (Sequential) with clear temporal demarcations (Fixed). However step pattern does not mean that the stages are necessarily identical in subject matter, difficulty or duration. In other words organizational content tactics (Sequential and Fixed) are characterized by having newcomers move through a specific order of assignments or positions according to a set timetable, i.e., there is a specific set of socialization steps which occur at specific intervals (Black & Ashford, 1995). Individualized content tactics (Random and Variable) are characterized by having
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no set pattern of positions or timetables for newcomers to follow as they become socialized. Thus, the content dimension of organizational socialization tactics varies the degree of ambiguity faced by newcomers (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Baker, 1995). Individualized content allows for variability in the socialization and career paths of newcomers, the social guidance, career support, and sponsorship gained from informal networks and mentors (e.g., Chao et al, 1992) may play a more important role than when the newcomers progression is more institutionalized. Furthermore, any activities that give the newcomer experience or exposure, such as engagement in extra work activities, should also be more effective when content tactics are individualized as opposed to organizational.

Finally Serial (vs. Disjunctive) and Investiture (vs. Divestiture) pertain mainly to the social aspect of the socialization process because they directly implicate other organizational members. The Serial tactic implicates more experienced members as role models and Investiture implicates others as source of social support. On the organizational side of this continuum are Serial tactics whereby newcomers are provided with mentors or more experienced job incumbents to serve as role models. On the individualized side are Disjunctive tactics where newcomers do not have access to prior job incumbents or role models. At the organizational end of the continuum, Investiture tactics suggest to the newcomer that he or she is valued and the organization accepts his or her identity. On the other hand individualized Divestiture tactics communicate to newcomers that their previous identity is not accepted and that they must change to fit the organization. The above tactics vary primarily along the dimension of whether the newcomer has social support or not. The nature of the Disjunctive experience would also deter newcomers from actively building relationships with co-workers and supervisors because the organization is consciously demonstrating a lack of social support for these newcomers; it is difficult to attempt to form relationships with others that are acting as though one is not accepted by the group. In contrast, Investiture tactics, which serve to make newcomers feel valued and welcomed, should explicitly lead to such proactive bonding (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In Disjunctive situations are expected to be more likely to form informal mentor relationships because they have not received a formal mentor or role model as have newcomers in a Serial situation. Also, they would be less likely to engage in observation or modeling because there is less likely to be an appropriate role model present.
Opposing Jones view, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argues that the Fixed and Investiture tactics should predict an innovative role orientation because a set of timetable for assumptions of the role provides newcomers with the security they need to challenge the status quo, and at the same time Investiture allows newcomers to retain their individuality, thereby facilitating innovative approaches to their roles.

2.3.1 Organizational Socialization Tactics
Organizational socialization is simply a process through which individuals learn the behaviors, attitude and skills necessary to fulfill their new roles. Organizational socialization tactics is characterized by common learning experiences i.e. Collective tactics and it takes place outside a newcomers work setting as it is Formal socialization. Organizational socialization tactics offers guidelines about sequence and timing of progression in an organization which lead to Sequential and Fixed tactics respectively. This continuum explains the existence of role model forming Serial socialization tactic and social supports from organizational members to develop self identity of the newcomers constituting Investiture. Organizational tactics reflect a more structured program of socialization. Few studies have found that organizational socialization tactics were positively related to information sharing and feedback seeking behaviors. Organizational socialization tactics helps in reducing early work uncertainty and also helps the transition of newcomers to become organizational insider. Organizational socialization tactics are associated with various indicators for the adjustment of newcomers through low role ambiguity and conflict and high organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mignerey et al, 1995). Organizational socialization tactics also affects employees, because it increases social comfort and understanding of organizational norms by encouraging interactions with experienced organizational members who offer positive social support (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Jones, 1986). Thus, organizational socialization tactics reduce employee anxiety by encouraging a sense of community and information sharing.

2.3.2 Individualized Socialization Tactics
Individualized socialization is characterized by unique learning process (Individual), on-the-job training (Informal), and little information about sequence (Random), lack of timing of career progression (Variable) as well as requires newcomers to develop their own roles (Disjunctive) and discontinuing identity of the newcomers by organizational members (Divestiture). With the exception of Divestiture tactic, the individualized tactics are...
primarily defined by what they are not. They do not involve grouping newcomers and subjecting them to a common set of experiences. They also do not involve segregating a newcomer from existing organizational member and do not involve a well defined series of stages that unfold according to a set timetable. Not only this, they also do not involve use of a mentor as role model. Indeed individualized socialization tends to reflect an absence of structure such that newcomers are socialized more by default than design (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1997). Individualized socialization tactics result in an ambiguous and unstructured socialization experience in which expectations and role requirements are unclear, newcomers need to be proactive in order to reduce the inherent ambiguity and uncertainty. In other words, individualized socialization almost forces newcomers to be proactive in order to acquire the necessary information that can lower their uncertainty and allow them to make sense of their surroundings.

2.4 Socialization Tactics and Adjustment of Newcomers

According to Fisher’s (1986) review of the literature, newcomer adjustment following organizational entry consists of working through both task and social transition. Organizations directly or indirectly create situations under which newcomers must adjust to their new environments representing different socialization tactics. Organizations differ in terms of goals for newcomers ranging from conformity to innovation and newcomers must learn what is expected from them through the adjustment process. Socialization has a major impact on adjustment of newcomers, as it helps them to learn about organizations and the requirement of role performance (Fisher 1986; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Jones (1986) argued that some of the tactics might be more strongly related to newcomer adjustment than others “because different tactics provide information in different ways.” Consistent with these propositions, Jones (1986) and others have found that the six tactics associated with organizational socialization were negatively related to role ambiguity, role conflict, and intentions to quit, and positively related to job satisfaction, organizational socialization helps in reducing early work uncertainty and also helps the newcomers transition of being organizational insider. Jones (1986) argued that the tactics reflecting organizational socialization encourages newcomer to passively accept the organizational status quo producing a custodial role orientation. On the other hand, individualized socialization encourages the newcomer to develop unique approaches to their roles producing an innovative role orientation. Other studies related to Jones also deals with the relationship between socialization tactics and adjustment of newcomers. Baker (1989)
found that organizational socialization was negatively associated with intentions to quit and positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Baker and Feldman (1990) found that organizational socialization was positively associated with peer trust, management trust, job satisfaction and organizational commitment but had a mixed effect on job tension and was not related to job involvement. Allen and Meyer (1990) and Baker (1992) suggested a positive relation between organizational socialization and organizational commitment. Organizational socialization is associated with various indicators related to the adjustment of newcomers by reducing role ambiguity and simultaneously increasing organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mignerey et al, 1995). Mignerey and colleagues (1995) also reported that organizational socialization is having a positive relation with satisfaction with communication in an organization and an individual’s confidence in perceptions of his or her supervisor. Further Zahrly and Tosi (1989) categorized newcomers into either Formal or Collective (organizational) or Informal or Individual (individualized) socialization groups and found that membership in the former was positively correlated with job satisfaction and cohesion and negatively correlated with role conflict. Membership was not significantly associated with job involvement or role ambiguity. The present study operationalizes the adjustment of newcomers with the help of psychological adjustment to the job and wider organizations i.e. intention to quit (reversed) and organizational commitment.

2.5 Organizational Socialization

2.5.1 Meaning of Organizational Socialization

Organizational socialization has been defined as the process by which newcomers are transformed from outsiders to participating and effective members (Feldman, 1976). The process of organizational socialization entails the learning of a cultural perspective i.e. a perspective for interpreting one’s experiences in a given sphere of the work world (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Newcomers go from being outsiders to becoming insiders through organizational socialization, a process of learning the ropes (Schein, 1968). Organizational socialization plays an important role in the adjustment and learning process of employees. Several theorists have argued that organizational socialization is multidimensional. These dimensions should be relatively independent such that socialization in one area will not affect socialization in another area. Literature review suggested that basically there exist six dimensions like, performance proficiency, people,
politics, languages, history, organizational goals and values. Traditionally, organizational socialization is concerned with the organizations influence on an individual's learning (Schein & Ott, 1962).

As discussed by Edgar H. Schein (1968), the concept of "organizational socialization" refers to the process by which an individual becomes acquainted with the goals, the value system, the norms, and the preferred behavior patterns of an organization. While organizational socialization does not include all learning, it does include the learning of those goals, values, norms, and preferred behavior patterns which are necessary for continued organization membership. Researchers of organizational socialization processes seem to agree on two points: (1) socialization is an important part of organization entry; and (2) the socialization and adjustment process is stressful for newcomers. Beyond these two points, however, lies the controversy over whether or not the socialization process contributes to organizational performance. One faction contends that the socialization process does affect organizational performance through its effects on individual and group performance (Schein, 1961, 1968, 1971; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). By 'learning the ropes', the newcomer becomes a contributing organization insider, and the performance of the organization is based on contributions from individuals. Socialization processes occur regardless of management efforts; that is, in the absence of formal programmes newcomers will be socialized by the informal social organization (Katz, 1985).

2.5.2 Theories of Organizational Socialization

Some writers have acknowledged the conceptual linkages between organizational socialization and group development (Bakke, 1953; Louis, 1980; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). It is argued here that virtually any established group must engage in some redevelopment to accommodate the entrance of just one newcomer. That is, when newcomers enter organizations they usually become members of several groups-for example, functional, friendship, hierarchical, and/or "cultural" (race, sex, age, ethnic). Even though the newcomer may be "alone" in the sense of being the only newcomer, the groups joined are themselves changed during the assimilation process (Bakke, 1953; Paulus, 1980). Similarly, the newcomer must take on a particular role, and the newcomer's role may necessitate some role changing on the part of established group members. Organizational socialization is based on the following theory.
2.5.2.1 Social Learning Theory
Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) is a view of human behavior as a continuous, reciprocal interaction among cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors. The three major concepts in social learning theory are vicarious learning, use of symbols, and self-regulatory processes. Bandura argues forcibly that much human behavior can be learned vicariously by observation. Bandura also argues that there is a significant role to be accorded self-regulation of behavior. He dismisses the notion that people are merely passive reactors to external influences. As a basic approach to the study of human behavior, social learning theory suggests that organizational socialization and group development should be integrated because the focal processes of each are so similar. Another reason why social learning theory is important because the type of learning that occurs during socialization and/or group development typically is interpersonal in nature (how to relate to others), more than it is strictly symbolic (learning calculus). In addition to this, the typical knowledge acquired during socialization and group development concerns molar patterns of interpersonal behavior that can be played out in more than one way or example, how to show loyalty to a new organization or how to be supportive of fellow group members.

2.5.2.2 Role Making/Taking Theory
A second overarching process suggested here as a means to integrate thinking about group development and newcomer socialization is role theory. (Kahn, et.al, 1964). As the content of the social learning process is a role (whether as a newcomer or as an effective small group member), it is particularly appropriate that role making/taking also be considered as a way to link the organizational socialization and group development models. Role expectations are two-way communications between employee and supervisor, or between newcomer and insider. Furthermore, Graen (1976) asserts that organizational socialization is an excellent opportunity to study the role making/taking process because it is a period of great transition.

Graen (1976) attempted to improve the predictive power of role theory by linking it to the expectancy theory of motivation. Because expectancy theory (Lawler, 1973; Vroom, 1964) is a process model of motivation, and it is the one that has been used successfully to make predictions. Graen (1976) uses expectancy theory to show how bosses "type cast"
subordinates into roles and how individuals themselves choose particular roles, for example, winners, good citizens, or losers.

In addition to this, Graen's (1976) view of role making/taking does not explicitly state that the small, face-to-face group is a significant factor. Instead, he emphasizes one-on-one interchanges between a leader and a subordinate. Graen's work (Graen, 1969, 1976; Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973) provides some worthwhile ideas for theory building and for conducting research that integrates organizational socialization and group dynamics. The emphasis on process during the role making/taking, the addition of expectancy theory, and the emphasis on studying newcomer socialization are all useful. The implications of these ideas are that research should include multiple sources of data for different perspectives on role expectations and that an important basic unit of analysis is interpersonal interaction.

2.5.2.3 Field Theory

Field theory is one of the most practical and influential social psychological theories of the 20th century (Argyris, 1989). According to field theory, behavior is a function of the field or life space of the individual, including the person and the psychological environment as it exists for that individual. Understanding individual behavior in organizations requires considering a wide range of determinants as parts of a single interdependent field of physical, psychological, environmental, and social forces. The individual is embedded within this field, and the effects of a given stimulus depend on the nature of this field much as the perceived form, size, and color of an object may vary widely according to the background and the rest of the visual field (Lewin, 1951).

Field theory has several important potential implications for newcomer socialization and turnover. Entering a new job and organization is akin to entering a cognitively unstructured field, which motivates individuals to cognitively map out and find structure in the new field (Lewin, 1951). Socialization researchers have recognized this process, noting that entering a new organization is typically accompanied by some degree of disorientation, reality shock, and a need to make sense of the new environment (Louis, 1980). A transition in one’s psychological field into a less structured situation also leaves individuals in a more formative state and more prone to extreme behaviors (Lewin, 1951). Thus, newcomers who struggle to adapt may adopt the somewhat extreme response of leaving the organization when faced with initial failures. This may be particularly true in
the encounter or accommodation stage of the socialization process in which the newcomer enters the organization and attempts to make sense of the new environment and his or her place in it (Bauer et al., 1998; Feldman, 1976).

2.5.2.4 Uncertainty Reduction Theory
Perhaps the most common theoretical framework driving socialization research has been uncertainty reduction theory (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Lester, 1987). Following the theory, newcomers experience high levels of uncertainty during the organizational entry process. Newcomers, like any organizational members, are motivated to reduce their uncertainty such that the work environment becomes more predictable, understandable, and ultimately controllable. Uncertainty is reduced through the information provided via various communication channels, notably social interactions with superiors and peers. As uncertainty decreases, newcomers become more inclined towards performing their tasks, more satisfied with their job, and more likely to remain in their organization (Morrison, 1993). Socialization programs influence the adjustment of newcomers by reducing their high levels of uncertainty and anxiety. As described later, uncertainty reduction theory has been the tacit basis for research on socialization tactics, training, and information seeking. For example, according to Mignerey, Rubin, and Gorden (1995), socialization tactics influence the availability and acquisition of information and feedback that newcomers require to reduce their high levels of uncertainty. Baker (1995) found that role certainty is an important latent factor of socialization tactics. Saks (1996) found that both the amount and helpfulness of entry training were related to lower anxiety, and anxiety mediated the relations between entry training and work outcomes. Miller and Jablin’s (1991) model of newcomer information seeking has its basis in newcomers desires to reduce uncertainty.

2.5.2.5 Social Cognitive Theory
Another theoretical basis for socialization research has been Bandura’s (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory. According to social cognitive theory (SCT), human behavior and psychosocial functioning can be explained as triadic reciprocal causation which indicates that behavior, cognitive, personal factors, and environmental events interact and influence each other reciprocally (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Three aspects of SCT have been recognized as particularly relevant for organizational functioning, vicarious learning and mastery modeling, goal systems, and self-regulatory mechanisms of which self-efficacy beliefs are the most important (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy
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has been defined as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands” (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Self-efficacy theory identifies four sources of information that influence self-efficacy perceptions (enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states) as well as the effects it has on individual behavior and psychological well-being (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Several studies conducted during the review period used concepts from Bandura’s work to understand the socialization process. A number of studies have demonstrated the role of self-efficacy as a direct, moderating, and mediating variable. Self-efficacy theory has also been used to integrate the socialization and training literatures (Saks, 1995). Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found a result consistent with social cognitive theory where they indicated that newcomers acquired information from role models i.e. supervisors and co-workers and also through observation and experimentation which helps them to master their task and role. Later on Saks and Ashforth’s (1996) studied behavioral self-management on the basis of self regulatory component of social cognitive theory.

2.5.2.6 Cognitive and Sense Making Theory

Finally, Louis’ (1980) cognitive approach to socialization, in which newcomers attempt to make sense of the surprises they encounter during socialization, has driven much of the research on information seeking and acquisition. Sense making is a thinking process in which newcomers interpret and impute meanings to surprises through interactions with insiders, attribution processes, and the alteration of cognitive scripts (Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987). According to Katz (1980), newcomers strive to construct situational definitions of organizational reality and role identities through social interactions. This is a process of developing an “interpretive schema” or “cognitive map” of one’s organizational surroundings (Falcione & Wilson, 1988; Weick, 1995). The potential of cognitive and sense making theory to inform our understanding of socialization is vast. For example, this theory has underpinned research on information seeking and acquisition although research has not yet examined the cognitive factors involved in information processing and sense making. Similarly, Baker (1995) found that interactions with job incumbents are an important latent factor of socialization tactics but it is not known how such interactions are cognitively transformed into organizational definitions and meanings. The potential for this type of research has been recognized by Wanous, Reichers, and Malik (1984) who suggested causal mapping as a way to trace the development of
newcomers sense making activities. Thus, although the cognitive approach of sense making has provided the premise for many studies, the focus has been more on information seeking behaviors and interactions and less on the cognitive processes and interpretations that newcomers supposedly enact.

2.5.3 Organizational Socialization and Performance of Newcomers

Newcomer adjustment is related to performance. Socialization help newcomer adapt to their work environment by facilitating their adjustment to the organizational values and norms, by clarifying role identities, by developing job and performance related skills and capacities. Employees who are clear about role expectations are more likely to perform well, and those who believe they can accomplish their tasks tend to have greater goal accomplishment. Employees who are socially accepted by peers may perform at higher levels, given that the relationships they form with their peers may serve as social capital that facilitates their job performance (Bauer & Green, 1994). Thus, a positive relation between adjustment and job performance is expected. The organization would perceive a positive adjustment if the employees net contribution to the organization i.e. achievement of corporate objectives is positive. In other word the employee should contribute more to the organization than he or she took from the organization. In general managers prefer employees who are satisfied, remain on the job, contribute positively towards the accomplishment of organizational goals and resolve conflicts between work and non work roles (Guion 1981). Positive accomplishment of goals leads to organizational commitment. Commitment and performance is supposed to be related to each other. An individual who is committed to an organization is "supposed" to input above-over- age effort on its behalf (Chonko 1986; Mowday et al. 1982). On the other hand it can be established that an insider who is an undistinguished performer may have his or her job motivation renewed by taking the responsibility of working with a newcomer (Chao 1997).

Further it has been argued that socialization related learning may be an important mediator between effect and job performance. Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found that socialization has an important relationship with the performance of newcomers because the process of learning the ropes provides the employee with important technical and interpersonal information necessary for optimal job performance. Later on Lee (1994) observed that new engineers who formed a stronger social tie to their more experienced
co-workers and supervisors predicted higher job performance because they were more likely to obtain the information needed to perform their job well through their interactions. On the contrary new engineers who formed stronger social ties to their newcomer peers instead predicted negative job performance as they were less likely to get hold of useful information for performing their job more efficiently. Thus it can be highlighted that without proactively acquiring all important job related information by observing and asking co–workers only, reduces magnitude of overall workplace learning and at the same time affects job performance level.

2.6 Individualized Socialization

Individualized socialization is the process by which individuals acquire the knowledge, language, social skills and value to confirm to the norms and roles required for integration into a group or community. It is a combination of both self-imposed (because the individual wants to confirm) and externally–imposed rules and the expectations of the others. Individualized socialization encourages new comers to develop unique approaches to their roles, producing an innovative role orientation. It predicts performance. It is said to encourage on innovative role orientation, so that it can be said that it reduces constraints on achievement. Thus according to Baker (1990) it is positively associated with internal work motivation. It fosters an individual to adhere pivotal organizational values and goals but exercises freedom and creativity in realizing those values and goals. From employees viewpoint it is a process of learning the ways to survive and enhances one’s own prosperity within the firm.

Among the socialization tactics individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive and investiture tactics leads to individualized socialization. These tactics encourage the new comers to question the status quo and develop their own approach to their roles producing an innovative role orientation. This phenomenon is referred to as individualized socialization. Individualized socialization reflects a formal program and it is related to actual role innovation.
2.7. Drivers of Successful Socialization

2.7.1 Individual Drivers

2.7.1.1 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has received a great deal of attention in the human resources and organizational behavior literatures. Self-efficacy perceptions are judgments regarding one's capability to successfully perform specific tasks and behaviors. Bandura (1986) defined self-efficacy as "people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances. It is concerned not only with the skills one has but with judgments of what one can do with whatever skills one possesses". Thus, perceived self-efficacy is a significant determinant of performance that operates partially independently of underlying skills (Bandura, 1986). It involves a generative capability in which one must organize cognitive, social, and behavioral sub skills into integrated courses of action (Bandura, 1986).

Gardner and Pierce (1998) and Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) state that self-efficacy can be viewed from both a specific and a general angle. An example of a specific angle would be task-specific self-efficacy, which can be seen as an expectation or judgment about the likelihood that a task will be successfully performed. It is a powerful motivator of behavior, as efficacy expectations determine the initial decision to perform a task, the effort that gets expended and the level of persistence that emerges in the face of adversity. Self-efficacy can also be viewed as a general, stable cognition or trait that individuals hold with them that reflects the expectation that they possess the ability to perform a task successfully in a variety of situations, according to Eden and Zuk (1995).

Gist and Mitchell (1992) highlighted three important aspects of self-efficacy. First, they noted that self-efficacy involves a comprehensive summary or judgment of one's perceived capability for performing a specific task. In organizations, the information that is used in the formation of this judgment comes from the individual, the task, and others in the organization. Second, self-efficacy involves a mobilization or motivational component. Third, self-efficacy is a dynamic construct that changes over time and in response to new experiences and information. One important source of information that has been found to be especially effective in changing self-efficacy beliefs is the information and experience one acquires through training.
Bandura (1977) in his cognitive theory identifies four ways in which self-efficacy is learned and self efficacy expectations are acquired, mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion and physical/ affective status.

**Mastery Experience**

The most effective way of creating a strong sense of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences. Enactive mastery, defined as repeated performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1982) has been shown to enhance self-efficacy to a large extent. The manner in which accomplishments are received has an influence on an individual’s self-efficacy expectations and actions. Successes build a strong belief in one’s personal efficacy, while failures undermine it. Further, while positive mastery experiences increase self-efficacy, failures tend to decrease self-efficacy according to Gist (1987). When individuals experience only easy successes, they come to expect quick results. Failure discourages them. Thus sometimes setbacks play a vital role in teaching that success usually requires sustained effort. Once individuals’ become convinced they “have what it takes”, they persevere and quickly rebound from setbacks or failures. This builds self-efficacy and they overcome quickly from setbacks.

**Vicarious Experiences**

People do not rely on mastery experience as the sole source of information concerning their level of self–efficacy. Many expectations are derived from vicarious experience. In observing the modeling behaviors of others, the learner is able to reflect on past experiences with such behavior and make meaning of its relevance in a new situation (Bandura, 1977). The impact of modeling on perceived self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models. Modeling is more effective when the models succeed after overcoming difficulty than when they exhibit initially facile performances (Bandura, Adams, Hardy & Howells, 1980). Self-modeling is a special type of vicarious experience often involving videotaped feedback in which the individual’s mistakes are edited out. This promotes the idea of perfection as the individual can see herself/ himself performing the task correctly. Some theorists confirmed that self modeling led to improved performance by enhancing self-belief.
Verbal Persuasion

People’s beliefs about self are influenced by the messages conveyed by others. Encouragement supports self-efficacy, criticism hampers it. Verbal persuasion is believed to influence efficacy perceptions in some situations, but it is viewed as less effective than modeling or enactive mastery (Bandura, 1982). People, who are verbally persuaded that they possess the skills and capabilities to master a given activity, are likely to show more determination and sustain it. Verbal persuasion, promote people to develop skills and lead them to try harder to succeed. According to Bandura (1977), individuals who have been persuaded that they lack capabilities, tend to avoid challenging activities that cultivate potential and give up quickly in the face of adversity.

Physical or Affective Status

Stress and anxiety have a negative effect on self-efficacy. Bandura and Adams (1977) found that in anxiety-producing situations, modeling yielded higher self efficacy and performance than psychological desensitization. Some people interpret their stress reaction and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance. Bandura (1977) states that mood also affects people’s judgments of their personal efficacy. By reducing stress reactions and altering people’s negative emotional proclivities of their physical state, self-efficacy beliefs can be modified.

Many studies have reported significant correlations between self-efficacy and subsequent task performance. Efficacy perceptions still predict subsequent performance, even in studies where efficacy perceptions have been altered. Bandura (1977) noted that although active mastery yields the greatest increase in self-efficacy, correlations between self-efficacy and performance remain high for non-enactive modes such as modeling. Studies conducted by Feltz (1982) provided some evidence that as experience with a task increases, past performance becomes more predictive than self-efficacy. It needs to be noted that Feltz’s study involved a task in which subjects were unable to observe their performance and no feedback was provided (Gist, 1987). Under these circumstances self-efficacy may have lacked veridicality. Locke et al. (1984) found that when past performance was controlled, self-efficacy was a significant predictor of subsequent performance. The correlation between self-efficacy and past performance was however higher, than the correlation between self-efficacy and future performance.
2.7.1.2 Employee Proactivity

Literature on socialization tactics elaborately portrays newcomers as relatively passive recipients of organizational efforts and information, research on proactivity emphasizes the active role that newcomers often play in learning about and possibly altering their work context (Crant, 2000). Ashford and Black’s (1996) typology of proactive behaviors is trying to modify one’s tasks and others’ expectations (information seeking, feedback seeking, job-change negotiating) positive framing (i.e., attempting to see things in an optimistic way), general socializing (i.e., participating in social events), building a relationship with one’s boss, and networking. Few studies suggested that proactivity is associated with positive adjustment, presumably because newcomers are actively engaging in and tailoring their own socialization. However, few studies have examined the association between newcomer proactivity and knowledge acquisition. Some theorists argued that proactive behavior facilitates learning because the individual is likely to investigate on (1) precisely those topics about which he or she is unsure and (2) in a manner and pace with which he or she is comfortable. In actively engaging the context, the newcomer not only generates information about his or her tasks, coworkers, and so on, but may substantively modify the context to better suit his or her needs and preferences, thereby enhancing learning.

Employee proactivity has important implications for the effects of firms’ socialization tactics. Although firms may implement different types of people-processing activities in order to socialize and manage employees in certain ways (Bauer et al., 1998; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), employees’ proactivity may affect the socialization process. For example, a firm may attempt to engender creativity and innovation through low-institutionalized socialization tactics, but this tactic may not be effective for proactive individuals who seek out information and embed themselves socially into the organization. From this perspective, employee proactivity may moderate the relationship between socialization tactics and person-organization fit. Ashford and Black (1996) also found individual differences between employees’ desire for control and the types of proactive activities they engaged in during entry. However, researchers suggest that employees vary in their proactivity after joining organizations, such that individuals with greater desire for control become much more active in the socialization process.
According to Ashford and Black (1996) there exist few general types of employee proactivity like positive framing (interpreting the environment positively) and sense making (seeking out information and feedback) etc.

**Positive Framing**
Viewing work as a challenge rather than as a threat is a coping mechanism that allows employees to feel proactive and able to succeed in their new environments (Ashford & Black, 1996). They further observed that positive framing was significantly related to the performance and job satisfaction of the newcomers. Wanberg and Kammeyer- Mueller (2000) found that new hires who tried to look at the positive side of things were more likely to be satisfied with their jobs several months after starting. It is to be noted here that every employee does not apply positive frames to interpret their new environments, however, it is expected that individual differences in proactivity affects the link between institutionalized socialization tactics and employees’ person - organization fit. Theoretically, when employees prepare themselves with positive frames, they are likely to perceive an organization’s institutionalized activities as positive and helpful rather than overbearing, paternalistic, and mass-produced. Positive framing should therefore help employees interpret information offered during socialization in ways that help them adapt to the firm’s values.

**Sense Making**
Sense making, refers to information seeking and feedback seeking, is a second way that employees can be proactive in terms of dealing with their environments and the inevitable surprises that occur (Ashford & Black, 1996). As employees gain information about their work setting and the social expectations that exist and gain feedback on their own performance and activities, they are able to reduce uncertainty and learn their place in the organization (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Thus, employees who respond to organizational surprises with increased information-seeking and feedback-seeking behaviors learn more about the organizational values and how to adapt to those values.

### 2.7.2 Organizational Structural Drivers

#### 2.7.2.1 Information Sharing
Newcomers after entering in the organization basically engage themselves in information seeking. This phenomenon is important for organizational newcomers for two primary
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reasons. Firstly information reduces uncertainty (Berger, 1979; Berlyne, 1960; Lanzetta, 1971) and helps the newcomer to understand, predict and control the new organizational environment. Secondly, information sharing enables newcomer to compensate the fact that they are often not provided with the information that they need to master the job and become integrated into the organization (Dirsmith & Covalaski, 1985; Graen, Orris & Johnson, 1973; Jablin, 1984).

Researches on socialization highlighted the importance of newcomers learning i.e. how to perform their new jobs and suggested that they need to acquire job related skills and knowledge. Although the newcomers attain some job related information prior to their organizational entry which is basically informal or organization – specific, still they need to attain on job information to become organizational insider (Comer, 1991; Dirsmith & Covaleski, 1985). Thus it can be stated that at the very beginning the newcomers seek technical information about how to perform the required job task. To accomplish the task of mastering the jobs, the newcomers need information about what others expect from them (Louis; 1980; Katz, 1980, 1985). At the same time the newcomers also need another type of information which is termed as referent information, i.e., information about role demand and expectations (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Socialization literatures further attempted to identify two most important socialization tasks such as adapting to an organization’s culture and becoming integrated into a work group (Feldman, 1976; Fisher, 1986; Katz, 1980; Louis, 1980; Reichers, 1987). To accomplish these tasks and to function effectively within the organization, the newcomers need to identify prevailing organizational norms and values. Thus the newcomers actively seek normative information, i.e., information about expected behaviors and attitudes (Comer, 1991; Louis, 1990).

Several studies have highlighted that newcomers are more likely to seek information’s that are useful or important for mastering their new role (Comer, 1991; Morrison, 1995). Newcomers information seeking has also been shown to relate positively to desire or control (Ashford & Black, 1996) and to feelings that one has not adequately mastered the job (Chan & Schmitt, 2000), suggesting that newcomers are trying to gain a sense of efficacy and competence.

Information seeking positively helps newcomers to learn about and settle into their new job role. Morrison (1993) observed that the frequency with which newcomers sought
technical and feedback information was positively related to subsequent feelings of job mastery and role clarity. At the same time the frequency with which newcomers sought normative information was related to subsequent feelings of social information. Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found that obtaining information from supervisors and peers had relatively little relationship with newcomers reported knowledge, although indirect forms of information seeking did relate to perceived knowledge. Further it has been highlighted that information seeking is to be unrelated to subsequent performance and negatively related to subsequent satisfaction (Ashford & Black, 1996).

### 2.7.2.2 Feedback Sharing

Feedback indicates where individuals behavior or performance is in appropriate and enables them to make adjustments where needed. It is also predicted that the newcomers seek both performance feedback, i.e. information about how others perceive and evaluate their job performance and social feedback, i.e. information about the acceptability of their non task behavior. Basically in order to successfully adjust to jobs as well as with the organization newcomers need feedback. Ashford & Cummings (1983) argued that feedback is a resource that enables employees to reach both organizationally determined and individually held goals. They also proposed that when employees are unsure about expectations or about their own performance they may decide to seek out information.

The most well accepted thought behind feedback sharing is the desire to obtain useful information about one’s performance that can be used not only to reduce uncertainty but also to self–evaluate, gain competence and correct errors. In the situation of high uncertainty feedback seeking is more frequent if the uncertainty tolerance level is also very low. Ashford and Cummings (1983) also identified two feedback seeking modes. First is inquiry, which deals with directly asking another person for information and the second one is monitoring, which deals with attending to a situation the behavior of others to obtain information cues. In case of inquiry asking for information may make the seeker appear insecure or incompetent. It may also annoy the information target. Direct information seeking may also reveal deficiencies in the seeker’s interpersonal skills. Thus individuals try to avoid direct inquiry to protect their image.

Simultaneously in case of monitoring, the information seeker must interpret what he or she observes. Since individuals often make error while interpreting information cues. Thus a
potential cost of monitoring is misinterpretation. In spite of this Ashford’s (1986) study of feedback seeking suggested that employees reported engaging in monitoring more frequently than they reported engaging in inquiry.

Feedback seeking process gives rise to two types of outcomes – positive outcomes and negative outcomes. It has been observed by Ashford and Tusi (1991), that seeking negative feedback is useful not only for improving performance, but also for managing one’s public image. Individuals who sought negative feedback had more accurate knowledge about how others are evaluating their work. Positive feedback on the other hand had no effect on knowledge of effectiveness. It is consistent with the idea that negative feedback has greater error corrective value than positive feedback.

### 2.7.3 Organizational Relationship Building

Some people are more likely than others to seek out interaction opportunities when they enter a work situation (Morrison, 2002; Reichers, 1987). The newcomers form informal organizational relationships with co-workers, supervisors, and mentors, which act as an important means of successful socialization (Louis, 1980; Reichel's, 1987). These relationships can help the socialization of newcomers by serving as a means of information, advice, social support, stress reduction, and/or skill and role behavior instruction (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983; Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995; Nelson & Quick, 1991; Reichel's, 1987). Empirical research has indicated that, the efforts of the newcomers to build relationships with both peers and supervisors are important to the socialization process (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Settoon & Adkins, 1997).

Newcomers may also form relationships with other insiders who act as informal mentors (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992). There is a great deal of research which points out the positive effects of mentoring on newcomer adjustment (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Dreher & Asch, 1990; Kram, 1983). It is to be noted here that informal mentor relationships, or the initiation of such, has been developed and maintained by the newcomers where as formal mentorship programs are instituted by the organization, not newcomers. In a study comparing formal and informal mentor relationships, it has been found that those in informal relationships received more career-related support from their mentors and higher salaries than those in formal mentor relationships (Chao et al. 1992). Thus informal relationships reported many more favorable outcomes than those who were not mentored at all. Theoretically, these social interaction behaviors can be useful to employees because
they create a situational identity and build friendship networks (Nelson & Quick, 1991), they suggest appropriate skills and role expectations, and they help convey organizational policies (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993, 2002; Reichers, 1987).

2.8 Socialization and Employee Profile

2.8.1 Socialization and Previous Experience of Employees

Organizational newcomers with prior experience are termed as veteran newcomers. Veteran newcomers represent new organizational employees who have experiences in the same occupation but have gained this experience from other organizations. As a result, they are likely to draw on those previous experiences as they progress through the organizational socialization process. For veteran newcomers, the organizational socialization process is more aptly referred to as “re-socialization” (Brett et al., 1990; Feldman, 1989; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), as these veteran newcomers come from one organizational work environment into another.

Beyer and Hannah’s (2002) theory on the socialization of experienced workers provides insight into the psychological mechanisms that influence newcomers with prior experience. First, results obtained from their study indicate that veteran newcomers attempt to attribute meaning to their new work setting by engaging in sense making built on past perceptions and experiences (Louis, 1980; Weick, 1995). As a result, veteran newcomers are found to draw heavily on those cognitions and behaviors they have acquired in similar settings in the past. Thus, past work experience is supposed to have significantly strong effects on socialization to new work roles and settings. Secondly, experienced workers actively participate and engage in sense making as they progress through socialization (Beyer & Hannah, 2002). This active participation seeks to maintain and enact those prior personal identities in an attempt to direct sense making. In addition to this active participation requires veteran newcomers to use different means to gain information about the new work setting (Brett et al., 1990). In effect, veteran newcomers try to understand and integrate their prior knowledge with organization and job related content as they are exposed to information regarding the organization during their socialization (Beyer & Hannah, 2002). At the same time the veteran newcomers follow different strategies to incorporate and assimilate their past experience with the new organizational settings. This assimilation gives rise to successful employee retention. Research by Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) provides recent evidence on the
importance of newcomer adjustment to organizational retention. They highlighted that employees with prior experience use more successfully self-insight to assimilate into the new work setting and thus have reduced levels of voluntary turnover.

Socialization literature suggests that previous work experience may affect an individual's adjustments to a new organization. Louis (1980), in her model of sense-making during organizational socialization, argued that in becoming socialized to a new organization individuals are also turning away from the role relationships and experiences of a previous setting. Thus, the new organizations will he experienced as contrasting with the old organization.

Van Maanen (1984) proposed that individuals when left to their own devices, learn new skills (or roles, or occupations, etc.) in much the same ways they learned old skills that are seen as similar to the new. He coined the term "socialization chain" to describe the process where lessons learned in one period or settings are automatically tested in later periods or settings. Thus, individuals base their interpretation of events in new organizations upon past experiences. Previous work experience in a similar setting may facilitate the development of a sense of task competence among the employees. The literature on organizational behavior (e.g., Gioia & Manz, 1985; Gioia & Poole, 1984) suggested that individuals with previous work experience in similar tasks may learn new tasks more quickly and easily. Feeling confidence about one's knowledge regarding organization's rules and procedures develops a strong sense of task competence which is necessary for job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Previous work experience imposes a great deal of influence on role clarity an important phenomena for job performance as well as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In this context, it can be stated that individuals with previous work experience in a similar setting understood clearly what is expected from them in a new job and be more accustomed in balancing conflicting job demands than those lacking similar experience. As a result it has been observed that previous experience reduces role ambiguity and role conflict. Feldman (1976) found that individuals with previous work experience reported that they had achieved role definition earlier than individuals with no previous work experience.
Realistic expectations about an organization may contribute to performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Various organizational literatures suggested that previous work experience shows an important impact on the development of realistic expectations among employees. Realistic expectations about the job represent the extent to which the newcomer perceives different aspects of the job and the work environment in the same way as experienced organizational members. Work experience in a setting similar facilitates the development of realistic expectations about a job. Van Maanen (1975), in a study of the socialization of police recruits found that previous military experience facilitated adjustment to police work however these effects found to disappeared after two months.

Fisher (1985) described the importance of developing interpersonal relationships at work and the resulting social support in newcomer's adjustment to an organization. Fisher (1985) and Louis, Posner, and Powell (1983) also reported a relationship between social support on the job and job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus previous work experience in a job similar to that in a new organization may facilitate accomplishment of these tasks of the socialization process, which in turn leads to outcomes such as good job performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

For the purposes of this study, data has been collected from respondents with little or no previous work experience which ranges from 0 months of previous job-related experience to employees with substantial job-related prior work experience.

2.8.2 Socialization and Expectations of Employees

Expectations of employees act as an important variable in Industrial and Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior literature and have been examined by different scholars from both the individual and organizational level. Expectations are sub divided into the following three types, pre – entry expectations, met expectations and unmet expectations.

The pre-entry expectations are the initial perceptions/ expectations which the employee develops on the basis of the discussion with the recruiting managers. The degree to which these expectations are met after the newcomers join an organization are referred to as met expectations and the post entry experiences are supposed to be treated as socialization of the newcomers.
Porter and Steers (1973) defined met expectations as "the discrepancy between what a person encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative consequences and what they expected to encounter". The difference between newcomer initial expectations and early job experiences is unmet expectations. In reality the newcomers usually enters into an organization with a number of unrealistic perceptions regarding the organization and high initial expectations about various aspects of their jobs. During their organizational journey these initial expectations may be either unmet or partially met or met.

The degree to which pre-entry expectations which the employees acquire before entering the organization (anticipatory phase), matches with their initial job related experiences entering the organization (encounter phase), helps to determine the success of newcomers adjustment and adaptation to the new work environment (Starr and Fondas 1992). According to various empirical researches met expectations are strongly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit and job survival (Saks 1994; Wanous, 1992). On the other hand, Louis (1980) highlighted that unmet expectations are basically the result of the experiences the employees gather after entering an unfamiliar organizational environment and visualizes a clear difference between their expectations and experiences. This ultimately reduces organizational commitment and at the same time enhances intention to quit (Saks 1994; Ashforth & Saks, 2000).

Most organizational socialization theorists and researchers agree that the encounter phase of organizational socialization is the most important moment for the newcomer. During this phase the prevailing unfamiliarity and uncertainty of the initial job experiences of the newcomers play a vital role in their adjustment to the organization. At the same time the newcomers compare their actual experiences with that of their expectations. According to Reichers (1987), the encounter phase ends when the newcomers initial anxiety is reduced and they become loyal insiders who are attached to the organizational life with a view to achieve desired organizational objectives.

Further it is also highlighted that successful socialization takes place when the newcomers are able to cope with uncertainty and anxiety by utilizing the new organizational settings. Expectations are assumed to be the central part of the role played by the newcomers in the new organizational settings. Newcomers who are career oriented are found to be more focused on the proper development of their job role. The role development and the
influence of expectations of the newcomers are found to deal positively with initial job related anxiety and uncertainty. During this transitional phase the newcomers are also expected to adapt some personal changes to fulfill organizational roles.

It can also be stated that expectations related to role conflict points out the extent to which the newcomers believes that incompatible role demands will be placed on them within organizational context. Role theory also suggested the existence of role clarity expectations and acceptance expectations. Role clarity expectations refer to the degree to which the newcomers anticipated a well defined role demands. Acceptance expectations refer to the belief of the newcomers that they will have to change personally to meet the role demand placed on them by the organization. Thus expectations play a vital role in the adjustment of newcomers to the new and uncertain environment. Met expectations reduce uncertainty and help the newcomers to become insiders from being outsider. Fulfillment of expectations gives rise to successful comprehensive socialization outcomes i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment as well as helps in role development of the newcomers.

2.9 Socialization Outcomes

2.9.1 Organizational Socialization Outcomes – Job Satisfaction

2.9.1.1 Concept of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the amount of pleasure or contentment associated with the job. Employees who have high self-efficacy will feel confident that they can achieve key aspects of their jobs and be more satisfied, committed to the organization and less likely to want to leave. Finally receiving social support on the job is important for job attitude. Although job performance is related to issues not directly tied to organizational socialization, the identification of what need to be learned and how well an individual masters the required skills, knowledge and abilities can be directly influenced by the socialization process. The helpfulness of various socialization practices increases the feelings of job satisfaction and commitment among new employees. Socialization factors help in developing job satisfaction by reflecting the extent to which employees find gratification or fulfillment in their work. There are a variety of factors which effect job satisfaction of an employee. Among them the most important organizational factors are relationships with the co workers and superiors, working conditions, work policies, compensation, etc. It is closely related to an employee’s performance and his work related
behavior. A study reveals that the socialization tactics which the organizations employ can have a positive long–lasting impact on the adjustment of new comers and give rise to prolong job satisfaction and commitment. The socialization process consists of meticulous attention in measuring operational results and rewarding individual performance. These systems are comprehensive and consistent as well as they focuses on satisfaction to the job which is most crucial for competitive success and to corporate values. Proper socialization process involves careful adherence to the organizations most important values. Identification with these values encourages the employees to reconcile their personal sacrifices undergone by them by becoming the member of the organization. They adopt the courage of accepting these values and starts trusting the organization not to do any harm to them. This increases their belongingness to the organization and justifies their work schedule and leads to job satisfaction.

**2.9.1.2 Impact of Socialization on Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction also has important relationships with organizational commitment and organizational socialization. Trombetta and Rogers (1988) suggest that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are related but separate variables. Taormina (1999) indicated that organizational socialization is a function which acts as a better predictor of job satisfaction and commitment. While Testa (2001) found that job satisfaction is noticed to be happening before organizational commitment, which in turn facilitates extra work effort.

Socialization helps in developing job satisfaction by reflecting the extent to which employees find gratification or fulfillment in their work. The most important factor in this regard is receiving social support on the job. Although job performance is related to issues not directly tied to organizational socialization, the identification of what need to be learnt and how well an individual masters the required skills , knowledge and abilities can be directly influenced by the socialization process. The usefulness of socialization lies in increasing the feelings of job satisfaction and commitment among new employees.

Successful socialization can be viewed in terms of job satisfaction and commitment to determine what aspects of socialization is related to the impact of job satisfaction and commitment. In addition to this considerable evidence supports the relationship between unmet expectations, job satisfaction, commitment and tenure of the employees (Holton,
Further, few researches highlighted that newcomers dissatisfaction with their learning experiences negatively affects their adjustment to the work group and to the organization. Walberg (1976) also concluded that the newcomers perceptions of an environment points out their congruency with a particular setting. Those who are able to adapt with the new organizational environment will report more positive views and function better in the said environment. At the same time it can be highlighted that the newcomers who reports dissatisfaction with their learning experiences have not been able to adjust with their new work group or the organization.

Thus it can be said that job satisfaction is an important outcomes which brings about successful organizational socialization. Job satisfaction is considered as a major parameter and has been studied and analyzed in various ways. A most widely accepted definition of job satisfaction indicates that job satisfaction depends on a number of factors combined together to enrich an individual so that he/she feel satisfied with his/her job (Hippock,1935). Based on this concept it is considered as one of the most well accepted organizational socialization outcomes, which increases the degree of newcomers adjustment with the work place though there prevails various job related uncertainties and anxieties.

2.9.2 Individualized Socialization Outcomes

2.9.2.1 Role Conflict

According to role theory, role conflict results from two or more sets of incompatible demands involving work-related issues (Kahn et al., 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1978). According to Farr and Ford (1990), stress produces routine behavioral patterns and generally interferes with novel or creative responses. Jex (1998) noted that stress and strain particularly hamper the motivational aspects of performance, such as manifest effort or going beyond routine job responsibilities. Taggar (2002) demonstrated that teams have difficulty in assigning tasks, and the roles of team/members could indirectly distract an individual and directly from a team’s ability to perform creatively. Rizzo et al. (1970) stated that role conflict occurs when an individual is subject to competing or conflicting sets of expectations and demands in the organization, or when the principle of chain of command or the principle of unity of command is violated. A general problem that arises in understanding role behavior is that individuals play multiple roles, adjusting their roles...
to the group to which they belong at the time. They read their job descriptions, get
suggestions from their manager, and watch what their coworkers do. When that individual
is confronted by different role expectations, he or she experiences role conflict. (Robbins
and Coulter, 2003). Many role conflict situations are temporary but certain positions
constantly visit conflicting role pressures upon their incumbents. Dalton (1955) classified
executives as strong or weak according to the behavior they displayed in reconciling role
conflict. Strong executives had a high tolerance for conflict and, unlike the weak
executives, carried home little of the effect of job discord. As a result difficulty in decision
making takes place. Thus it seems clear that role conflict is associated with decreased
satisfaction, coping behavior that would be dysfunctional for the organization and
experiences stress and anxiety.

2.9.2.2 Impact of Socialization on Role Conflict
An examination of socialization research findings concerned specifically with role conflict
and further specify the effects of role conflict on individual’s satisfaction level and the
conditions under which such role conflict is likely to have negative effects. Frank (1958)
and Ditz (1959) also found that conflicting directions made it necessary for managers to
use multiple criteria in judging employees performance. Seeman (1953) found that for
executives’ potential sources of role conflict results in significant difficulty in decision
making process. Beauchamp and Bray (2001) also found that role conflict is negatively
associated with role related efficacy. Karatepe et al. (2006) also demonstrated similar
results for the deleterious effects of role conflict on self-efficacy. Thus from the above
studies it seems clear that role conflict is associated with decreased satisfaction, coping
behavior that would be dysfunctional for the organization and experiences stress and anxiety
which degenerates the performance level of the employee. At a certain point
conflict may be constructive, but beyond that point, conflict may become destructive.
Conflict can be positive when it overcomes organizational inertia and leads to
organizational development. Beyond a certain point, however, conflict can lead to
organizational ineffectiveness. There are many coping strategies that can be designed by
management to reduce job stressors, such as creation of a supportive organizational
climate, enriching the design of tasks, reducing conflict and clarity organizational roles,
and planning career paths and providing counseling since individuals are left to decide
career moves and strategies on their own or get advice once in a while from a supervisor
(Luthans, 1989).
2.9.2.3 Role Orientation

Role orientation refers to a newcomer's response to what he or she perceives to be expected behavior. Two sets of socialization experiences are relevant for role orientation. The first and foremost is the professional socialization which is concerned with the acquisition of the values, attitudes, skills and knowledge of the professional culture. This type of socialization takes place during the early stages of work career and is an essential part of getting persons committed to careers and prepared to fill organizational positions. The second one is the organizational socialization dealing with the learning and situational adjustment necessitated when the professional leaves the graduate school and enters an organizational settings which is very different from that for which he had been trained or different from his expectations. There are two extreme cases of role orientation: custodial and innovative. Innovative role orientation helps the new employees to change their role requirements. On the other hand, custodial role orientation encourages the new employees to accept the assigned roles together with some unavoidable changes. For example, a new employee may be asked to use certain given procedures to complete the job assignment. This is an example of a custodial role. On the other hand, a new employee may be given a task and asked to complete the assignment by using his own innovative skills and abilities. Organizations may choose to design their socialization strategies to encourage either role orientation.

2.9.2.4 Impact of Socialization on Role Orientation

According to Jones (1986) role orientation is a continuum with conformity to established roles and procedures at one end and innovation in defining and enacting roles at the other. He suggested the two extremes as a custodial orientation and role innovation and predicted that newcomers exposed to organizational socialization tactics would respond to their roles more custodial than newcomers experiencing individualized tactics. Newcomers who are socialized collectively and formally go through a common set of experiences and are also segregated from normal organizational activities during their training period inhibit innovative role orientation. Serial tactics develops custodial role orientation as it helps to expose the newcomers to someone who has done, or is doing, similar type of job role. In this situation the newcomers get a clear guideline for the job to be performed. They do not have to use their own innovative skill to accomplish their job role. Jones also argued that
Divestiture tactics encourages innovative role orientation by questioning the behavior of the newcomers and forcing them to accept challenges to justify or modify it.

On the contrary Van Maanen and Schein (1979) argued that Fixed tactics provide newcomers with information about the timing of upcoming organizational experiences. They increases certainty and reduce anxiety about the future job, which ultimately leads to innovative role orientation, but at the sometime this certainty decreases innovation to some extent. Further it can be highlighted that Investiture tactics strengthens belief of newcomers in their own competencies leading to innovation. Jones (1986) further argued that the positive support associated with Investiture reduces the likelihood that newcomers will question any of their own assumptions and thus makes innovation less likely.

2.9.2.5 Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is viewed as the situation where an individual does not have a clear direction about the expectations of his/her role in the job or organization (Rizzo et al, 1970). It occurs when a person's tasks or authority are not clearly defined and the person becomes afraid to act on or take responsibility for anything (Jones, 2007). Role ambiguity is the perception that one lacks information necessary to perform a job or task, leading the perceiver to feel helpless. It is an employee’s uncertainty about the expectations of different members in his or her role set (Onyemah, 2008). Each formal position in a structure should have clear task requirements to minimize confusion and increase productivity, but in some structures task requirements are ambiguous (Hamilton, 2002). Role ambiguity results from inadequate information or knowledge to do a job. This ambiguity may be due to inadequate training, poor communication, or the deliberate withholding or distortion of information by a coworker or supervisor (Luthans, 1989). In brief, we can say that clear job descriptions and obvious authority relationships can contribute to solving ambiguity problems. When people know all details of their position in the organization, they find it comfortable to take responsibility for their actions and to interact with others. Kahn et al. (1964) asserted that role ambiguity results from organizational size and complexity which exceed the individual's span of comprehension, rapid organizational growth which is usually accompanied by frequent reorganizations, frequent changes in technology which in turn require associated changes in social structure, frequent changes in personnel which disturb interdependencies, changes in the environment of the organization which impose new demands on its members, and
managerial philosophies which foster restriction on information flow throughout the organization.

2.9.2.6 Impact of Socialization on Role Ambiguity

Based on various organizational socialization researches it has been observed that high degrees of role ambiguity were associated with increased tension, anxiety, fear and hostility, decreased job satisfaction, and loss of self-confidence, often with lower productivity. Cohen (1959) found that ambiguous definition of a task and inconsistent direction from a superior resulted in an increase in anxiety, a less favorable attitude toward the superior, and a decrease in productivity. When Wispe and Thayer (1957) interviewed three levels of management in a life insurance company, they found that managers whose roles were largely ambiguous were the most anxious. Thus the term anxiety is found to be attached inevitably with ambiguity. While surveying engineering and accounting occupations, Mandell (1956) observed that according to the respondent the most important characteristics of a good supervisor was the ability to use clear instructions. Supervisors who were rated low in performance were also rated low in the extent to which they gave clear information to their subordinates.

Smith (1957), in an experimental study with 140 college students systematically judged the amount of role ambiguity and measured its effect on problem solving. The research suggested that when groups were asked to solve problems without clarification of the role each member was to perform, their efficiency was significantly less than when the roles were made clear. Role ambiguity markedly reduces group satisfaction with the experience. The hostility level was significantly higher for groups under conditions of role ambiguity as compared to control groups. Subsequent role clarification significantly reduced the hostility, but did not completely counteract the effects of the original ambiguity. Thus surveys and experimental evidence suggested that role ambiguity, results in undesirable consequences for both organizational members and for organizational performance.

Figure 2.2 represents the conceptual framework of the socialization process which may lead to successful socialization of newcomers and thus improving their level of job satisfaction.
Figure 2.2: Successful Socialization Process: A Conceptual Model

PERSONALITY TRAITS
Internal Factors
• Self-efficacy
• Self mentoring
• Attitude towards group
External Factor
• Perception about New Job

SOCIALIZATION TACTICS
• Job content related
• Job context related
• Social Support related

SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION OUTCOMES
• Job Satisfaction

INDIVIDUALIZED SOCIALIZATION OUTCOMES
• Role conflict
• Role orientation
• Role Ambiguity