# A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF THE NEWCOMER WITHIN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE: INVESTIGATION STUDY OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

A Dissertation Presented to

The Graduate School of

Bangkok University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy in Interpersonal Communication

by

Doungtip Chareonrook

2005

This dissertation has been approved

for the Graduate School by

Professor of Interpersonal Communication

Ohio University

Dean of the Graduate School

Bangkok University

Chareonrook, Doungtip. Ph.D. (Communication Arts), February 2005, Graduate School, Bangkok University

A Critical Analysis Of The Role Of The Newcomer Within Organizational Structure: Investigation Study Of Organizational Socialization (265 pp.)

Advisor of dissertation: Prof. Dr. Claudia Hale

## ABSTRACT


The concept of organizational socialization has traditionally been viewed as a one way process by which a newcomer is molded into an organizational member. In the present study, the view of socialization was considers as reciprocal process. It was expanded from both the organization and the newcomer experience in the organization.

In order to capture the relationship within the organization studied, a structural perspective (Giddens, 1984) was adopted. It was possible to examine that the newcomers impacted the existing patterns and practices in the organization. The study involved a detailed analysis of the patterns and practices of 4 faculties in Eastern Asia University both before and after new faculty members joined the university. It was theorized that faculties that received newcomers who were different from the other faculty members in terns of demographic would experience reorientation. On the other hand, the faculties that received newcomers who were similar to the other faculty members in terns of demographic would experience inertia. Detailed results for these patterns are provided.

Communicative interactions between newcomers and existing members are crucial to newcomers' successful socialization. The opportunity to explore the interaction between deliberate socialization tactics and other factors made the university an ideal study site. The study examined values, beliefs, and behaviors that newcomers reported, and how existing members influences on their values, beliefs, and behaviors. In-depth interviews, participant observation, and document analysis were used to obtain qualitative data about socialization process from both the university's and faculty member's perspectives.

The study found that although faculty members' reported values, beliefs, and behaviors in a relation to a large number of selected attributes varied, the results were largely positive for Eastern Asia University. The variety of implication for future research is provided.



Approved: ____________________

Signature of Advisor

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

A project of this size can be linkened to a long journey with many bumps, twists, and unexpected turnings in the road. Whether we complete the journey has as much to do with the friendly faces and helping hands we encounter along the way as it does with our own fortitude as travelers. As I look back over the road, I realize that my own journey has been expecially blessed.

My deepest gratitude goes out to the memory of my parents, Air Marshel Chanark and Mrs. Prapai Chareonrook, who taught me to love learning and to seek meaning beneath the surface of things.Wonderful wealth which they always give to me is education. They always in my mind forever. For Dad, I want to say I love you so much, and thank you very much for everything that you gave to me.

I would also like to express my heartfelt thank you to the members of my dissertation committee, for whom I have the greatest respect. Dr. Claudia Hale helped me to focus the study and provided indispensable assistance and encourage along the way. She was kind to review and edit each successive phase of my study with amazing skill and efficiency. Dr. Anita James always challenged me to think deeply. Finally, I am very grateful to have had the opportunity to discuss with Dr. Rosechongporn Komolsavin, who could teach me more in a ten-minute conversation than I clould learn from many hours of studying on my own. Her warmth, clear focus, and wise advice were all invaluable to me.

Although I have saved my friends, supporters, and family members for last, they are certainly not last in my heart. Especially, I want to thanks Cap. Chatmonkol Wasinamol and Doungkamol Chareonrook for cheering me up. They walked on the road with me without complaint..

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# CHAPTER ONE:

# INTRODUCTION

A new family moves into a neighborhood, a new boy comes to a class or playground, or a new professor joins an academic department of a college or university. These are all examples of a very common, natural phenomenon--the newcomer joining an already existing group or organization.

By being born into a family, most people enter the world as newcomers to an existing group. In his/her lifetime, an individual joins dozens of groups and organizations for purposes of work or play or worship. Within the hundreds of organizations and groups which are found in every society, when growth occurs or when members are lost through attrition, new members must be inducted.

The period of early membership is one of the most critical phases of organizational life for an employee. During this time, newcomers are faced with many unknown factors about the organization. The newcomers must determine what their new organization is like and whether they fit in. Both newcomers and organizations take action to reduce the amount of uncertainty encountered during the entry phrase of organizational socialization. In communication terms, one question relevant to this situation concerns how the members of an existing group or organization react to the entry of a newcomer. Similarly, it is important to consider how the newcomer goes about the task of accommodating and acclimatizing him/herself to the members of the group he/she has just joined. Aspects of an organization’s climate can leave a newcomer with feelings of uncertainty and apprehension as the newcomer strives to adapt to his/her new setting.

The socialization process in general is one of the most researched areas in contemporary social science (e.g., Bullis, 1993; Cawyer & Friedrich, 1998; Schein, 1971, 1985; Van Maanen, 1975, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous; 1980). It is possible that the interest in socialization stems from the fact that descriptions of the process depict socialization as "an anxiety-ridden situation" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In other words, a primary motivation underlying research concerning socialization might rest in a desire, on the part of scholars, to lessen the shock associated with the status of "newcomer."

Organizational socialization is the process through which newcomers learn the behaviors, attitudes, skills and so forth that are necessary to fulfill new roles and function effectively within an organization (Fisher, 1986; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). This conceptualization portrays socialization as an internal learning process through which newcomers are psychologically and behaviorally "molded" for organizational benefit, leaving little understanding of the nature of communication within this process. By focusing on the outcomes of individual behaviors as they relate to organizational effectiveness, the process is constructed as fixed and permanent (Bullis, 1993). Additionally, this approach to conceptualizing socialization construes the newcomer as "a passive recipient of the organization's socialization attempts" (Giddens, 1989; Louis, 1980).

Newcomer socialization plays an important role during organizational entry. Newcomer socialization has been defined as "a process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming a role and for participating as an organizational member" (Louis, 1980, p. 232). Traditionally, socialization has been characterized as the outcome of information transfer between experienced insiders and new recruits (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). During socialization, new employees learn which behaviors are appropriate and desirable and which are not (Van Maanen, 1977).

Research on newcomer socialization is important for several reasons. For one, socialization is desirable from the employer's perspective. Socialization can have a strong and lasting impact on desirable work attitudes and behavior (Bauer & Green, 1994). Additionally, socialization can positively impact retention variables, such as intent to remain and turnover (Black & Ashford, 1995). In fact, it has been proposed that a lack of socialization programs for newcomers might explain why (at least within the context of Western organizations) most turnovers occur within the first several months of employment (Kennedy & Berger, 1994; Young & Lundberg, 1996). In addition, socialization is the mechanism by which organizational culture is transmitted (Louis, 1990). Socialization can also be desirable from the newcomer's perspective. Successful socialization can have a strong and lasting impact on desirable career outcome, including level of income and promotions (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). If socialization is successful, newcomers are transformed into knowledgeable, skillful contributors who reproduce organizational structure through action and thereby ensure the survival of the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Furthermore, socialization is associated with anxiety reduction (Saks & Ashforth, 1997), reduced work conflict (Tannebaum & Yukl, 1992), and increased self-efficacy (Bauer & Green, 1994). As a result of its obvious importance to both individual and organizational outcomes, the topic of newcomer socialization has received attention within organizational communication research.

The traditional view of socialization is expanded through consideration of the influence new recruits have on the processes of stability and change within an organization. A primary factor driving change in any organization is social and political institutional pressure. The theory of structuration (Giddens, 1984), employed in a case study approach, can illuminate the manner in which the introduction of newcomers into an organization presents an occasion for challenges to on-going patterns and can facilitate an examination of support for or resistance to managerial efforts towards change.

All other attributes notwithstanding, members of an organization can be very roughly divided into two groups: veterans and newcomers. The dividing line between who is a veteran and who is a newcomer is not as easy to establish as it might seem on first thought. Clearly, an individual who is within the first few weeks of employment with an organization is a newcomer. What is less clear is the point at which that same person moves from his/her newcomer status to the status of veteran. Further complicating the picture is the fact that an employee might enjoy veteran status with respect to his/her employing organization, having worked for that organization for many years, but might simultaneously be new to his/her role or department within the organization and, thus, be a newcomer to that role or department. The definitional challenge was addressed within this research project by designating individuals who have been employed by the organization and/or within a particular work group for less than three months as “newcomers” and designating any employee who has been employed by the organization and their current work group for a period of a year or more as a “veteran”.

Rationale and Problem Statement

When newcomers begin their work at an organization, they must learn what their particular organization expects from them as they assume new roles. The process through which individuals come to learn new organizational roles by acquiring needed skills and social knowledge is termed “organizational socialization”. An important component of socialization is “the fashion in which an individual is taught and learns what behaviors and perspectives are customary and desirable within the work setting as well as what ones are not” (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211-212).

Socialization can occur in a variety of ways: organizations might intentionally use formal tactics to socialize new members, or new members might informally pick up many of the cues that influence their adjustment to the organization by, for example, watching or talking with colleagues and other persons in the environment. It is important to note that the socialization process can occur by chance and, moreover, understand that individuals can be socialized in ways that do not benefit to the organization. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) pointed out that sometimes individuals make adjustments during the course of their initial socialization period that ultimately prove to be dysfunctional for themselves and/or dysfunctional for the larger organization.

The role of interaction in the socialization process among newcomers to a group is important. Socialization tactics can enhance an individual’s transformation from newcomer to insider, and the networks can provide the newcomer with the needed information relevant to the organization. Socialization is a “sense-making” process whereby newcomers enter organizations and encounter change or inexplicable events which they try to interpret and explain (Louis, 1980). Thus, the influence of socialization tactics within an organization can play a major role in helping the newcomer make sense of, or reduce uncertainty about, his/her new group and organization.

Organizations must address the issue of what they can do to influence the development of employee values, beliefs, and behaviors. In university settings, this is most critical in relation to new faculty members at the beginning of their work because entry into a university initiates an important developmental stage in an employee's ultimate adjustment to the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and because, as new faculty members begin to replace experienced ones, the future of the university will be in their hands.

A variety of challenges face any newcomer to an organization or group. Those challenges include making sense of the patterns of behavior that have become the norm within the organization/group and discovering one's own position/role within those patterns of behavior. In considering the factors that contribute to the structuration patterns that emerge following the introduction of newcomers into a work group, it has been theorized that certain characteristics of the individual alone as well as in relationship to the characteristics of the other group members are important. In particular, the quality of "self-efficacy" (Bandura, 1982, 1986, 1989) is hypothesized as being related to differing patterns of structuration, and will be a focus in the current research effort.

<u>Objectives of Study</u>

The primary focus of this study is on examining the extent to which newcomers to an organization either reinforce existing social patterns or promote and encourage change. Change processes occur over time and are often subtle and gradual. This reality suggests the need for a longitudinal study that examines an organization from the inside. The researcher is fortunate to have an employment relationship with an organization that was willing to host such a study. Thus, the researcher was able to approach this research as a participant observer.

Observations across different groups were used to develop an analysis of the characteristics of the organization and to assess the issue of transformation. Using a theoretical framework developed by Greenwood and Hinings (1988), attention was given to both the interpretive schemes and the structural attributes of the organization. Changes in each of these areas were monitored over a six month period.

Second, in terms of the relationship between the characteristics of the individual and those of the group, the issue of relational demographics (Pfeffer, 1985) was examined. It was hypothesized that the extent to which newcomers exhibit demographic similarity or dissimilarity relative to the work group they join would be related to structuration patterns of inertia and reorientation respectively.

Third, the present study was designed to explore and describe the relationship of organizational values, beliefs, and behaviors to new employee socialization and change over time as the newcomer becomes less new. The data presents a picture of how veterans communicate values, beliefs, and behaviors to newcomers, and how organizational socialization of newcomers takes place. The study assumed that socialization is a “sense-making” process whereby newcomers enter organizations and encounter problematic or inexplicable events which they try to interpret and explain (Louis, 1980). While past experience, personality characteristics, and a variety of other factors aid in the sense-making process, the researcher argues that communication with other members plays a major role in helping the newcomer make sense of his/her new organization. This study was also designed to produce a picture of the newcomer socialization process from the perspectives of both the organization and the newcomer.

Fourth, communication is the vehicle through which socialization occurs. Newcomers use the information provided by veterans to interpret events experienced in the organization (Louis, 1980). Insiders provide stories and memorable messages (Brown, 1985) which play a role in a newcomer's integration into the new structure. In sum, organizational communication is an important channel for educating new members about the organization's structure.

Each member of an organization is a communication nexus. Communication behaviors and message exchanges take place in the context of an organization, which is a social system, and are affected by the characteristics of the organization. Moreover, these communicative behaviors involve organizational members and are affected by the social characteristics of these members. Therefore, it is particularly important to understand the role of communication and interaction in the socialization process among newcomers to a group.

<u>Definition of Terms</u>

Newcomer: For the purposes of this study, "newcomer" refers to those full-time faculty members who have not yet received contract continuance beyond an initial three-month period; most often, these will be faculty members with three or fewer months' full time service at Eastern Asia University.

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| Organizational Socialization: | "The process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, attitudes, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member" (Louis 1980, p. 226). That is the definition that has been adopted for this research. |
| Organizational Structure: | A "structure" is a fixed set of relationships or a framework that guides the activities of organizational members and defines the roles they assume. |
| Inertia | Ongoing structuration can serve to recreate existing organizational patterns and practices in a relatively reduplicative manner. This process of recreation is referred to as "inertia." |
| Reorientation | Ongoing structuration can lead to a radical shift in the existing organizational patterns and practices. Such shifts are referred to as "reorientation." |
| Demographic | For the purposes of this study, "demographic" refers to the degree of similarity/dissimilarity of a certain employee with his or her group members on demographic attributes such as age, gender, race, organizational tenure, |

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|---|---|
| | education rather than on attributes such as personality, interests, or values. |
| Self-efficacy | Self-efficacy is an enhanced sense of control that is derived from a perceived ability to accomplish a specific task. |
| Values, Beliefs, and Behaviors: | In this study, *values* are the faculty member's principles or standards of what is right or desirable in the university context; *beliefs* are convictions about the nature of acting; and *behaviors* encompass both teaching practices and interaction with organizational members. |

<u>Significance of the Study</u>

Theories of organizational socialization abound in the literature, but studies designed to empirically verify those theories are relatively rare. Moreover, many of the existing theories do not appear to be based on observation and description of actual processes that take place in specific organizations. Thus, the intent of this study is to enrich the general literature on organizational socialization by adding to the base of knowledge about newcomer perspectives concerning the socialization process and perceptions of factors that influence group activities within an organization.

This study makes two important contributions to the literature. First, this research advances a relatively new line of research on organizational structuration. Structuration theory was introduced into the organizational literature more than twenty years ago (Ranson, Hinings, & Greenwood, 1980). Since that time, empirical research adopting a structuration perspective has produced innovative insights into important issues affecting organizations and their performance (Barley, 1986; Bartunek, 1984; Riley, 1983). On the whole, research within this theoretical perspective remains relatively sparse.

Secondly, the integration of newcomers into organizations has been treated in a narrow and simplistic manner in past research. The bias of previous work has been to focus on organizational actions and the attempts made by an organization to mold newcomers into prescribed organizational roles. The present study contributes to a more complex view of socialization by highlighting the reciprocal relationship between the newcomer and his/her organization. The investigation of the relationship between the newcomer and existing organizational members, and the impact of the newcomer on the structuration process serves to emphasize the extent to which individuals remain empowered even in the face of norms and practices (Giddens, 1984).

Chapter Summary

A number of full-time faculty members at Eastern Asia University (EAU) have resigned and will be replaced by new faculty members during a 2 year span. EAU is thus faced with the task of helping their new faculty adapt to the realities of the extant structure within the organization, including the competing forces of stability and change at the group level within departments, increasing communication and interaction among newcomers and organizational members, and communicating desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors to newcomers. Effective socialization and communication within such an environment requires both a commitment to the basic university mission and knowledge of appropriate interaction. The organizational socialization of new faculty, to be sound, must include processes that are targeted at achieving these results.

The purpose of this study of the socialization of new faculty at Eastern Asia University is to explore and describe how socialization takes place; the values, beliefs, and behaviors that veteran faculty members communicate to new faculty members; and how new faculty members reinforce existing social patterns or promote and encourage change in the university.

Chapter two will illuminate the theoretical underpinnings of the study through a review of current literature in the areas of organizational socialization, organizational structuration, and self-efficacy. That is followed, in Chapter Three, by a description of the specific methods used in the study. Chapter Four presents the study's findings, along with interpretation and analysis of those findings. Finally, the study's conclusions and a general discussion are offered in Chapter Five.

# CHAPTER 2:

# LITERATURE REVIEW

Two major concepts are drawn together in this study. The first is the concept of socialization, and the second is the concept of structuration. My primary intention in this research is to use the concept of structuration as the basis for expanding and re-defining perspectives concerning socialization. In order to make this connection, it is necessary to review literature concerning both organizational socialization and structuration as the literature relevant to this research.

The first area considered is the concept of organizational socialization. An overview of past research in this area is provided. The second area is the theory of structuration as proposed by Giddens (1984), and introduced into the organizational literature by Ranson et al. (1980). Since the theory of structuration is the primary conceptual basis for this study, it is important that the main points of the theory are explicated, and the relevance of those points to the case is discussed. Particularly, the issues of inertia and reorientation are explored, and the use of these terms at the group level is compared with the framework developed by Greenwood and Hinings (1988).

Following the discussion of structuration and the patterns of structuration process, focus is shifted to a discussion of the use of the concept of structuration as a basis for examining socialization. Integrating the concepts drawn from structuration theory with aspects of the socialization literature, an interactive perspective on socialization is developed. In considering the factors associated with patterns of inertia and reorientation in work groups, the concept of self-efficacy is reviewed.

Finally, a summary and review are provided in the form of a conceptual framework, and the research questions which provided the basis for the study are identified.

Organizational Socialization

In order to become full members of organizations, individuals must learn to carry out their job functions effectively and must adapt to the social setting in which they find themselves (Van Maanen, 1977). “Organizational socialization” is the term applied to the process through which individuals adapt to requirements and expectations for membership in an organization. Although the socialization process is most often associated with that period when an individual first enters an organization, socialization actually continues throughout the individual’s career (Katz, 1982; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Even within the same organization, members are “resocialized” (Katz, 1982, p. 96) each time they shift from one role, position or department to another (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

The socialization process is one of the most researched issues in contemporary social science and has been used to describe individuals’ socialization in organizations (e.g., Bullis, 1993; Schein, 1971; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1980). Socialization has been linked both to employee and to organizational success (Bullis, 1993). The concept of socialization has been used to describe the preparation and transformation of educators (e.g., Bullis, 1991; Bullis & Bach, 1989). It is possible that our interest in socialization is revealed in descriptions of the process as “anxiety-ridden” (Jones, 1983). In other words, socialization research has the intention of lessening the reality shock associated with organizational membership.

The concept of organizational socialization has been defined in a variety of ways. According to Feldman (1981), organizational socialization is “the process by which employees are transformed from organization outsiders to participating and effective members” (p. 309). The general definition of socialization proposed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) describes socialization as “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (p. 211). Early theories of socialization commonly, but erroneously, construed the newcomer as a passive recipient of the organization’s socialization attempts (Louis, 1980). Other definitions have emphasized the development of values, beliefs, and behaviors; for example, Bullis (1993) noted that organizational socialization processes are viewed as “central to role taking, newcomer acculturation, employee attitudes and behaviors, and the shaping of newcomers’ identities” (p. 10). Schein (1985) specified the components of organizational learning for newcomers:

> The concept refers to the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group which he is entering. [Organizational socialization] does not include all learning. It includes only the learning of those values, norms, and behavior patterns which, from the organization’s point of view or group’s point of view, is necessary for any new member to learn. This learning is defined as the price of membership. (p. 54)

Schein’s definition, then, focuses on the content of learning, whereas Feldman, Van Maanen and Schein, and Bullis emphasize organizational membership and competency development. A useful definition of organizational socialization that encompasses all three views was proposed by Louis (1980): "Organizational socialization is the process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member" (p. 226).

Louis (1980) characterized newcomer socialization experiences as "reality shock." The individual experiences uncertainty and stress, and finds it difficult to understand the organization's mission and structure, and his/her own role in that mission/structure. The stressful and uncertain nature of entry motivates the newcomer to reduce the stress (Berlew & Hall, 1966). In response, the individual engages in a process of "sense-making" to cope with the new situation (Louis, 1980).

The assimilation process, a phrase used to describe what others consider socialization (e.g., Bullis, 1999; Clair, 1999; Turner, 1999), involves the integration of the individual into the organization's cultural reality (Jablin, 1987). Through the descriptions of the assimilation stage model, additional clarity is achieved while simultaneously revealing more questions that need to be addressed. For example, during the final stage, the newcomer "attempts to become an accepted, participating member of the organization by learning new attitudes and behaviors or modifying existing ones to be consistent with the organization's expectations" (Jablin, 1984, p. 596). This definition raises several communication related questions. How do newcomers discursively attempt to become members of organizations? Are all attempts successful? How are definitions of accepted, participating members and organizational participation constructed through organizational and member discourse? Are organizational expectations consistent, rational, and always conducive to successful socialization? Since organizational socialization is an ongoing process for an individual as positions or careers change (Louis, 1980; Schein, 1971; Van Maanen, 1978), at what point should a researcher (or an organization) attempt to gauge the success of that process? Bullis (1993) argued that most socialization research examines newcomer transformation as it benefits the corporate discursive system, thereby constructing an assumption that organizational socialization is a process to be facilitated for corporate gain. Until researchers articulate such assumptions embedded in the organizational socialization process, the concept of organizational socialization will remain abstract and will contain contradictory elements.

A recent series of articles (Bullis, 1999; Clair, 1999; Kramer & Miller, 1999; Miller & Kramer, 1999; Turner, 1999) critically examined the assumptions associated with organizational socialization, while revealing various fundamental disagreements within extant research. These disagreements centered on several core assumptions made by researchers, including differences in their use of key terminology (e.g., assimilation, socialization, and individualization). The struggle of communication scholars to conceptualize organizational socialization is necessary as any form of scholarship must develop its ideological identity through exploring similarities and differences from a variety of disciplinary perspectives (Anderson, 1996). These disagreements further highlight the importance of a both/and approach to studying socialization as restriction to one conceptualization or set of assumptions leaves alternative voices or issues unacknowledged (Bullis, 1999). To consider future conceptualizations of organizational socialization, we must continue to explore while simultaneously reconsidering past conceptualizations (Bullis, 1993). As Bullis and Stout (2000) argued, “we need to criticize traditional work in order to define its limits and domain so that we see alternatives" (p. 48).

The literature on organizational socialization is rich with speculative description and theoretical models, but is somewhat less developed in the area of empirical research (Fisher, 1986). Much of the research adopts a symbolic interactionist viewpoint. Blumer (1969) identified three assumptions of symbolic interactionism. Those assumptions are that "human beings create their own meanings for things and behave toward those things based on their created meaning, that meanings arise out of social interactions with other people, and that meanings are dealt with and modified by the person through an interpretive process" (p. 2). In other words, people react to events or the actions of others based on the meanings they ascribe to those events or actions. In relation to organizations, the symbolic interactionist perspective suggests that individual organizational members, not the organization as a whole, will create their own understanding of what is functional or dysfunctional in a given role, and that understanding will vary from one person to another (Reichers, 1987; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Adopting this perspective, researchers often analyze the impact of variables such as the stages through which newcomers theoretically must pass or the tactics used by organizations during the process of individual adjustment to the organization.

Organizational socialization is typically viewed as proceeding through a series of stages or phases (Bullis, 1993; Jablin, 1982; Van Maanen, 1975, 1978). One of the most commonly cited models, that of Frederic Jablin, recognizes three phases: anticipatory socialization, encounter, and metamorphosis.

Organizational socialization begins before organizational entry, in a stage entitled "anticipatory socialization" (Merton, 1957). Individuals are prepared for organizational positions through interaction with family and friends, involvement with educational institutions, and engagement with the structure (Van Maanen, 1978). Information is gained and perceptions are further shaped through pre-entry contact with the organization (information-gathering interviews and reading organizationally-relevant materials such as annual reports and pamphlets). Prior to entry, newcomers anticipate their organizational experiences (Louis, 1980) and develop expectations of organizational life. These expectations are often unrealistic and inflated and make assimilation a difficult process, even inhibiting successful integration (Jablin, 1982, 1984; Wanous, 1980).

The second stage of organizational socialization is the encounter stage when the individual enters the organization. During this stage, newcomer beliefs and expectations are challenged, and newcomers try to "make sense" of the setting or "normalize" it (Louis, 1980; Van Maanen, 1978). The final stage, "metamorphosis," represents an adaptive phase where newcomers engage in new learning and adjust to their new environment (Van Maanen, 1978).

While socialization is ongoing, the most significant influences on socialization are likely to occur during the early weeks and months of employment (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Bullis, 1993; Dunnette, Arvey, & Banas, 1973; Gomersall & Myers, 1966; Graen, Orris, & Johnson, 1973; Kramer & Miller, 1999; Miller & Kramer, 1999; Schein, 1968; Turner, 1999), when the individual is thought to be most susceptible to influence and change (Berlew & Hall, 1966; Schein, 1971; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The newcomer encounters a multitude of "surprises" (Louis, 1980), experiences anxiety, ambiguity, and stress (Gomersall & Myers, 1966), and is motivated to make sense of the new environment (Louis, 1980) and learn organizational norms and values (Schein, 1971).

Newcomers put more effort into activities such as seeking help from others, mastering the job, learning the amount of work required, and becoming an accepted member of the staff during the first four weeks than during later weeks (Graen et al., 1973). Over time, we assume the recruit finds interpreting organizational events easier because he or she has more history with and knowledge of the organization.

The breaking-in period can profoundly affect the individual's ongoing organizational experience. Early experiences provide the newcomer with first-hand knowledge of what the job entails (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982) which can influence long-term attitudes toward the organization.

Further, entry experiences can influence the newcomer's tenure in the organization. Looking at the situation in Western-based organizations some 25 years ago, Wanous (1980) reported that new employees who leave the organization generally exit during the first six months to one year of employment. Shifting attention from the West to Thailand—the site of the present research—the Graduate Institute of Business Administration of Chulalongkorn University recently surveyed 212 human resource professionals concerning new employee turnover statistics and retention efforts. The results indicated that, over the past three years, the number of resignations of new employees during their first three months of employment had increased (Graduate Institute of Business Administration of Chulalongkorn University, 2004). On average, although the largest organizations experienced higher rates, responding Thai organizations reported a total new employee turnover rate of 52% (Graduate Institute of Business Administration of Chulalongkorn University, 2004). This data lends support to the claims offered by Western researchers concerning the importance of this early period in an employee's association with his/her employing organization and, thus, the significance of the socialization process.

In sum, while theorists have developed a fairly clear and intuitively sensible description of the phases of organizational entry, the literature suffers from a number of limitations. First, the literature has emphasized the "changing to" process. Louis (1980) argued that adoption of a new role involves "letting go" of an old role. The process of letting go is likely to significantly affect the ease with which an individual can move from the old role to the new role. Hence, an individual's former organizational role should be taken into account when examining his or her adjustment to a new organizational role.

Second, the influence of the organization on the individual is emphasized in the literature while the reciprocal effect of the individual on the organization is not typically considered. The contributions both parties make in shaping and influencing each other are overlooked. When theorists and researchers do consider the employee's perspective, the employee's influence on the organization is discussed as "individualization," a separate process by which the individual attempts to influence or change the organization so as to better fulfill his or her own needs (Jablin, 1982, 1984; Van Maanen, 1978). Separating the process of mutual influence into socialization and individualization is problematic in two ways. First, research on infant socialization provides evidence disputing the accuracy of a one-sided approach to socialization. A great deal of experimental evidence exists supporting the claim that influence between child and caregiver is mutual rather than one-sided. As such, we need to view organizational socialization as a mutual process whereby partners shape and influence each other (Goslin, 1969).

In addition, examination of socialization and individualization as separate processes tends to result in a view of the organization as a powerful entity that is too great to be affected by a single individual. Organizations consist of interdependent individuals who are connected by communication networks, and who influence one another reciprocally. As researchers, we need to recognize that the newcomer enters an organization consisting of groups of individuals who share common beliefs, values, and norms. While a group might have a more profound effect on the individual than the individual will have on the group, socialization can and does involve reciprocal influence.

In terms of newcomers, most researchers view “newcomer” as a temporary role that a member assumes upon entry into an organization, an implicit label that influences both a member’s sense of organizational self and his or her behavioral expectations for self and others. Newcomers often play the role of passive learner, quietly observing and mimicking the behaviors and attitudes of more seasoned members until they are confident that their actions fit with social norms. A newcomer in this research was defined as an employee with less than three months tenure within the specified employment setting. This time line allows the newcomer to acquire both general information as well as finer, more intricate information about the organization, group, and job.

By way of summary, organizational socialization is the term used to describe the process of becoming a member of an organization (Jablin, 1987). Research concerning organizational socialization emphasizes the developmental stages of the socialization process (Jablin, 1987; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), and the events that occur which integrate newcomers into organizational life (Bullis, 1993; Jablin, 1987). Attention is turned now to the content or substance of socialization and the role of the newcomer in the socialization process.

The Content of Socialization and the Role of the Newcomer in the Socialization Process

Most organizational newcomers must undergo learning in several distinct spheres during the initial socialization period. Theorists (e.g., Fisher, 1986; Louis, 1990) generally agree that the content of socialization includes training in work-related skills, development of attitudes that are consistent with organizational values, and adjustment to others in the work group. Beyond this general agreement, however, researchers have emphasized different aspects of socialization content.

One approach to analyzing the content of socialization stresses the learning of behavior patterns and ground rules for solving problems. For example, Schein (1968) listed learning of the organization's values, systems, norms, and required behavior patterns as the primary content of socialization. Such learning would specifically consist of: 1) the goals of the organization, 2) the preferred means by which members are to attain these goals, 3) the basic responsibilities of the new member's organizational role, 4) behavior patterns required for effective role performance, and 5) a set of rules and principles relating to maintenance of the organization's identity and integrity (p. 5). Van Maanen and Schein, (1979) divided the learning of organizational roles into three elements: 1) content and knowledge base, or the range of existing solutions to problems encountered on the job; 2) strategic base, or ground rules for choosing particular solutions, and 3) explicit and implicit mission, purpose, or mandate, which are grounded in the overall mission of the organization (p. 227).

Another view of socialization content emphasizes tasks in which the newcomer must actively engage. Schein (1985) listed three major tasks of socialization: 1) establishing one's organizational role identity, 2) learning to deal with one's boss and other employees, and 3) deciphering reward systems and situational norms (p. 119). Other researchers have suggested that newcomers who are proactive during the socialization process will become socialized more rapidly and effectively (Bauer & Green, 1994; Morrison, 1993). Louis (1980) made the related observation that, although most studies have emphasized only the newcomer's process of changing to (adopting) a new role, newcomers are simultaneously engaged in the process of changing from (discarding) previous roles: "The first time the newcomer is involved in almost any activity in the new role (e.g., a professor uses the computer or library or has a manuscript typed at a new university), the memory of the corresponding activity in one or more old roles may be brought to mind" (p. 236). The newcomer must strive to discard aspects of his or her previous role orientation that are not functional in the new setting.

Fisher (1986) provided yet another analysis of socialization content based on a learning progression. First, the newcomer engages in preliminary learning, which consists of realizing that adaptation will be necessary, understanding what must be learned, and determining from whom it must be learned. Afterwards, four types of learning take place: 1) learning about the organization--its values, goals, and culture 2) learning to function in the work group--understanding the work group's values, norms, and friendships 3) learning to do the job--acquiring and/or applying necessary skills, knowledge, and methods and 4) personal learning--personal change relating to identity, self-image, and motivation structure (p. 105).

Another perspective on the content of socialization provided by Louis (1980; 1990) includes only two categories: role-related learning and the development of a general appreciation of organizational culture. The first category refers to the process through which a newcomer's role-relevant abilities are identified, others' experiences are conveyed to and negotiated with the newcomer, and incentives and sanctions are clarified for the newcomer, all with the purpose of enhancing motivation and performance. The learning of essential values and behaviors is included in this category. In contrast, the second category refers to learning about the norms, values, and do's and don'ts that are particular to the organization. Louis (1980, 1990) pointed out that, although not only newcomers but organizational insiders usually understand the need for the first category of learning, both tend to overlook the critical importance of the second category. The content of organizational socialization, then, can be sketched in terms of two basic elements: values and behaviors (including demonstration of skills, behaviors displayed toward other organizational members, and behaviors displayed in the execution of one's job duties).

The final aspect of the socialization literature that is relevant to the present study is the classification of responses to socialization developed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). Van Maanen and Schein theorized that a socialization strategy on the part of the organization will elicit one of three responses on the part of the individual: 1) custodianship–a basic acceptance of the values and practices of the organization as presented 2) content innovation–an attempt to change or innovate with regard to the manner in which tasks are performed or 3) role innovation–an attempt to change, innovate, or fundamentally redefine the manner in which the role is conceptualized by other organizational members.

The relevance of this classification scheme to the present study rests in the relationship that can be seen between a “custodial” orientation and the concept of stability or inertia; and between “innovation” and the concept of “change”. The primary focus of this study is to make this connection, and to examine the extent to which the actions of newcomers have an impact on stability or change in specific work groups as well as the overall organization.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) offered an important contribution to the socialization literature by theorizing socialization as a reciprocal process. In their theorizing, however, the behaviors of newcomers are viewed as “responses” to organizational socialization strategies, and the implications of newcomer behaviors for organizational structure and strategy are not pursued in any systematic manner. This connection is pursued in a more explicit manner in the present study.

While Van Maanen and Schein (1979) can be credited with first proposing the idea that socialization can be seen as a reciprocal relationship, the basic notion was developed further by Nicholson in his examinations of work role transitions (Nicholson, 1984; Nicholson & West, 1988). Nicholson (1984) asked the questions “1) How are change and stability interrelated?” and 2) “How does the interaction between individuals and social systems affect either?” In attempting to answer these questions, Nicholson adopted an “individualistic focus” which primarily considered how the newcomer is affected by the organization. While he briefly discussed the relevance of this view, he moved swiftly to a consideration of organizational change, and did not confront this issue directly, or deal with the implications of individual behavior for macro level organizational change.

Nicholson’s approach was primarily psychological and social psychological, and he was concerned with understanding the psychological states of individuals. He expressed an interest in both role development and personal development but focused primarily on personal development, Nicholson (1984) developed categories that were, by his own description, “roughly similar” to Schein’s notions of custodial and innovative role. Nicholson treated these as outcomes and theorized about the conditions that would lead to each.

Research by Jones (1983) also built on the classification scheme proposed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). Jones predicted that institutionalized socialization tactics would lead to custodial role orientations, while individualized socialization tactics would lead to innovative role orientations. These hypotheses were accepted in his study. Further, Jones predicted that self-efficacy moderates the learning process and found that socialization tactics produced a stronger custodial role orientation when the newcomer possessed low self-efficacy. As with the studies conducted by Nicholson, the work of Jones (1983) focused primarily on issues related to an individual level of analysis. Implications for organizational structure and strategy were not considered.

In many ways, it can be seen that the present study is both a complement to and an extension of the theorizing by Van Maanen and Schein (1979), Nicholson (1984), and Jones (1983). In dealing explicitly with the relationship between newcomer behavior and social patterns in organizational work groups, the present study addresses an area of research which, as Nicholson (1984) pointed out, has not been empirically investigated. The theorizing and empirical investigation regarding the factors that explain patterns of custodianship and innovation on the part of newcomers provided in the present study complement previous research by advancing the basic logic to a broader level of analysis and by considering the relationship between individual behavior patterns and group and organizational level stability and change. In specifically examining the relationship between the behaviors of newcomers and group and organizational patterns of stability and change, the present research develops the notion of reciprocal socialization one step further by considering the macro level implications of previously characterized individual behavior patterns.

Communication and Organizational Socialization

As organizational socialization and stage models of assimilation have described the process of developing organizational membership, the focus has been on the transformation of the newcomer into an effective and cooperating member of the social organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The culmination of one’s assimilation into an organization is postulated as resulting in the adoption of a set of internal values as well as a change in belief system (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Successful socialization is thought to be associated with changes in an individual’s self-image, values (Van Maanen, 1978), and/or attitudes so that there is consistency between the organization’s and the individual’s expectations (Jablin, 1984). This concept of organizational socialization is as a process that is constructed in and through communicative interaction amongst agents of influence, which benefits the agents engaged in the process, not just the organization. The process nature of socialization is evident in the description of organizational socialization as what people learn and how they learn it (Van Maanen, 1978). Therefore, it is necessary to examine both the process and the outcomes of socializing interactions. By focusing on process in addition to outcomes, we can see the roles that discourse plays in the socialization of organizational newcomers. Focusing on both outcomes and process enables an exploration of the implications of process as socialization is manifest in a newcomer's experiences and interactions with other organizational members.

While interaction has not been a primary focus of communication based organizational socialization research, some indications of the importance of interaction are evident. Frequency of interaction is important in newcomer transformation as communication aids in the development of situational identity, which decreases anxiety and enhances the ability of the newcomer to communicate and interpret communication "as an insider" (Reichers, 1987). In addition, everyday interactions with others can result in newcomers feeling comfortable and competent (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983). A clearer understanding of the various communicative activities and interactions that construct the organizational socialization process is, therefore, needed.

It is necessary to examine the processes and outcomes of socializing interactions among newcomers and organizational members, particularly as newcomers and members forge socialization together through mutual influence (Wentworth, 1980). Organizational members and newcomers are assumed to be knowledgeable agents who are able to monitor their own and others' conduct and reflexively discuss actions applying community standards (Giddens, 1984). It is important to examine member discourse as it constitutes the human world and constructs notions of common sense, reproducing the conditions for activity (Giddens, 1984). When members are able to analyze and interpret work processes, they gain an understanding of (or appreciation for) the themes that describe institutional courses of action (Smith & Berg, 1987). Although societal and institutional structures can limit newcomer agency by limiting resources for action and discourse (Giddens, 1984; Smith & Berg, 1987; Wentworth, 1980), newcomers are able to interpret and give meaning to interaction and even influence interaction through the resources available to them (Wentworth, 1980). For example, research exploring newcomers' discursive sense-making about their experiences (Allen & Sandine, 1996) and the effects of turning points on newcomers' levels of identification (Bullis & Bach, 1989) has demonstrated newcomers' active engagement in their own socialization and the effect of such activity on their levels of identification with their organization.

Calls have been made to shift attention from outcome based approaches toward socialization to interactive and discursive conceptualizations of socialization in everyday life (Bullis, 1993: Smith & Berg, 1987; Wentworth, 1980). This study takes a both/and approach to exploring interactive socialization processes and outcomes as restriction to one set of assumptions leaves alternative issues unacknowledged (Bullis, 1999). Additionally, by positioning members as knowledgeable and influential agents of the socialization process, this study shifts focus from the assumed organizational benefits of the socialization process. Therefore, a location for entering this examination is the everyday life and discourse of newcomers and organizational members by examining the newcomers' own reflections on their socialization activity.

<u>Interaction and Successful Organizational Socialization</u>

Communicative interaction among organizational newcomers and members is an important yet under-researched component of the organizational socialization process. Individuals do not develop relationships directly with organizations that have material form. Rather, they develop relationships through interactions with other members in their respective organizations (Bullis & Bach, 1991). While Reichers' (1987) study did not focus on describing communication, he found that the frequency with which newcomers interacted with insiders facilitated newcomers' socialization and was the primary mechanism through which the newcomers were "transformed" into organizational members. This confirms that organizational socialization occurs through relationships and is a process that mediates between a newcomer and the society in which he or she is to become a member (Bullis, 1993). Feldman (1980) found that organizational members provided newcomers with access to organizational culture-- knowledge that newcomers were not likely to obtain through other means. This could reveal why frequency of interaction is so important in the facilitation of socialization; as newcomers engage veteran organizational members in interaction, they engage in learning and constructing cultural knowledge as members. However, research has failed to explore the various communicative activities newcomers and organizational members engage in that construct the organizational socialization process.

Additionally, the interactions that occur and relationships that develop between newcomers and existing members are mutual influencing. Through interaction, members make sense of their experiences. The ways in which meaning and significance are attributed through interaction affect the ways in which individuals construct their views of reality (Anderson, 1996). For example, Bullis and Bach (1991) found some newcomers had a variety of relational links with organizational members and were able to engage in various communicative topics. These newcomers were more likely to identify with organizational members and therefore were able to extend their own influence. This "implies support for views that espouse the end of assumed innocence in our views of communication. In other word, as rich, diverse, interactions occur, relationship development, identities are shaped, and influence is exerted" (Bullis & Bach, 1991, p. 274). This literature demonstrates a different nature of the organizational socialization process: organizational socialization occurs in mutually influential interaction that is likely to vary based on the individuals involved in the interaction. Therefore, wide variation in the organizational socialization process is likely to exist and requires further scholarly attention in addition to generalized models of the organizational socialization process.

Theory of Structuration

In the sociological literature, the theory of structuration proposed by Giddens (1984) has provided a means by which to find a middle ground between two traditionally polar views of social action. Structural perspectives, on the one hand, provide a constraining view of human action which emphasizes determinism and down plays the role of choice. Interactionist perspectives, on the other hand, present a much more voluntaristic view of human action with an emphasis on "symbolic mediation and negotiated processes" (Ranson et al., 1980).

In the literature, several authors have used the distinction between voluntarism and determinism to classify a variety of theories of organization (Astley & Van de Ven, 1983; Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Pfeffer, 1982; Scott, 1987). Further, classifications have also been made on the basis of subjective versus objective approaches, and micro versus macro approaches. Overall, these three different dimensions have been used to demonstrate the visible dualism and conceptual tension that exists among different perspectives concerning organizations.

Through structuration theory, however, these opposing points of view can be reconciled. In an attempt to settle some of the on-going debates in the management literature arising out of these differing orientations, Ranson et al. (1980) outlined the relevance of structuration theory for organizational theorizing:

> Giddens' (1984) theory overcomes the fundamental tensions between voluntarism and determinism, subjectivism and objectivism. Furthermore, since the conception of structure proposed by Giddens is instantiated in the purposive, reflective actions of agents, the theory has the ability to cut across traditionally disparate levels of analysis and provide an understanding of the on-going interconnectedness of individual, group, and organizational phenomena. (Ranson et al., 1980, p. 11)

The primary manner by which this is achieved is through Giddens' radical reconceptualization of "structure." Structure, in the sense it is traditionally used in sociological and organizational theory, refers to a fixed set of relationships or a framework that guides the activities of organizational members and defines the roles they assume. Structure, in this sense, is external to organizational members, and exists as an objective reality that shapes and patterns social interaction.

In Giddens' (1984) reconceptualization, however, the term "structure" relates to the rules and resources that are recursively implicated in social interaction. While aspects of structure are, to some degree, objective and external to individual actors, they are subjectively implicated and internalized in the course of social interaction. A most helpful analog which Giddens (1984) presented in explicating the qualities of structure is that of comparing structure to language. When communicating via language, the parties to the discussion must draw upon their knowledge of the content and syntax of that language. In doing so, they implicitly mutually agree upon the conventions of that language, and legitimate and reproduce that language as a communication form.

Similarly, in social interaction the parties to that interaction must share mutual understandings which provide the basis for interaction to take place. In drawing on stocks of knowledge and shared understandings, those patterns are reproduced and legitimated, and are likely to be repeated and perpetuated in future interaction. This view of structure provides a conceptual alternative to the conventional view in that it explicates the manner through which social practices are guided by past practices but also positions the actions of human actors as legitimizing and reproducing or perpetuating patterns of social interaction.

The major concern of structuration theory is to provide a conceptualization of the manner by which structure(s), conceived of as rules and resources recursively drawn upon in social interaction and systems(s), are produced and reproduced over time. In order to clarify how this occurs in structuration theory, it is useful to differentiate the concepts of structuration, structure, and system as presented in the theory. Drawing from Giddens (1984):

> Structuration, as recursively organized sets of rules and resources, is out of time-space, save in its instantiations and co-ordination as memory traces, and is marked by an “absence of the subject.” The social systems in which

> structure is recursively implicated, on the contrary, comprise the situated activities of human agents, reproduced across time-space. Analyzing the structuration of social systems means studying the modes in which such systems, grounded in the knowledgeable activities of situated actors who draw upon rules and resources in the diversity of action contexts, are produced and reproduced in interaction. (p. 46)

Thus, it can be seen that structure is not external to individuals, but exists in memory traces and is enacted in social practices (Giddens, 1984). But structuration theory does not "begin" with an emphasis on either the individual or society. Rather, the primary focus in structuration theory is a concern with "recurrent social practices and their transformations" (Giddens, 1991, p. 120). The key concepts of structuration theory are system, structure, and structuration. They are outlined below:

(1) System – interdependence conceived of as:

- homeostatic causal loops
- self-regulation through feedback
- reflexive self regulation

(2) Structure – generative rules and resources.

(3) Structuration – generation of systems of interaction through the duality of structure.

The Double Hermeneutic

An important aspect of Giddens' work which is fundamental to this study is his notion of the double hermeneutic. The idea of a double hermeneutic is a key conceptual insight which provides the rationale for setting social science apart from the conceptual model used in natural science, and also has serious implications for the development of a methodology suitable for the investigation of the ongoing structuring of social interaction. According to Giddens (1984), the double hermeneutic involves

> the intersection of two frames of meaning as a logically necessary part of social science, the meaningful social world as constituted by lay actors and the meta-languages invented by social science; there is a constant slippage from one to the other in the practice of the social sciences. (p. 37)

The essential implication to be drawn from this conceptualization is the need to penetrate a given context of social interaction and gain a comprehension of consciousness of the actors who are party to the interaction, and then develop a way to characterize that interaction and abstract a description and/or analysis of what has taken place. This, the role of the researcher, necessarily involves moving between these different levels and developing an ongoing analysis.

This approach differs substantively from the approach used in natural science in that, in the realm of natural science, the material of interest is primarily objects which are given meaning by the observer. In social research, however, the participants in the study, such as the organizational members, have already given their own meaning to the situations and relationships that compose social organizational life. Therefore, the researcher must first comprehend that meaning which already exists, and then attempt to impose a further meaning and interpretation for the purpose of the scientific endeavor being pursued.

<u>Relevance of Structuration to the Present Case</u>

One objective of the present study is to add to current theory regarding the process of socialization, and to make the connection between an organization and the wider society in which that organization functions. This connection can be made through an examination of values and beliefs, and through considering the extent to which shifting values, beliefs, and interpretive schemes, at the societal level, and in other realms of life experienced by organizational members, have an effect on or influence the norms, practices, and routines carried out within different organizational settings. The examination of the introduction of new personnel into an organization provides a context in which the possibility of the introduction of new and different values and beliefs is high.

In following Whittington's (1991) advice, and using Giddens' original work as the basis for building a structurationalist approach to organizational analysis, the question which arises is what portion or portions of Giddens' voluminous and extensive writings and theorizing are relevant to the case in hand. In this regard, Giddens himself provided some guidance as to the kind of approach most suitable:

> On the whole, I like least those works in which authors have attempted to import structuration theory 'in toto' into their given area of study. The overall framework of structuration theory, I hope, is relevant to anyone writing about social organization and transformation, as I tend myself to do. In many more confined arenas of empirical research it is not especially helpful to drag in a large apparatus of abstract concepts. I like most the usages in which concepts, either from the logical framework of structuration theory or other aspects of my writings are used in a sparing and critical fashion. (Giddens, 1991, p. 121)

Two examples Giddens (1991) provided of the way he intends structuration theory to be used are studies dealing with the concept of socialization. The first is Willis' (1977) "Learning to Labor," which is a study of the processes by which working class children come to have working class jobs. While Willis does not intentionally use structuration theory in the study, Giddens cited this work as an example of how the theory should be applied. Willis treated the subjects of his study as knowledgeable social actors and considered the implications of their actions for the production and reproduction of the prevailing social patterns and structural arrangements. The second exemplar is Burman's (1988) "Killing time losing ground," which is a study of the transition to unemployment, or socialization into not working. In this case, structuration theory was explicitly used, but primarily as a meta-theory to orient the analysis. In this example, the primary focus is again on individuals as knowledgeable agents living through various experiences. The purpose of the analysis was to make connections between those individual experiences and the community through the notion of the duality of structure.

Having provided a basic outline of the aspects of Giddens' (1984) theory of structuration and provided an indication of its relevance to this research, the particular issue that is studied in this case is the extent to which newcomers to existing work groups change the pattern of social relations within their group or contribute to and reinforce the existing prevalent patterns of social interaction. It should be readily apparent that this question provides an example of the manner by which the concept of the duality of structure operates within organizational settings.

Conceptually, the organizational event of hiring new recruits has been predominantly viewed from a structural perspective which takes the social order of an organization pretty much as given. Through this conceptual basis, it is understandable that the primary focus in studying this event is the idea of socialization and an emphasis on the manner by which newcomers are molded into their roles within the structure of the organization.

It can be seen that, in considering the organizational event of the hiring of new personnel, the theory of structuration gives some indication of the types of social dynamics that might transpire. Furthermore, the notion of the double hermeneutic provides guidelines as to the methods to be utilized in order to gain an understanding of the realities experienced by organizational members, and formulate those realities into a discernable set of concepts suitable for analysis by the researcher. In order to develop an understanding of organizational processes, the issue which needs to be explored further is the different patterns of structuration that might be observed.

As mentioned previously, structuration theory has provided the basis for investigations of organizational change. Of particular relevance to the present study is Barley's (1986) study of technology as an occasion for structuring. In this study, the issue of concern was hiring as an occasion for potential shifts in the pattern of on-going structuring. The proposition was that hiring, and indeed personnel changes generally, present occasions for changes in patterns of structure. Changes in hiring policies and in staffing decisions could be indicative of, or in fact result from, shifts in interpretive schemes subsequently leading to changes in patterns of ongoing structuration. The primary issue of concern in the present study, however, is the structuration processes that occur specifically as the intended and unintended consequences of the introduction of new organizational members into work settings.

As Whittington (1991) pointed out, the conceptual contribution made by structuration theory is to connect the practices and processes observed within an organization to the trends, values and norms that are prevalent in society generally and are brought to an organizational setting as the stocks of knowledge and frames of reference used by social agents. Thus, the emphasis in the present study is to examine the extent to which newcomers to existing work groups bring with them values and beliefs that are similar to or different from those of existing group members, and subsequently contribute either to stability or change within the workgroup.

Inertia and Reorientation

Using the concept of structuration as the basis for understanding organizational stability and change, different patterns of organizational relationships over time can be theorized. Generally, two different patterns over time have been identified in the literature: (1) inertia occurs when ongoing structuration tends to recreate existing organizational patterns and practices in a relatively replicative manner; and (2) reorientation occurs when ongoing structuration leads to a radical shift in existing organizational patterns and practices (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988). Using this conceptual scheme, it is proposed that the temporal period following the introduction of new personnel can be characterized by either inertia or reorientation depending upon the circumstances that motivated the hiring decision, and the extent to which the newcomer conforms with or challenges the prevailing structures and interpretive schemes of the organization.

In the extensive programmatic research of Greenwood and Hinings (1988), the concepts of organizational stability and change have been theorized through the concepts of “design archetypes” and “tracks” (p. 11). Design archetypes are holistic conceptions of organizations which consider both the structural attributes of an organization and the underlying interpretive scheme that gives shape, meaning, and coherence to the structural framework. Organizations can be described as being in a state of “archetypal coherence” when the structural attributes of the organization are reflective of and consistent with the dominant interpretive scheme. An archetype is said to be in a “schizoid” state when the structural attributes and interpretive schemes are inconsistent with each other. Incremental change or “adjustment” takes place when organizational systems are changed within the logic of the extant archetype. “Reorientation,” on the other hand, occurs when the organization moves from one archetype to another.

The relationship between the structural attributes and the interpretive scheme in an organization is theorized by Greenwood and Hinings (1988) to be stable or change over time through a process of de-coupling and re-coupling. “Tracks” are configurations of interpretive de-coupling and re-coupling, and depict the relationship between structural attributes and interpretive schemes over time. Tracks depict the temporal inertia or movement of an organization from one archetype to another. Prototypical tracks include inertia, aborted excursions, reorientations, and unresolved excursions (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988).

In the development of their ideas, Greenwood and Hinings (1988) borrowed from Giddens as well as from conceptions of organizations found in traditional organizational literature. The primary advantage offered by their theory is that, through the concept of interpretive schemes, Greenwood and Hinings introduce the dynamics of social change into structural perspectives of organizations.

Much insight can be gained from Greenwood and Hinings (1988) and their theorizing of the patterns of change in organizations. The tracks proposed by Greenwood and Hinings are conceived in light of their depiction of organizations having discernable characteristics of structure and interpretive schemes. When looking at macro level organizational change, the framework developed by

Greenwood and Hinings is extremely useful because it captures the dynamics of social change. At the group level, however, the use of Gidden's conception of structure as a more fluid and dynamic concept enables the researcher to examine concepts of inertia and change in a manner far different from that represented in literature concerning macro level organizational change. Using a purist interpretation of Giddens, at the group level of analysis, the aspects of organization that are theoretically distinct in Greenwood's and Hinings' theorizing are collapsed into a single conception of "structure" (i.e., rules and resources recursively implicated in the reproduction of social systems (Giddens, 1984, p. 377).

At the group level of analysis, the structural attributes of the organization provide terms of reference and give meaning to different forms of interaction. The nature of the business the groups are in meant that there was a lot of idle time during which the groups operated more as social groups, with an emphasis on getting along, than they did as work groups, with an emphasis on task accomplishment. Basically, then, the four tracks postulated by Greenwood and Hinings (1988) at the macro organizational level can be collapsed into two patterns of social interaction at the group level: inertia and reorientation.

The concept of inertia is drawn from the previous work of Miller and Friesen (1984), and relates to the tendency of organizations to maintain a particular archetype for a long period of time. When a particular interpretive scheme gains dominance, changes that go against the logic of the scheme will be overlooked or suppressed (Miller, 1996). But this is not to suggest that the organizational patterns are reproduced in an identical fashion with no change whatsoever. Although changes can be observed in the practices and patterns of interaction, the key concern in patterns of inertia is the extent to which the dominant interpretive scheme or logic for action remains relatively stable.

In the present study, two patterns of structuration will be theorized at the group level: inertia and reorientation. These two patterns basically represent the extent to which a newcomer to a work group will accommodate and embrace the prevailing interpretive scheme, or resist and attempt to reform the pattern of social interaction which prevails in the work group. While this will be the primary analytical focus in this study, there will be a further interest in aggregating the observations from different groups and analyzing organizational change through the framework proposed by Greenwood and Hinings (1988).

Explaining Structuration Patterns

Within the context of this research project, the exploration of the patterns of structuration which emerge following the introduction of a newcomer into an existing work group primarily involves observation of organizational events as they unfold, and characterization of the patterns observed as representative of either inertia or reorientation. Beyond observation and classification of social interaction in organizational work groups, however, it will be a further purpose of this study to provide explanations as to why various work groups exhibit similar or different patterns of structuration. A priori, it is proposed that two different sets of factors account for similarities and differences in structuration patterns: (1) the similarity or dissimilarity of the newcomer relative to the social characteristics of the other members of the work group and (2) the self-efficacy of the newcomer.

Work Group and Demographic

There are several different streams of research that suggest that work group composition is an important factor in explaining the behavior of individuals, groups, and organizations. Social psychological research has provided insights into several group processes that provide possible explanations for inertia or reorientation in the present case. Past research that is particularly relevant in this regard includes work on pressure for conformity (Asch, 1952), groupthink (Whyte, 1989), and minority influence on the majority (Moscovici & Faucheaux, 1972).

Sociological research on work group composition has focused more on structural elements, and looked at the characteristics of a particular person relative to a group or organization (Pfeffer, 1985). The idea of demographic characteristics, as developed by Pfeffer, is presented in his discussion of "relational demography". Pfeffer argued that, while much of the research on organizational demography looks at group means, it is far more important to look at modes and to examine the characteristics of the individual relative to the group or organization as well as the existence of cohorts within groups.

Research based on the idea of relational demography has flourished for many years, and has provided some interesting results (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990). Research on relational organizational demography has made the connection between demographic characteristics and group integration, and confirmed the hypothesis that demographic homogeneity leads to socially integrated groups (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989). Following that logic, Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that integration and socialization can be reflected in attraction to the group, satisfaction with other members of the group, and socialization among group members. The concept of socialization implies the development of a coherent interpretive scheme, and a shared understanding of social reality among group members. The fact that research has found that demographically similar groups tend to be more socially integrated suggests that demography could be a factor that will influence the extent to which a newcomer either embraces or resists the group he/she joins. Thus, a possible explanation for different patterns of relationships in work groups could be similarities and differences on the basis of demographic characteristics. In terms of the effects of demography on structuration, it was theorized that there would be a relationship between the relative similarity or dissimilarity of the newcomer relative to the group and organization, and the coherence of the prevailing interpretive schemes in the group and organization. Following this logic, two possible patterns are proposed (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Processes of Stability and Change

| | Demography | | Interpretive Scheme | | Structuration Pattern |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Similarity | → | High socialization | → | Inertia |
| 2. | Dissimilarity | → | Low socialization | → | Reorientation |

Measures of demographic composition of groups and of socialization will be used in this study as the basis for exploring factors which possibly lead to patterns of either reorientation or inertia in the pattern of on-going structuration within work groups. The assertion is that patterns of structuration (inertia and reorientation) will be related to demography. This claim is based on the assumption that similarity leads to a more integrated group and increases chances for the development of consensus and shared understandings among group and organizational members. In addition to the support provided to this assertion by the research on demography reported above, there is some evidence from the social psychological literature which tends to support the idea that similarity encourages group unity, cohesion, and conformity, while dissimilarity encourages opposition and conflict

Asch’s (1952) famous studies of the tendency of individuals to conform to the group have provided the impetus for many different lines of research which provide insight into the conditions under which individuals can be swayed to conform to the opinions and behavior patterns of a group. Research on cohesiveness and conformity, for example, has found that the more a person is attracted to the group, the more likely he/she is to conform (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955). This research suggests that newcomers who are attracted to the work groups they join will be more likely to conform to group norms and, thus, encourage inertia. If a newcomer commits to a particular position early in his/her encounter with a group, and later finds out that other group members differ in their views, he/she is likely to resist any group pressure that might exist. However, if the newcomer is silent on issues until he/she finds out what other group members think, then he/she is more likely to conform. As far as establishing what constitutes a group capable of exerting pressure for conformity, Asch (1952) found that there was no more conformity to a group of fifteen than there was to a group of three.

Pressure to conform is an issue which is central to Janis’s work on groupthink. Janis (1982) provided an analysis of real world examples of different political and military decisions and suggested that key decisions would have been made differently had the group of decisions makers not been like-minded and cohesive. Whyte (1955) provided a similar analysis, but invoked a different causal mechanism in suggesting why distortion might occur in group decision making processes. Whyte suggested that, when a problem is framed in a particular way within a cohesive group context, other group members are likely to accept the situation in the frame proposed and come to similar conclusions.

This work on groupthink suggests that resistance to or acceptance of a newcomer who is different is influenced by the extent to which the group is highly cohesive prior to the arrival of the newcomer. The immediate acceptance or rejection of the newcomer on the part of a recognized leader in the group can provide the basis for other group members to act similarly in a cohesive group setting. The potential for groupthink to occur underscores the need to engage in longitudinal observations and to examine the characteristics and tendencies of groups prior to the introduction of the newcomers.

The work of Moscovici and Faucheaux (1972) took a somewhat different view, and suggested the circumstances under which the view of the dominant group might be influenced by a minority. This work suggested that, when not all members of a group agree, social influence works both ways with the minority influencing the majority as well as the majority influencing the minority. Each person takes the opinion of others into account with the group norms resulting from a series of reciprocal concessions (Moscovici & Faucheaux, 1972). This research reinforced the idea that newcomers who have different backgrounds and different opinions than the existing majority have the potential to influence the group and promote reorientation.

Self-efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy, as developed by Bandura (1989), is proposed in this study as a fundamental characteristic of the individual which can have an impact on the pattern of structuration promoted by the newcomer. The idea of self-efficacy is, in many ways, similar to a trait; however, self-efficacy is not considered to be an innate characteristic but, rather, a social cognitive characteristic which is developed over time through life experience. The basic phenomenon of self-efficacy centers on a person's sense of his/her own ability to produce and regulate events (Bandura, 1982). The rationale for associating the concept of self-efficacy with structuration is based on the assertion that a person with high self-efficacy will be more likely to attempt to actively affect changes in the on-going structuration process than will a person with low self-efficacy.

The entrance of a newcomer into an existing work group presents a context in which change of the prevailing patterns of social interaction is possible. Whether or not a particular newcomer asserts his/her agency and attempts to alter the prevailing pattern, however, is thought to be highly dependent on the person's disposition and desire relative to the issue of change. The concept of self-efficacy is thought to be quite central in this regard in that it relates to three different areas of the psychological outlook of the individual: motivation, affect, and action (Bandura, 1989).

Motivation is influenced by self-efficacy because the stronger a person's belief in his/her personal abilities, the greater and more persistent are his/her efforts to influence a situation (Bandura, 1989). This is particularly true in situations where difficulties arise. People who doubt their capabilities decrease their effort and settle for mediocre results, while people who have a strong belief in their capabilities "exert greater effort to master the challenge" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175).

Affective factors are influenced by self-efficacy because the more a person believes in his/her capabilities, the less stress and anxiety that person will experience relative to the task or situation being confronted. People who believe that they have control over potential threats to their lives do not experience the apprehension and anxiety of those who are less firm in their self beliefs and their ability to cope with potential threats and dangers (Bandura, 1989).

Action on the part of an individual is affected by self-efficacy in that people who have strong beliefs about their own abilities tend to be more open to entering situations that are difficult and challenging on the assumption that they are capable of overcoming the difficulties and meeting the challenges. Self selection into difficult and challenging situations can enhance that path of personal development by promoting certain competencies, values, and interests. Thus, the life path followed by a particular individual can be profoundly influenced by self-efficacy both in terms of self limiting choices and self developing choices (Bandura, 1989).

The concept of self-efficacy is introduced in this study as a possible explanation for why the introduction of individuals into work groups leads to patterns of inertia or reorientation. Individuals will be assessed for self-efficacy in order to determine whether people who promote similar patterns of structuration display similar levels of self-efficacy. Logically, one would expect that persons who hold values and beliefs that differ from those of the group, and who have high levels of self-efficacy will be more likely to promote reorientation on the part of the group. Persons with lower levels of self-efficacy should be less likely to attempt to change things, and more likely to encourage inertia.

This position is supported to some extent by the work of Jones (1983) who looked at the relationship between the socialization tactics utilized by the organization and reactions on the part of newcomers. Based on the classification scheme of van Maanen and Schein, Jones predicted that institutionalized socialization tactics would lead to a custodial role orientation, while individualized socialization tactics would lead to innovative role orientations. These hypotheses were accepted in his study. Furthermore, Jones (1983) predicted that self-efficacy moderates the learning process and found that socialization tactics produced a stronger custodial role orientation when the newcomer possessed low self-efficacy, and produced an innovator role when the newcomer possessed high self-efficacy.

In recent years, an increasing number of organizations have restructured work through the use of work groups (Sundstrom, 1999). Yet, we still do not fully understand how individual differences among group members influence important group outcomes (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998). Some studies have examined demographic, knowledge, and skill differences among group members (e.g., Campion, Medsker, & Higg, 1993; Tziner & Eden, 1985); however, few have investigated the impact of demographic differences among members on group outcomes. Thus, this study focuses on the impact of demography among group members on group outcomes.

Demography, the study of individual-within-the-group phenomena, examines the impact of an individual's demographic similarity and dissimilarity with the rest of his or her group members on group processes and outcomes such as group cohesion, communication, and social integration (Wiersema & Bird, 1993). Most academic research concerns the impact of demographic similarity and dissimilarity on individual, group, and organizational outcomes within dynamic relationships and groups (Pfeffer, 1983) with a handful of empirical studies on the organizational level (Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992). Although empirical research has made progress in understanding this complex relationship, much needs to be done to study group level demography in the proper organizational context. Doing this will help us better understand the dynamics through which demographic similarity and dissimilarity influence employee organizational experiences.

In this study, I use the following definitions. “Demographic similarity” refers to the degree of similarity of a certain faculty member with his or her group members on demographic attributes such as age, gender, race, organizational tenure, education, and so on. “Demographic dissimilarity” refers to the degree of dissimilarity of a certain faculty member with his or her group members on demographic attributes such as age, gender, race, organizational tenure, education, and so on. Work group can be described in terms of the group’s gender composition, racial composition, educational levels of members, age composition, or length of tenure among members, to name a few.

Organizational change serves as one example of an organizational outcome.

On the group level, the research on the effect of demographic diversity in groups tends to focus on the composition of the entire work group on some demographic attributes; or in other words, homogeneity or heterogeneity on certain demographic variables. In this body of research, the variables that have been studied include age, tenure, education level, background, race and so on. This study examines the importance of similarity more narrowly by focusing on how group members use demographic variables to assess how similar to or different from one individual. For example, members of Faculty of Liberal Arts composed of both men and women, superiors and subordinates, Thais and American, and graduated from bachelor and master education level. These effects on demographic variables are thought to lead to a number of important outcomes at work groups.

Pfeffer (1983) contended that demographic distributions have a theoretical and empirical reality of their own that are distinct from the aggregation of responses of individual members within an organization. Tsui et al. (1992) pointed out that demographics, such as gender or age, and the relationship of an attribute between two or more individuals, are important for understanding interaction and group outcomes. They contended that any individual can be different from, or similar to, any other individual in a work group unit on the demographic attribute being considered. Thus, "being different" is a relational concept that applies to everyone – majority as well as the minority. Demographic attributes represent information that individuals might use to infer similarity to others on such things as attitudes or beliefs. This, in turn, influences the individual's attraction towards other individuals. Consequences of low attraction include less communication, low social integration, and eventual turnover.

The demographic issue in this study proposes that an individual's demographic attributes relative to those within his or her work environment will influence integration into the work group. This is called "relational demographic". The level of an individual's similarity or dissimilarity in demographic attributes to the composition of his or her group unit is proposed to affect the individual's work-related attitudes and behaviors, and the structuration patterns of inertia and reorientation. Thus, the same individual demographic characteristics can yield different work-related attitudes in different social contexts. For example, Baskett (1973) found that people are drawn to others who are similar. Jackson (1992) found that the greater a top management team member's dissimilarity on characteristics such as educational level, college curriculum, and experience relative to the rest of his or her team, the more likely the individual was to leave the employing organization (i.e., turnover); however, similarity between individuals can lead to desired outcomes such as frequent communication, high social integration within a group, and a desire to maintain group affiliation (Lincoln & Miller, 1979). Settings in which individuals are similar in terms of their demographic characteristics can, thus, offer individuals certain advantages, such as “enjoy[ing] more cohesive work relations” (Wharton & Baron, 1987, p. 567), over more diverse settings. Therefore, in terms of organizational change, individual’s work-related reorientation or inertia can be affected by the degree to which the individuals’ demographic characteristics are similar to those of others in their group unit.

A complex, and somewhat confusing, picture is painted concerning the role of demographic similarity/dissimilarity in defining organizational functioning. On the one hand, the organizational demography literature indicates that dissimilarity and heterogeneity are negatively related to organizational effectiveness. Studies indicate that dissimilar members face difficulties integrating into a group. They are often made to feel uncomfortable in the group, are perceived as poor performers, and are pressured to leave (Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989). Describing the other side of the picture, Schneider (1987) cautions that a lack of diversity can cause organizations to fail – as its people, structure, and processes can become so fixed to a particular segment of the environment that, when the environment changes, the existing people, processes, and structures are no longer viable. Thus, the challenge for many organizations is the need for heterogeneity to promote problem solving and innovation while balancing the need for organizational coherence and unity of action.

Traditional demography-focused studies of organizations propose that that there are two kinds of demographic dissimilarity that need to be examined. First is the overall degree of demographic dissimilarity of the whole organization, which includes the demographic profile of other groups or units within the organization. Second is the distribution of demographic dissimilarity across different groups, units, departments, or levels within the organization. This study only focuses on the second kind of demographic dissimilarity. These differential demographic distributions and patterns can have significant implications for inter-group relations and coordination.

An Interactive Perspective on Socialization

Having presented the key issues and elements that comprise the overall theoretical stance taken in this study, the ideas presented are now brought together in order to provide a summary of the overall conceptual framework that was employed and the rationale for the positions taken. The most fundamental contribution that structuration theory makes to the study of newcomers in an organization is to highlight the interactive nature of the socialization process. Unlike the traditional view of socialization which posits the ways in which organizations shape and change individuals, structuration theory allows for reciprocal influence and presents an opportunity to investigate the manner by which newcomers also act upon, and either reinforce or change, the existing structural characteristics of the organization.

The traditional view of organizational socialization has implied that the relationship between the organization and the individual is unidirectional with the organization acting on the individual and molding him/her into the desired role (Feldman, 1976; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1977). In the present research, however, it is proposed that the relationship between the individual and the organization is interactive, and that, through the introduction of a new organizational member, the culture and interpersonal relationships within the organization can be transformed, producing an organization or group which is substantively different from that which existed prior to the introduction of the newcomer(s).

The introduction of a new member is an event in an organization which necessitates self-assessment and evaluation. Before one can teach something to a new recruit, it is necessary to contemplate what it is that is to be taught. Anyone who has been involved in child-rearing should be readily familiar with this process; teaching a child about the world requires a critical evaluation of what to teach, what not to teach, and why. But just as two parents or guardians might disagree about such things as whether a child can or cannot eat candy, or how much television may be watched in a day, organizational members can be at odds concerning matters such as how often one should meet with his/her superior, or whether or not it is acceptable to consume alcohol at lunch.

While organizational members might unknowingly disagree on such issues, the potential exists that these disagreements will be brought to light through the socialization of a newcomer. The introduction of a newcomer necessitates the consideration of many latent issues and often leads to the evaluation and, possibly, the revision of past practices.

Using the terminology proposed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979), structuration theory suggests that every newcomer is an innovator to some extent. The issue of key importance, however, is the extent to which the changes brought about by newcomers impinge upon the social relationships in the work group and the underlying interpretive scheme which provides the basis for the definition and accomplishment of work tasks. The range of variance potentially captured in the continuum between custodianship and role innovation makes the classification system proposed by Van Maanen and Schein appropriate to a structurational analysis of socialization. An important adaptation is necessary, however, and that is to treat this classification as a relative, rather than absolute, scale. Another important amendment suggested by structuration theory is the inclusion of both intended and unintended consequences. It is highly likely that actions intended to have a custodial effect could potentially lead to innovation, and vice versa.

The basic premise of structuration theory, that structure is both constitutive of and constituted in social interaction, suggests that both the organization and the newcomer will be somewhat changed as a result of their interaction and the "slippage" (Barley, 1986; Giddens, 1984) that occurs in the transmission of organizational values and roles. In the present study, however, the primary focus is upon change in an organization rather than change in individuals, and the manner by which the introduction of newcomers impacts on existing values and practices within specified work groups. There are several reasons for adopting this somewhat "one sided" approach. First, the events which stimulate the present project are the product of a strategic policy decision on the part of the administration in the organization under study. The present study is designed with a view to attempting to understand the organizational implications of the relationship between hiring practices and other strategic policy decisions.

Second, an emphasis on group and organizational level stability and change as arising out of the hiring of newcomers provides a balance of sorts when juxtaposed with the vast existing literature which takes organizational stability for granted and focuses on the manner by which newcomers are integrated into an existing, stable structure. Third, to look at both the impact of recruits on the organization and the impact of the organization on recruits would require attention to an overwhelmingly large number of variables and issues, and would be unmanageable for a single researcher. Fourth, from the macro point of view taken in this study, individuals are viewed more as “role holders” or agents than they are as individuals. As such the personal adjustments experienced by individuals are beyond the scope of the analytical stance taken. Finally, the reactions of newcomers to the many factors they are faced with when joining a new organization have been theorized and the subject of previous empirical research (Nicholson, 1984; Nicholson & West, 1988), while the influence of the newcomer on the organization has been given little or no attention in previous research.

Classification Scheme for Newcomers’ Influence

Following the logic of the custodian/innovator terminology, the effect a newcomer has on structuration can be classified into six different types of influence as depicted in figure 2 below. It is important to note that this classification scheme is intended as a method by which to categorize different actions taken by a particular person. The episodic nature of social interaction in organizations is such that a particular newcomer might act in a highly innovative manner in one situation and a highly custodial manner in another. The purpose of the classification scheme, then, is to facilitate classification of observations of newcomer influence within different organizational episodes and attempt to ascertain an overall pattern of influence across episodes and settings.

Figure 2: The Influence of Newcomers' Action on Structuartion

| | | States of Consciousness and Locus of Control: | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Intentional | Unintentional |
| | Custodianship | | |
| Newcomer's | Process Innovation | | |
| Influence: | Role Innovation | | |

Patterns of inertia are characterized as involving intentional and unintentional custodianship, unintentional process innovation, and unintentional role innovation. This pattern basically reflects a conscious acceptance of the interpretive scheme as presented, but allows for intended consequences to arise in all areas. The key to this pattern is the intentional custodianship behavior which basically reflects an acceptance of the existing norms and a conscious attempt to fit in and reproduce the existing social order.

Patterns of reorientation are characterized as involving (1) unintentional custodianship, as well as intentional and unintentional process and role innovation; or (2) unintentional custodianship, as well as intentional and unintentional process innovation and unintentional role innovation; or (3) intentional custodianship, and intentional process and/or role innovation. Once again, the key determining factors in characterizing these patterns is the reaction of the recruit relative to the prevailing interpretive scheme and patterns of social interaction. In each of these potential patterns, the idea is to capture the predominant intentions of the recruits, and to assess the extent to which the recruit challenges and attempts to change prevailing social patterns.

In patterns one and two, there is not any intentional custodianship and the behavior of the recruit reflects an intentional attempt to change or reorient existing patterns. There is some allowance, however, for the recruit to unintentionally, through routine or subconscious conforming, exhibit behaviors that are somewhat custodial. In pattern three, the intention remains that of challenging the prevailing interpretive scheme and patterns of interaction but the tactics are somewhat different. In this case, the recruit intentionally behaves in a custodial manner with regards to some areas of activity, but strongly resists other areas of activity. The key aspect underlying each of these patterns of reorientation is the conscious challenge to some, but not necessarily all, of the prevailing practices of the work group.

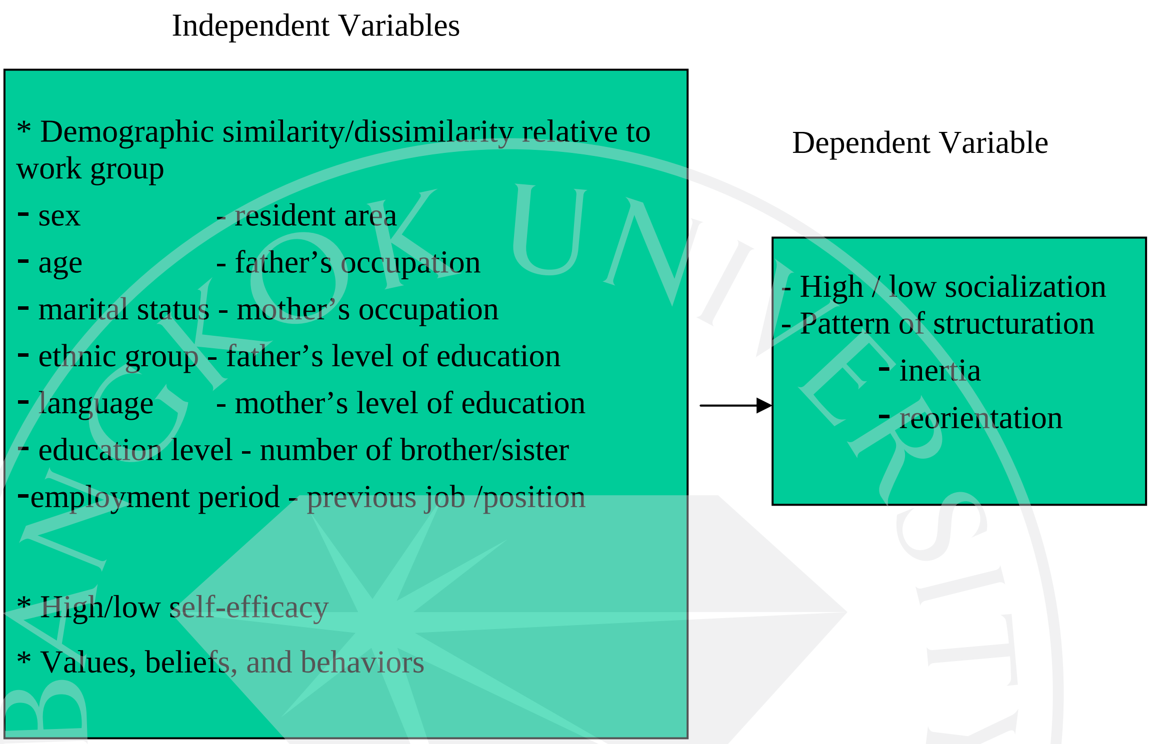
Having made an assessment of the patterns of structuration that can prevail in a group following the introduction of a newcomer, the task is then to explore the factors that are similar among groups that exhibit similar structuration patterns. Two areas are considered: 1) the social characteristics of the individual relative to the group; and 2) the self efficacy of individual newcomers.

The concept of socialization, as researched by O'Reilly (1989) and his colleagues, has been found to be related to demographic similarity. Suggested similarity in demographic characteristics can provide the basis for the development of a coherent interpretive scheme and a shared understanding of social reality among group members. In terms of the effects of demography on structuration, therefore, it is proposed that this relationship is mediated by the effect of demography on the prevailing interpretive schemes in the group or organization. Thus, the newcomer who is similar to the existing group is expected to "fit in" with the existing social patterns and relationships, and inertia is expected to ensue. Conversely, the newcomer who is different from the existing group is expected to not fit in so readily, and differing patterns of relationships are expected to emerge as the existing group members and the newcomer attempt to build a working relationship and a basis for shared understanding.

A competing theory to this is that those newcomers who are similar in demographic background to established group members will be sufficiently confident and comfortable with the group so that they will be assertive and dissenting in other areas, such as methods for task accomplishment or even the definition of the tasks that need to be accomplished. Conversely, those newcomers who are dissimilar in demographic characteristics are expected to be sufficiently uneasy so as to acquiesce to group norms in other areas in an attempt to fit in and become part of the group (Gunz, 1989*)*. What this approach really suggests, however, is that similarity can lead to higher self-efficacy and, thus, innovation, while dissimilarity can lead to lower self-efficacy and, thus, inertia. Since both self-efficacy and group demographic composition are under study in this research, the interaction of these variables is considered, and these competing explanations are investigated.

The investigation of this study is guided by the following conceptual model:

Figure 3: Research Conceptual Model




The research questions are as follow:

RQ1: What is the relationship, if any, between the demographic similarity/ dissimilarity of newcomers to existing group members and the structuration processes of inertia versus reorientation?

RQ2: What is the relationship, if any, between newcomer self-efficacy and adoption of either an innovator or a custodial role within a work group?

RQ3: What aspects of communicative interaction do newcomers attribute to their socialization?

RQ4: How do veterans communicate desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors to newcomers during socialization processes?

RQ5: What are influences of socialization tactics that are institutionally desirable communicated/affected to newcomers at Eastern Asia University during socialization process?

Chapter Summary

The organizational socialization of newcomers is a complex phenomenon that flows from a combination of the general adjustment processes that new organizational member undergo in any organization and additional characteristics that result from the nature of work and organizational structure. The literature reviewed for this chapter examined aspects of the newcomer socialization process that are generic to all organizations. This broad, general background in organizational socialization helped structure the study by offering multiple perspectives on newcomer experience and suggesting underlying issues that affect organizational structure.

Chapter Two also presented literature that explained the concept of organizational structure. The literature addressed how organizational socialization of newcomers tends to occur and affect structuration patterns within groups, different values, beliefs, and behaviors. The significant concepts examined were that of self-efficacy and demographic. An argument was advanced for why the quality of self-efficacy and demographic similarity and dissimilarity might affect the pattern of structuration within an organization.

As has been shown, organizational socialization and structuration theory provided important foundations for this study. The former suggested categories and milestones a researcher might look for in studying socialization. The latter identified many of the desirable outcomes of newcomer's socialization and some of the factors designed to foster those outcomes. Both contributions were used to formulate the research questions and the study design described in Chapter Three.

# CHAPTER THREE:

# METHODOLOGY

This study took advantage of my present employment situation. This employment situation provided me with a wealth of background knowledge regarding the organization being studied and its culture. My present situation also provided me with sufficient information to be able to ascertain that this organization would be a suitable research site for the investigation of the issues of concern. The present chapter provides an overview of the organization and background information relevant to the study, an overview of the methods of data collection that were utilized, and a discussion of how and why the methods chosen are relevant for and appropriate to the present study.

## Research Design

The purpose of this study was to explore and describe the process through which organizational socialization of new faculty at Eastern Asia University takes place; the reinforcement or the promotion of the existing social patterns in that organization as reported by new faculty members; the relationship of organizational values, beliefs, and behaviors to new faculty socialization; and the influence of new employees (faculty members) on the structure of the organization.

The intent of the present study was to provide an “insider’s view” of the patterns of interaction within an organization in a manner similar to that described by Barley (1986). Specifically, utilizing the concept of structuration, the researcher examined the manner in which work roles and patterns of interaction in the work place persist and change over time. My approach in this study was to investigate the emergent processes through which tasks were divided among personnel, roles were defined and carried out by organizational members, and prevailing patterns persisted or changed following the introduction of a newcomer.

Research Site

Previous research on the socialization of new faculty members within a university setting has been sparse. Moreover, what research exists has largely ignored tactics that universities use explicitly for the purpose of influencing socialization and structure in the organization. Factors such as the socialization of new faculty and the influence of other persons in the university have been measured in isolation from other factors. Little evidence of the university's impact on socialization has come to light.

In order to study the multitude of factors that could influence new faculty socialization and the structure of the organization, it was decided that the research site needed to meet the following criteria:

1. the presence of a large number of new faculty hired in recent years;
2. new faculty from a wide variety of backgrounds/experiences;
3. an established program of tactics specifically designed to socialize new faculty to organizational expectations.

In addition to these criteria, the researcher sought a university that could serve as a model of excellence based on objective criteria. Marshall and Rossman (1989) noted that

> the research site is where (1) entry is possible; (2) there is a high probability that a rich mix of many of the processes, people, programs, interactions, and/or structures that may be a part of the research question will be present;

> (3) the researcher can devise an appropriate role to maintain continuity of presence for as long as necessary; and (4) data of the study are reasonably assured by avoiding poor sampling decision. (p. 54)

Accessibility and receptivity of personnel at the site in addition to a rich, varied environment are therefore just as important as are manifestations of the phenomena which form the focus of the study.

Eastern Asia University (EAU), particularly the schools of Communication Arts, Business Administration, Education, and Liberal Arts, emerged as an appropriate research site because EAU met all of the aforementioned criteria. The rate of faculty retirement and resignation at the university has generated an influx of new faculty members in recent years; moreover, the nature of the university's location and the university's hiring policies combine to ensure diversity among the ranks of new hires. In practical terms, the researcher is employed at this university and was assured that she would be granted full access to the site and extensive cooperation by university insiders. Thus, there was a very strong likelihood that the data collected would be extensive and meaningful.

EAU is located in Prathumtani, Thailand, and enjoys a current enrollment of 3,000 undergraduate students, 380 graduate students, with a faculty of 300 and a staff of 150. The college is situated approximately 20 kilometers outside Bangkok.

The physical plant consists of four dormitories, 6 academic buildings (including lecture halls and laboratories), and 4 non-academic buildings (including a dining hall and a student union). The college has a traditional administrative set-up. EAU is run by a president who is assisted by five vice presidents (Academic Affairs, Fiscal Affairs, Student Affairs, Personnel, and Planning and Development).

Approximately 76 percent of the faculty is tenured. However, the existence of a very active union reduces most of the perquisites of rank and seniority within the departments, including those of the departmental chairperson, who is elected every two years by the members of the department with the concurrence of the Vice President for Academic Affairs.

For most faculty members, the school day begins at 8:30 a.m. and ends at 4:00 or 4:30 p.m. The schedule of classes divides the school day into 3 periods. First period starts at 8:30 a.m. and ends at 11:30 a.m.; second period starts at 12:00 p.m. and ends at 3:00 p.m., and last period starts at 3:00 p.m. and ends at 6:00 p.m. Most courses meet once a week for three hours. Most faculty members have a five-day work week and an eight-hour work day.

The faculty members constitute an identifiable workgroup within each department. Faculty members work together, train together, eat together, and often face crises together. Thus, over time, the members of a particular group develop their own routines, norms, and culture.

While the nucleus of a particular faculty or group might stay together for one year or more, changes in personnel do occur. Because the promotion system within any department is based on seniority, when a member of a department retires or resigns, all of the remaining department members move up the ladder. Under ordinary circumstances, approximately once per year a class of 15-20 or so newcomers is hired.

Through transfers, promotions, and the hiring of newcomers, there is a high incidence of personnel change in each department over the course of a typical year. Yet despite these frequent changes, faculty members are expected to work effectively as a team. It is postulated that the key contributing factor which allows a work group to operate as an effective team is the existence of a strong culture which exists beyond an individual's work time and binds members together throughout the organization.

Population and Sample Selection

A total of 20 newcomers, 60 veterans, and 18 key informants participated in the study. As defined in Chapter One, a newcomer was a faculty member who, at the time of this research, had been employed by the university for less than 3 months at the time of the first mentoring, who had not been previously employed by the university, and who did not attend the university as a student. The newcomers in this research were permanent, full-time employees. They were "permanent" employees in the sense that, even though they did not yet hold tenure, they had been hired with a reasonable expectation of being employed for the indefinite future. For the purposes of this research, a veteran was defined as a faculty member who had been employed by the university for at least one year on a continuous, permanent, and full-time basis.

Because the newcomer population was relatively small, every effort was made to involve all available and willing newcomers in the research. The newcomers were selected to form a training class of recruited faculty members.

The selection of veteran faculty members proceeded by, first, eliminating the names of the newcomers from the faculty name list, creating a list of 300 names. Every fifth veteran's name was then chosen from that list. The result was a sample of sixty veterans. The key informants selected for the study were third year full-time faculty members. The total pool of faculty who met this description was 18 people.

Quantitative Method

Demographic data were collected in EAU from 20 new faculty members and

60 veterans. GES data were obtained from the same group of 20 new faculty members.

Qualitative Method

The administration agreed to cooperate with the researcher in identifying the departments that were receiving new recruits, while keeping this fact unknown to those departments until just a few days before the new recruits arrived. The administration also agreed to temporarily assign me to each of the departments receiving a new faculty member so that I could observe the patterns of interaction in each group and department, along with interviewing the 20 new faculty members and the18 key informants. These temporary assignments lasted for a total of approximately three months. After the introduction of the newcomers, I was again temporarily assigned to each of the groups in order to analyze the day to day operations and assess the extent to which the newcomers promoted inertia in the structuration process or encouraged reorientation.

My presence in each work group was explained by noting that I was conducting a research project. However, due to the fact that my interest in this research centered primarily on issues of organizational change, I decided to construct an alternative research theme to present to the participants in order to minimize the effects of the study on their behavior. The story that I presented was that I was interested in studying teamwork in departments at EAU and was interested in observing how faculty members interact within their work groups in different departments.

Existing Interpretive Schemes and Social Characteristics

Through my employment experience in the organization over a period of approximately three years, I have worked in a variety of work groups and with many other organizational members, and have been widely exposed to the culture of the organization. In fact, following Giddens' (1984) theory of structuration, it could be said that I have actively participated in the production and reproduction of the EAU culture. Thus, many of the identifying features of the prevailing organizational culture are readily describable. It is the central aspects of this culture, coupled with some of the broader political events affecting higher education in Thailand, that suggest that the process of change could be imminent. These circumstances make the organization a rich research site for the study of the processes of stability and change.

The most identifiable aspect of the EAU culture is its patriarchal orientation. The four departments (or schools) that were previously identified have been and are noticeably dominated by a single demographically defined group: white Caucasian males. Perhaps, the predominant interpretive scheme, which gives shape and meaning to action and prescribes the terms of reference for interaction, is based on a system of patriarchy which recognizes the eldest male as the leader and distributes power and prestige downward. Thus, the power structure is primarily hierarchical and based on tenure in the organization.

This mode of organization was supported and given legitimacy through both the formal and informal aspects of the organization. From a formal point of view, the promotional system of the organization is based on seniority. The faculty members in the departments obtain the right to qualify for their position through seniority. On an informal level, this same distribution of power on the basis of seniority is prevalent in the daily work and informal tasks of the faculty members.

The general characterization of the prevailing interpretive scheme in the departments is intended as background information in order to suggest the potential for change which existed in the organization prior to the study. However, this general characterization is simply an ideal-typical characterization (Greenwood & Hinings, 1988) and should not be taken as a description of the social order that prevails in any one particular work group. Further, the purpose of the research was to ascertain the extent to which a particular interpretive scheme prevailed within the work groups studied and within the overall organization. Several months following the assessment, the work group was re-examined in order to ascertain the extent to which the newcomers challenged or reinforced the patterns which were prevalent during the first set of observations.

Overview of Methods

The overarching concern in this study is to examine the structuration process within specific work groups of an organization, and to ascertain the extent to which the introduction of newcomers leads to an observable pattern of either inertia or reorientation. In order to make this assessment, a longitudinal design was employed. The patterns of social relationships were examined prior to the introduction of newcomers who joined their respective work groups (Time 1), and three months following the introduction of the newcomers into their groups (Time 2).

Through my own experience with the organization, it was possible to identify key aspects of the culture, work routines, and divisions, as they are practiced throughout the organization. I joined the specified work groups and observed the specific scripts enacted by the members of each work group. Goffman (1967) described scripts as “outlines or plots of recurrent behaviors and activities that define, in observable terms, the essence of the roles and actions that characterize a particular interaction order" (p. 48). By recording scripts related to the daily routines in the work settings, I was able to identify the underlying patterns and themes, and was able to characterize the type of interpretive scheme that underpins the actions of specific role holders in each work group.

The data, which were collected through observations as an active participant, were further supplemented by questionnaires and semi-structured interviews which were completed with the members of each work group. Questions centered on the manner in which work tasks are divided and carried out by various members of the work group. Questions also focused on the values and beliefs of the individual members of each work group in order to ascertain the extent to which each group was cohesive or divergent in terms of member perceptions of certain job related issues.

The double hermeneutic was central in this regard, as my method involved experiencing the social interactions within each group and gaining an understanding of the manner in which group members related to one another and whether they shared a common understanding of their group's culture. In addition to gaining this picture of each group, a further step was involved in then characterizing the main features of each group in order to describe each group to others.

The process of working with the groups and recording observations of scripts enacted under actual working conditions was repeated several months later at Time 2, following the introduction of the newcomers into the work groups. The observations were corroborated through questionnaires and semi-structured interviews that were conducted with the various members of each work group again. A comparison of the scripts enacted and the values and beliefs expressed at the two different time periods provided the basis for an assessment of whether each group exhibited inertia or reorientation following the introduction of the newcomers. In order to classify the behavior of the newcomers, the different patterns of behavior for each newcomer were assessed using the classification scheme depicted in figure 2. The pattern of inertia or reorientation suggested by this classification system was then compared with other observations and field notes in order to establish whether the different methods provided a consistent picture of the situation.

According to the structuration patterns within different work groups, a further interest in this study was to seek explanations for why different newcomers promote similar or different patterns of structuration. In order to investigate these factors, each new faculty member was asked to complete a questionnaire prior to joining their particular work group. The questionnaires were administered while the new faculty members were involved in basic training, and were used to collect information regarding age, gender, ethnic origin, education, and previous work experience (see appendix A).

Moreover, in order to add to the credibility of the research, I administered a standardized questionnaire which deals with issues of group cohesiveness. The questionnaire used was the Group Environment Scale developed by Moos (1986)

Moos and Moos (1981) stated that the Group Environment Scale (GES) has been used in organizational settings to facilitate group counseling and team building, and to compare members' and leaders' views of their group and team. The GES is also useful for encouraging members to become involved in planning and changing the group or team, and in showing both members and leaders how their behavior influences team climate.

GES consists of 90 true and false questions. The questions relate to 10 sub-scales pertaining to three different dimensions. The relationship dimension includes scales pertaining to cohesion, leader support, and expressiveness. The personal growth dimension includes scales pertaining to interdependence, task orientation, self-discovery, and anger and aggression. The system maintenance and system change dimension includes scales pertaining to order and organization, leader control, and innovation. For each of the ten sub-scales, each respondent is given a score out of nine.

The GES has three forms: Real Form (Form R) which measures members' and leaders' perceptions of their group, Ideal Form (Form I) which measures members' and leaders' conceptions of the ideal group setting, and Expectation Form (Form E) which measures prospective members' or leaders' expectations about group settings (Moos, 1986).

The three GES forms are parallel; accordingly, each of the 90 items in Form I and in Form E correspond to an item in Form R. For example, the first item in Form R is, "There is a feeling of unity and cohesion in this group." Rephrased in Form I and Form E, the item is, "There will be a feeling of unity and cohesion in this group." All three forms use the same scoring keys and answer sheets. Therefore, the GES forms serve as a method for comparing how different members of a work group view different issues.

To calculate the test-retest reliabilities of individual sub-scale scores for the GES, I consulted other researchers (Chaitut, 2000). In a pilot test, GES scores were calculated for 63 faculty members (20 faculty members from Chaopraya University, 20 faculty members from Thurakijbundith University, and 23 faculty members from

Rangsit University). All these universities are located in Thailand. The faculty members completed Form R twice with a one-month interval between assessments. The test-retest reliabilities all fell in an acceptable range, varying from a low of .65 for independence and .67 for expressiveness to a high of .87 for anger and aggression and .83 for self-discovery (see Table 1).

Table 1: The Test-Retest Reliabilities of GES

| Subscale | One-month Test-Retest Reliability (N=63) |
|---|---|
| Cohesion | .79 |
| Leader Support | .73 |
| Expressiveness | .67 |
| Independence | .65 |
| Task Orientation | .78 |
| Self-Discovery | .83 |
| Anger and Aggression | .87 |
| Order and Organization | .82 |
| Leader Control | .75 |
| Innovation | .71 |

Regarding content and construct validity, Moos (1986) described how he tried to build content and face validity from the outset by formulating definitions of specific constructs, such as cohesion and independence; preparing items to fit the construct definitions; and selecting items that were conceptually related to a dimension. In addition, items were chosen on the basis of empirical criteria such as item intercorrelations, item sub-scale correlations, and internal consistency analyses. Finally, to increase conceptual clarity and minimize item overlap, each item was placed on only one dimension.

Table 2: From R Internal Consistencies, Corrected Average Item-Subscale Correlations, and Reliabilities (Moos, 1986).

| Subscale | Internal Consistency (N=246) | Corrected Average Item-Subscale Correlations (N=246) |
|---|---|---|
| Cohesion | .86 | .53 |
| Leader Support | .74 | .37 |
| Expressiveness | .70 | .34 |
| Independence | .62 | .30 |
| Task Orientation | .72 | .36 |
| Self-Discovery | .83 | .47 |
| Anger and Aggression | .83 | .49 |
| Order and Organization | .85 | .51 |
| Leader Control | .73 | .36 |
| Innovation | .78 | .42 |

<u>Timing of the Study</u>

Data collection for the study was completed in two parts. The first site visit occurred in May 2004. The primary purpose of this visit was to attend the new faculty member orientation. In addition, I was able to meet with some contacts and ask for their assistance in framing the study. The first visit also provided an opportunity to become familiar with the departments, an experience that proved invaluable in obtaining background information and laying the groundwork for the second visit.

The second site visit took place between June and August 2004. This visit was deliberately timed to afford the best opportunity for observation, interviews, and collecting information through questionnaires at a time between that when employee evaluation forms for continuing contracts must be submitted and when candidates for continuing appointments are notified of the recommendation made to the Broad of Trustees. The intent was to capture the views of faculty who had experienced every aspect of the new faculty socialization process including values, beliefs, and behaviors but whose perceptions would not be influenced by knowledge of whether they had been granted a continuing contract.

Research Collection and Procedure

The similarity or dissimilarity of new faculty members relative to the groups they joined were assess via quantitative methods. One additional conceptual construct was assessed via qualitative methods alone: the communication patterns, values, beliefs, and behaviors exhibited by new faculty members. The construction of measures to assess each of these areas is discussed below.

Assessment of Newcomer versus Veteran Similarities/Dissimilarities. Similarities and dissimilarities were determined through use of demographic information collected on the questionnaires completed by the new faculty members and the veteran members of the departments the new faculty members were joining. The data collected included information concerning eight ordinal-level variables and seven nominal-level variables. The ordinal variables included age, tenure in current department, education, etc. The nominal variables included marital status, father's occupation, etc.

Education and parent's education were measured by having respondents check off the different levels. Marital status and ethnic origin were recorded by leaving a blank space for respondents to write in their status. The categories were generated from the responses received. Language was recorded using the same technique as used on census questionnaires. The question asked respondents to identify the first language they learned as a child. Residences prior to current employment were coded as either the city of employment or other. Father's occupation and mother's occupation were coded.

The notion of relational demographics as advanced by Pfeffer (1983) suggests that averages and standard deviations are not sufficient to capture the distributional and compositional variations that can exist within a group. Rather, descriptive statistics need to be employed to measure similarity/dissimilarity of one member and the other members of a work group. Pfeffer also suggested that the coefficient of variation is an appropriate measure for assessing the amount of difference within a group or organization. Allison (1978) pointed out that the coefficient of variation and the scale invariant measure of dispersion provide appropriate indices, and Pfeffer (1983), as well as many of his colleagues, has adopted this measure in demographic research (see, for example, O'Reilly et al., 1989; Wagner, Pfeffer, & O'Reilly, 1984).

The scores pertaining to demographic issues were analyzed on the basis of frequencies and percentages within each group. Each individual's scores were coded and analyzed on a group by group basis. Using this information, it was then possible to categorize different groups on the basis of the classification system presented in Figure 2. The demographic scores for each new faculty member were examined. Using this technique, it was possible to determine which new faculty members were relatively similar to the group they were joining, and which were relatively different.

It has been proposed that similarity is associated with an interpretive scheme that should result in a relatively high level of socialization, while dissimilarity is associated with an interpretive scheme that should result in a relatively lower level of socialization. Socialization was measured through the GES in two ways. First, the GES has a sub-scale that pertains to cohesion, and within group scores were computed using this sub-scale. Second, the individual perceptions of various group activities and processes as indicated by the different sub-scales were examined in order to determine the extent to which group members were in agreement regarding different aspects of group behaviors.

Specific questions were developed and posed during the interview process to tap into the three conceptual components of group interaction proposed by O'Reilly (1989)

as important to organizational socialization: (1) group cohesiveness, (2) satisfaction with coworkers, and (3) extra-curricular socializing. These data were analyzed on a within group basis with similarity of responses of different group members used as a qualitative measure of group cohesiveness. These data were further corroborated through observations.

GES Form R items were available as booklets with separate answer sheets. Respondents were asked to not make marks in the booklet itself. However, if a respondent was unable to use the separate answer sheet, he/she was then permitted to mark T or F beside each item in the booklet. Those answers were later transcribed onto answer sheets to facilitate scoring. The GES forms were given to respondents in a quiet, comfortable, well-lit room with ample space for each person to work. The groups were kept small so that the researcher could move around the room to observe the administration and ensure that each person was completing the GES form correctly. The GES instructions were read aloud while respondents followed along in their booklet and on their answer sheet. Pencils with erasers were provided. On request, simple clarifications of word meanings were provided; however, care was taken to not influence the direction of a person's response.

Because the sub-scales are relatively short, participants were encouraged to answer all items. When possible, each answer sheet was checked as it was turned in to see that it was complete and included all necessary identifying information.

Assessment of the Concept of Structuration. The concept of structuration was assessed through participant observations at Time 1 and Time 2. During the initial observation period with the work group (Time 1), the researcher recorded the scripts as they pertained to specific aspects of the daily work of the group under study. During the Time 2 encounter with each work group, the researcher observed and recorded the specific scripts in evidence and ascertained the extent to which they confirmed or challenged the patterns observed in the previous research episode (Time1). The behavior of the new faculty members was of particular concern during the Time 2 observations. The focus of attention was on trying to determine the extent to which the new faculty members accepted/conformed to or refuted/challenged the prevailing social patterns. Scripts enacted by the new faculty members were classified according to a three-by-two classification scheme (in Figure 2).

Patterns of inertia were characterized as involving intentional and unintentional custodianship, unintentional processes of innovation, and unintentional role innovation. Patterns of reorientation were characterized as involving either (a) intentional and unintentional process and role innovation; or (b) intentional and unintentional process innovation and unintentional role innovation; or (c) intentional custodianship, and unintentional process and role innovation. Having an assessment of the patterns of structuration that prevail in each group following the introduction of a new faculty member, the task was then to explore the factors that are similar across groups exhibiting similar structuration patterns. Two areas were considered: the social characteristics of the new faculty members; and the self-efficacy of the individual new faculty members.

The observation was supplemented by semi-structured interviews conducted with all of the members of each work group at Time1 and with a sample of informants at Time 2. The interview questions focused on issues that were currently salient in the organization. The interview responses were analyzed and compared with the scripts that were recorded. Through this process of comparative analysis, the researcher looked for evidence of coherence and attempted to create an overall picture of each group.

Greenwood and Hinings (1988) have suggested that interpretive schemes in organizations can be studied by focusing on the values and beliefs held by organizational members as those values and beliefs pertain to three major areas: (1) the domain and raison d'etre of the organization, (2) the methods of achieving the purposes and principles of organizing, and (3) the criteria that should be used to evaluate the extent to which the organization's purposes are being fulfilled. These three areas of concern were incorporated into the questions posed in the interviews.

Assessment of Communication, Values, Beliefs, and Behaviors. For communication, values, beliefs, and behaviors, participant interviewing was the primary method of data collection. Document analysis and field observations were used as well to provide triangulation. Each of these methods, as outlined by Patton (2001), was supplemented with compatible sources.

Qualitative Interviewing

According to Patton (2001), "qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit" (p. 278). Interviewing is highly useful for understanding things that cannot be observed, such as feeling, thoughts, and intentions; past events that cannot be replicated; situations which prohibit the observer's presence; and a person's internal scheme of meaning (Patton, 2001). Because one of the basic purposes of qualitative research is to uncover "multiple, constructed realities," interviewing is, in many cases, an indispensable technique.

Qualitative interviews can take a variety of forms, including one-on-one or focus group interviews, and face-to-face interviews versus mailed questionnaires versus telephone interviews (Fontana & Frey, 1994). Of these methods, only face-to-face interviews were used in this study. Patton calls the three pure forms of face-to-face interviews the standardized, open-ended interview; the general interview guide approach; and the informal conversational interview; others use the terms structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interviews (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

The standardized, open-ended interview is the most structured technique and is often used when time is limited, when it is desirable to minimize variation among multiple interviewers, or when each respondent is to be interviewed only once. It requires that each question must be written out in advance exactly as it will be asked, including follow-up questions that seek clarification or elaboration. At its most structured extreme, this type of interview format precludes the interviewer from making changes in sequence or wording or from engaging in any but a perfunctory explanation of the study (Fontana & Frey, 1994).

Although standardized, open-ended interviews are often preferred by researchers because if their need to establish legitimacy and credibility in the eyes of those authorizing the study, Patton (2001) noted that standardized interviews are unnecessarily restrictive for those conducting basic research:

> For the conduct of basic research, when one is attempting to understand the holistic worldview of a group of people, it is not necessary to collect the same information from each person. The political credibility of the data collected is less an issue under basic research conditions. (p. 286)

Therefore, it is usually desirable for the interviewer to have more flexibility in adapting to responses as they emerge and for following up on individual uniqueness than this approach allows.

In contrast to standardized, open-ended interviewing, the general interview guide or semi-structured approach provides a framework for developing and sequencing questions without stipulating the exact wording. Although the same general information is sought from all respondents, the semi-structured approach allows the interviewer to use probes, elaboration, and clarification questions where it seems appropriate rather than according to a preconceived design. This increased flexibility is not without limitations, however. The interviewer should not digress into areas of inquiry unmentioned in the guide or expand questions to cover an item introduced by one respondent unless subsequent respondents also introduce that same topic/concern.

The third and least structured type of interview is the informal conversational or unstructured interview. Often consisting of a completely spontaneous conversation in which the respondent might even be unaware of being interviewed, the strength of this approach is that it provides maximum flexibility, responsiveness to the situation, and personalization. No questions are planned in advance, and the content of one interview can be unlike the content of any other. The drawbacks of this method are that it requires a great deal of time to collect systematic information and the data collected can be extremely difficult to analyze. Moreover, the success of this method is highly dependent on the interviewer's ability to quickly form relevant questions and generate insights, which poses potential difficulty for a less experienced interviewer.

Several hybrid approaches to interviewing, in which two of the aforementioned approaches are effectively combined, are also possible (Patton, 2001,). For example, a set number of basic questions might be carefully worded in advance, but the interviewer might also exercise judgment and flexibility in deciding when to follow up with more detailed questions or, occasionally, to pursue a completely new line of inquiry. Another format would begin with a standardized, open-ended interview and would leave the interviewer free to follow up on anything of interest. Yet another possibility would be to employ a combination of all three approaches by using a series of interviews, beginning with an informal conversational interview conducted early in the study, progressing at mid-point to a guided interview approach, and ending with a standardized, open-ended interview to obtain systematic information or to follow up after completing the study.

Because it is consistent enough to ensure that those interviewed are asked a similar range of questions, yet flexible enough to permit exploration of characteristics unique to an individual in depth, the basic interview format used with faculty in this study was the general interview guide, which included a number of basic questions but allowed the interviewer flexibility to change the wording and to choose appropriate probes and follow-up questions (see appendix C). The researcher chose to conduct individual interviews rather than group interviews because of the potentially inhibiting effect on free expression that colleagues could have on one another in a group setting. Interviews with individual faculty members lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. Interviews with other personnel were somewhat less structured because most of these occurred in response to questions or issues that arose during the data collection phase.

In this study, all interviews were tape-recorded and full transcripts were prepared. In addition, as recommended by Patton (1990), notes were taken during interviews in order to assist in formulating new questions and to facilitate subsequent analysis. After completing each interview, the equipment was checked to insure that it was functioning properly, questions were revised as necessary based on ambiguities or uncertainties recorded in the notes, and relevant personal observations about the interview were written down on a “Contact Summary” form (see appendix D).

Observation

Observation can be used as a research tool when it serves a formulated research purpose, is deliberately planned, is recorded systematically, and is subject to controls or checks on reliability and validity (Merriam, 1988). According to Patton (2001), the purpose of obtaining observational data is to describe the setting observed, the activities taking place during the observation, the people who participated, and the meanings of what was observed from the perspective of those who were observed.

The opportunity to make direct, personal observations offers many advantages to the researcher (Patton, 2001). Observation supplies a better understanding of the research context and reduces the researcher's reliance on prior conceptions obtained at a distance or from discussions with insiders. In addition, observation gives the researcher a chance to witness interactions or other group features that would not emerge from interviewing alone, either because respondents do not normally perceive those features or would not feel comfortable discussing them. Finally, observation provides an opportunity for the researcher to bring personal experience and knowledge to bear when interpreting what is observed.

Observation can be applied to many sources of data: the physical environment, the human and social environment, planned or unplanned activities and interactions, the native language of the setting, nonverbal communication behaviors, written documents, and unobtrusive indicators (carried out without the knowledge of those observed and without affecting the phenomenon observed, such as keeping track of telephone usage). Observation can also entail describing situations in which what is happening is contrary to the observer's reasonable expectations concerning what should have happened (Patton, 2001).

Although in some instances audiotapes, videotapes, or other aids can be used, the primary method of data gathering in observation is taking field notes. These should be descriptive and detailed, noting as many aspects of what took place in each instance as possible. They can also refer to the observer's own feelings during the observation period and include insights, interpretations, and rudimentary analyses or possible working hypotheses (Patton, 2001).

Although I was certainly a participant in the interactions, the observational role was more important than the membership role both because the time of engagement at the site was relatively short and because it was not possible for me to be a member of either the college faculty during socialization or of the administrative groups that planned the formal socialization. Field notes taken during observations were added to the study's data archive.

Document Analysis

The third qualitative method of data collection used in this study was document analysis. The documents consisted of official publications of EAU, a report on a previous study conducted by the university's research office, books and articles about relevant aspects of the new faculty members, and other documents made available by the university or its personnel.

Patton (2001) observed that documents are often extremely rich sources of information. They can provide background information, records of policies and decisions, or descriptions of activities and processes, all of which can give the researcher ideas for framing new questions. Lincoln and Guba (1985) also discussed a number of advantages of using documents in naturalistic inquiry. Documents are often readily available to the researcher and can accurately reflect past situations that are impossible to observe. Documents are also quite stable; they do not undergo change, even if they are repeatedly analyzed, and are much less reactive than other sources of qualitative data, although they are still subject to interpretation by the researcher. Their usefulness as rich sources of information often includes appearing in the natural language of the setting. In addition, in some instances they provide data that are legally unassailable because they are part of official records that satisfy accountability requirements.

Despite these advantages, some caution must be exercised when using documents for data collection purposes. Merriam (1988) outlined three potential problems researchers can encounter when analyzing documents. One concern is that many of the documents the researcher encounters will not have been developed for research purposes and might be incomplete or inappropriate from a research perspective. A second concern is that existing documentation might not conform to the conceptual categories of the study and might therefore make verification of data collected through other means difficult. A third concern is that not all documents are equally authentic; such factors as the history of the document, any editing that might have occurred, and the writer’s motivation in writing the document and/or turning it over to the researcher must be considered. Because the primary use of documents in this study was to provide background information about new faculty member socialization processes, the researcher did not experience major difficulties with interpretation or authenticity.

Data Analysis: Quantitative Data

The descriptive data were coded with each subject being one case. Each group was assigned an alphabetical code, and each group member was assigned a numerical code. This system was used in order to guarantee participant anonymity. A participant’s name did not appear on the questionnaires; instead, only a code containing a letter and number was present. All respondents were also coded for rank so that sub-groups within groups could be examined. New faculty members were coded in a similar fashion, with each faculty member coded for the group he/she joined. The faculty members' data was stored in a separate file so that group data could be analyzed both with and without the inclusion of the new faculty members. The measure of self-efficacy was coded and stored in a separate file as well.

The results of the different segments of the study were compiled in order to explore questions raised concerning the influence of the similarity or dissimilarity of the recruits on the processes of inertia versus reorientation. Relative scores regarding similarity to the group were calculated for each faculty member and examined to determine the relationship to the pattern of structuration. Self-efficacy scores for the different faculty members were examined in order to test the extent to which self-efficacy had a moderating effect on inertia and reorientation.

With respect to the GES, Moos (1986) provided a scoring key that makes scoring a simple task. The GES items were arranged so that each column of responses on the answer sheet constituted one sub-scale. To determine an individual's raw scores, the researcher counted the number of responses given in the keyed direction as identified on the scoring key in each column, and entered the total in the raw score box at the bottom. To determine a group's mean raw score for each sub-scale, the sub-scale raw score for all members of that group were averaged. All three GES forms (Forms R, I, and E) used the same answer sheet, scoring template, and profile form.

Pretest and Re-pretest of Questionnaire

Two pretests were conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference between test scores in the faculty members' understanding of the questions.

The researcher wanted to know if the respondents understood the words, terms, and concepts being used. Did they understand the question or the task being asked of them and the answer choices from which they were to select? Did respondents interpret the question as the researcher intended? Were the respondents attentive and interested in the questions? Did each section of the questionnaire and the questions within each section have a logical flow? The results from the two pretests were used to help provide evidence regarding the potential for improving the questionnaire and interview questions. The pretest participants were twenty-five faculty members selected from Chaopraya University. The university is located in Nakorn-Sawan, Thailand. All participants were randomly selected using a name list provided by the public administration department.

The instrument used in the test consisted of sixteen questions. Scores on this instrument range from 0-16 based on the agreement of subject response and clear understanding. Items for the sentences in this instrument were chosen from several sentence structures, question wordings, and concepts in an attempt to be representative. The participants, upon completing the second pretest, were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire. This demographic questionnaire included information about sex, age, rank, and so on. The information from this questionnaire was used to aid in improving the qualitative component of this study (see appendix A).

Question packets were delivered to each recently hired faculty member. The packet included a cover letter, the survey questionnaires, and an envelope for returning the completed survey. Participants completed and commented on the questions during their own time or during spare time at work, and sealed the completed group questionnaires into the envelopes that were provided. Questionnaires were given directly to the researcher at the School of Communication Arts, Chaopraya University.

The first pretest was administered the first day of work before any orientation or mentoring program took place; the second pretest was administered during the second week of work. The respondents were given as much time as needed to complete the question set. The faculty members were given a separate demographic survey to fill out. The scoring of the pretests was done by hand. The participants' demographics and their scores were analyzed. Along with the demographic questions, the participants were also asked some open-ended questions and asked to provide comments about any problems related to the questions.

The statistical analysis of the pretests examined the hypothesis that "there will not be a significant difference between the scores on the second pretest compared to the first pretest for faculty members' understanding after one week."

A paired t-test was performed comparing the first pretest (mean = 10.56) and the second pretest (mean = 11.24) scores on the question set of the faculty members. Three participants were eliminated from the analysis due to invalid pretest scores or because of mortality rate. The difference in means was found to be significant, $t(24) = 4.30$, $p > .0001$. Table 2 shows the percentage of respondents who expressed understanding and agreement with the questions.

Table 3: Percent of Respondents In Agreement with the Questions

| Question | Subjects (N=25) | |
|---|---|---|
| # | Pretest | Re-pretest |
| 1. | 90 | 92 |
| 2. | 100 | 100 |
| 3. | 96 | 100 |
| 4. | 100 | 100 |
| 5. | 100 | 100 |
| 6. | 100 | 100 |
| 7. | 93 | 96 |
| 8. | 41 | 40 |
| 9. | 16 | 16 |
| 10. | 52 | 56 |
| 11. | 57 | 60 |
| 12. | 11 | 8 |
| 13. | 89 | 96 |
| 14. | 65 | 68 |
| 15. | 100 | 100 |
| 16. | 88 | 92 |

As part of this test, the participants were also asked to comment on the questions. The following are representative of the comments that were received: “It has made me more concentrated and has given me many ideas”; “I know about the idea and how to interpret them effectively”; and lastly, “[I] did not have [any] difficulty understanding [the] words, and the sentence are not too complex.” All participants responded positively. Importantly, attentiveness and interest can be indicators of how hard the respondent is working to provide complete answers. While

I do not know this with certainty, I do feel more confident when a respondent shows an interest in providing a complete response.

<u>Data Analysis: Qualitative Data</u>

Because the research questions that are central to this study focus on multifaceted developmental processes that are not fully explained by the existing literature and because of the researcher's belief that such questions are best explored in person and in context, the study incorporated qualitative inquiry, conforming most clearly to the pragmatic approach proposed by Patton (2001). Although Patton specializes in the use of qualitative methods for program evaluation, his pragmatic approach can be adapted for use in basic research as well. It is difficult to systematically analyze qualitative data without a procedure for data management which provides for a "systematic, coherent process of data collection, storage, and retrieval" (Richards & Richards, 1994, p. 447). Effective data management ensured that data was high-quality and accessible, that records were kept of the types of analyses conducted, and that a permanent record was retained after the study was completed. Selection of an appropriate computer software package for qualitative data analysis can greatly facilitate this process.

Qualitative research methods offer a useful alternative to quantitative procedures when the phenomenon under study is not easily reduced to numerical terms or when it is not the purpose of the research to describe the collected data numerically (Rubin & Babbie, 1993). Although qualitative research can take many forms, one of its key characteristics is that it usually requires field work; the researcher must visit the site(s) selected for study to observe or participate in activities and/or to directly interview the people involved. In contrast, quantitative, survey-based research can be administered to large numbers of people at many sites simultaneously when the researcher remains at a distance.

Patton (2001) has suggested three other attributes that clearly distinguish qualitative from quantitative research and accentuate the relative advantages of each. First, although quantitative research is useful for fitting the varied experiences and perspectives of people into clear, predetermined categories, qualitative research provides data that is of greater depth and detail without being constrained by preconceived categories of analysis. Second, whereas quantitative research is ideal for measuring the responses of many people to a limited number of questions and for generalizing the findings, qualitative research is best suited for obtaining detailed information about a fairly small number of people or cases in order to arrive at a clearer understanding of the phenomenon. Third, validity issues depend largely on careful construction of a survey instrument in quantitative research, but in qualitative research, the instrument is considered to be the researcher herself; therefore, validity depends heavily on the researcher's skill, competence, and rigor.

The basic components of qualitative research are data, collected mostly through interviews and observations; analytic and interpretive procedures used to arrive at findings; and written or verbal rather than numerical reports of findings (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Data collection is achieved through three principal means (Patton, 2001). The first of these is in-depth, open-ended interviews, which are comprised of "direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinions, feeling, and knowledge." Direct observation, or "detailed descriptions of people's activities, behaviors, actions, and the full range of interpersonal interactions and organizational processes that are part of observable human experience" is the second major technique. The third, analysis of written documents, “yields excerpts, quotations, or entire passages from organizational, clinical, or program records; memoranda and correspondence; official publications and reports; personal diaries; and open-ended written responses to questionnaires and surveys” (p. 10).

Analysis of qualitative data in this study began during the data collection phase with the recording of insights and identification of emerging themes in the researcher’s field notes. Once data collection was complete, I used the audiotaped data to prepare complete transcripts of all interviews. Preparing the majority of the transcripts afforded me an excellent opportunity to reflect on and increase my familiarity with the data. Each transcript was line-numbered and organized into a notebook.

After the transcripts were completed, online copies were introduced into the data analysis program NUD.IST for coding and analysis. NUD.IST is a multi-functional software system for the development and management of qualitative data analysis. It is used for handling non-numerical unstructured data through the processes of indexing, searching, and theory-building. A detailed coding scheme, following the recommendations of Miles and Huberman (1994), was developed using a two-step process. First, straightforward topics such as mentoring or personal history were assigned codes; later, themes that were teased out of the data, such as “beliefs about work,” added a deeper level of analysis. In addition, responses of faculty members were coded under a different scheme than responses of administrators.

After the coding was completed, interview material under each code was filed in a notebook to facilitate cross-case analysis. In some instances, cross-case summaries were prepared. Codes were associated with sub-themes to answer each research question. The coded data was examined for dominant themes. Illustrative or exemplar quotations were then identified for use in reporting the findings.

The observational data and organizational documents were analyzed with a narrower purpose in mind than the interviews and were tied to specific sub-themes suggested by the research questions. For example, observations from the orientation were analyzed primarily from the standpoint of what each component revealed about institutionally desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors.

Reliability of Qualitative Methods

The question of reliability can be broken into three parts: How accurate is the measuring instrument? Since the measures were repeated several times, how consistent are participant responses from one occasion to another? And since the experimental treatment will be administered to each subject individually, to what degree is the treatment consistent or the same for all members of a sample on each occasion?

The question of instrument accuracy is really a question of how efficacious the observation and recording techniques are as data-gathering techniques. In other words, to what degree do the data, obtained through the use of observation and recording of field notes, reflect the true socialization, communication habits, interaction, and practice of the study subjects?

Unfortunately, other studies that have employed this technique have not included any formal or empirical tests of its accuracy, but have merely stated that it was as accurate as, or even more accurate than, other techniques. Such claims have usually been made on the basis of logic and intuition rather than formal or empirical determination. In the use of the technique, for example, Hinrichs (1964) employed a pre-set alarm clock, and study participants were asked to record whatever they were doing when the alarm sounded. If a participant was communicating or interacting, he/she then took note of that fact. In doing this, Hinrichs was able to reduce, if not solve, two problems endemic to questionnaire-observation research, especially in on-going organizational settings: 1) the practical problems which an external observer will have when he tries to observe and record the behavior of a subject employed by an organization, and 2) by the considerable problem of inaccuracy and therefore unreliability emanating from a subject's reliance on memory as a source of data.

The present study obviates the problem of the external observer. The subject observes and records his/her own behavior. But beyond such practical and logistical advantage, is the self-observer any more accurate and reliable than the external observer? The answer has to be: not necessarily. It can, in fact, be argued that the self-observer lacks training, might have personal reasons for misrepresenting the records of the behavior, and lacks reward incentives to encourage accurate completion of the questionnaire.

The present study took cognizance of these problems and tried to solve them by doing the following:

1. The participants were trained. The instructions, including sample questionnaires and questions, were prepared in Thai.

2. There was no direct way to solve the problem of potential misrepresentation of records of behavior. Nevertheless, this problem was called to the attention of the participants, and ways to solve it were suggested, such as asking the participants to enter a demographic description in the place of a name for an interlocutor whose identity they did not wish to reveal, or to use general expressions like "private

personal" or "confidential, task-related" for conversation topics they did not wish to divulge. Given the nature of the organization and its task, it was assumed that these steps would mitigate the problem of potential misrepresentation.

Inertia and the lack of reward-incentive were problems with the newcomers who had to be followed for few weeks. The effort to solve this problem consisted largely of phoning the research participants and reminding/encouraging them to fill out the questionnaire.

The second question bearing on the reliability of the study is: since the measures were repeated for veterans and for newcomers, how consistent are participant responses across time? In part, this problem can never be solved in a practical situation since the researcher cannot duplicate "conditions" from occasion to occasion. What can be done in the present situation is to commit the instructions to writing and read them to the participants whenever it as deemed necessary. Past a few weeks of the study, the efforts were redoubled by the researcher to prod participants to continue.

The third question bearing on the reliability of the measure is: since the "experimental treatment" is administered to each participant individually, to what degree is the treatment consistent or the same for all participants in a group? As before, there is no way solve this problem conclusively. Efforts were made to ameliorate the situation consisting mainly of formalizing and putting into writing all instruction to the participants.

It must be said, in conclusion, that the questions raised above about the reliability of this study are endemic to all field studies. Every effort was made to address anticipated problems, and steps were taken to mitigate those problems that could not be solved. The observation and recording technique, even though there are no formal comparisons between these techniques and other data-gathering techniques, appear indeed to be as reliable as any other possible approach.

Validity of Qualitative Methods

As is customary, this discussion of validity is divided into two aspects: internal validity and external validity. Internal validity primarily addresses the question: Does the "experimental treatment" (and all the constructs, measures, and procedures associated with it) indeed make a difference? External validity, on the other hand, addresses the question of the generalizability of the results of the study.

Since this study is not based on new models, or paradigms, but instead draws from variables and concepts that have existed for years in the literature concerning organizational communication, the discussion of construct validity can safely be limited to the peculiarities of the present study design as well as the definition of the major variables. To begin with, the distinction between the two groups involved in the study (newcomers and veterans) on the surface appears categorical in nature. A faculty member is either a new arrival or not. However, the distinction between the newcomer and the veteran is not as simple as it appears, for while a new arrival is clearly distinguishable, it is not that easy to tell at what point a newcomer becomes a veteran.

The study operated under the assumption that "newness" not only is a significant variable but is *the* significant variable which, more than other conceivable variables, distinguishes the two groups under investigation. There is, in fact, no previous research which identifies or isolates newness from a group of organizational, individual, group or communication/interaction variables as the most significant variable of all.

The limitation of the study to six months (for practical reasons) also raises questions of validity. If newness has a significant effect on the interaction habits and practices of a faculty member, are such effects fully manifested and exhausted in three months? Or, for that matter, do the effects take up to six months to manifest themselves?

The division of the study's duration into six month units, involving one monitoring per subject per week, and the use of a measuring instrument, all raised questions of validity. So does the assumption that, during the six-month history of the story, nothing unforeseen or extraneous occurred in the organization or in the individual lives of the participants to alter the variables under scrutiny. Such an assumption was, in fact, not tenable. This was because the sample of newcomers changed during some of the weeks resulting in a situation where a number of participants for one reason or another could not be monitored.

Other factors which might also detract from the validity of the findings included the differential treatment given to newcomers and veterans, and the fact that the repeated monitoring of the newcomers made them "experiment wise" and, therefore, confounded the results emerging from later monitoring. Questions of content validity can also be raised about the instrument used in the study. Does that instrument, to an acceptable degree, measure what it is supposed to measure? The answer is that, despite all efforts to reduce or eliminate them, certain problems plague a design such as this. The problem of inertia and the resultant under-reporting of interaction activity will be mentioned. Other types of problems were exemplified by such things as the impossibility of specifying in every instance the duration of an interaction, or the number of participants involved when, for example, two employees who were conversing for five minutes were joined by a third faculty member and, shortly thereafter, one of the earlier participants left. This problem was solved by telling the participants to consider it a new act whenever the number of conversational participants changed, a solution which, because it was arbitrary, raises questions about the validity of the measures.

To what extent are the findings of the study generalizable? This is the question of external validity. The discussion must begin with the samples of newcomers and veterans. What populations do these samples represent? Since all of the newcomers (100 percent) were included in the study, this sample also represents the population. It must be noted, however, that the hiring of newcomers was not uniformly or randomly executed throughout the university. On the contrary, a majority of the newcomers were concentrated in four departments. With respect to the veterans, since the sample of veterans was randomly selected from the master list of all faculty members, arguably this sample did validly represent this population.

Relationship of Theory and Methods

One of the distinguishing features of the theory of structuration is that it is related to the emergent processes of organizational life. As such, it is necessary to employ a methodology that allows for the comprehension of emergent processes and an appreciation of the effects of time. A longitudinal technique was employed in this study so as to facilitate an analysis of organizational characteristics across time. Specifically, the method drew characterizations of specific work groups at Time1 and Time 2, and compared and contrasted the patterns of interaction observed during each phase. Through this technique, it was possible to gain insights into group stability or change over time.

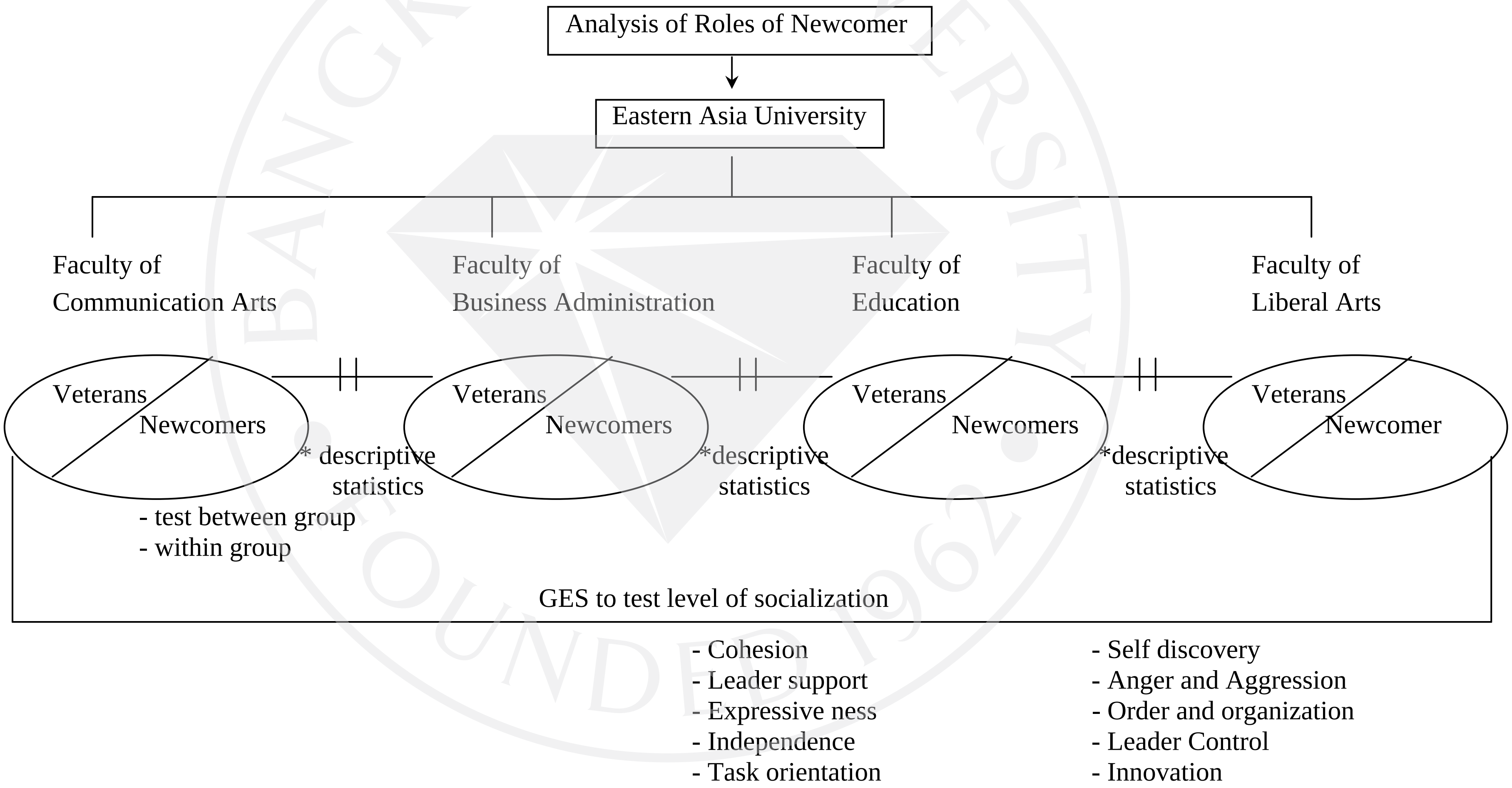
Additionally, the methods used provided characterizations of group interaction at two different points in time, thus providing a measure of sensitivity to the idea of emergent processes. While the values and beliefs held by organizational members are accessed through a semi-structured interview format, the manner in which values and beliefs actually shape interaction require observation of social interaction. Giddens' (1984) discussion of time-space distanciation and the institutionalization of structure suggest that interaction (and individual behavior) is often shaped by habits and routines that exist outside of the conscious awareness of actors.

The ethnographic techniques employed in this study, with the researcher assuming the role of participant observer, allowed for first-hand observation of patterns of social interaction. The researcher believed that this method provided a more accurate representation of what happened than would attempts at post hoc reconstruction on the part of the participants. That is not to say that the interpretations and recollections of participants are not valid and important. Rather, the point is to emphasize the manner by which this study addresses the issue of the "double hermeneutic" (Giddens, 1984), and provides second order interpretations out of first order observations and experiences.

The use of qualitative methods in organizational research has been a topic of much discussion and debate (Morgan & Smircich, 1980; Silverman, 1985; Van Maanen, 1982). Generally, it has been agreed that, when the intent of research is to focus on emergent processes, organizational events are best studied as they unfold. The methodology employed in this study was designed with that in mind, and was shaped by the theory employed. In other studies that have been informed by Giddens' (1984) theory of structuration, the utilization of qualitative techniques has proven highly informative and effective (Barley, 1986; Burman, 1988).

Based on the above, Table 4 is offered as a means for visualizing the relationship between the research questions posed and methods of data analysis:

Figure 4: A Model of Research




* Data analysis of concern

Table 4: The Relationship between the Purpose of This Study, Hypotheses and Research Questions, and Methods of Analysis

| Purpose of Study | Research Questions | Methods of Analysis |
|---|---|---|
| 1. The study examines the relationship between selected demographics of newcomers and of existing work group members, and the structuration patterns of inertia and reorientation. | RQ1: What is the relationship, if any, between newcomer similarity/dissimilarity to existing work group members and the structuration processes of inertia versus reorientation? | - Questionnaire<br>- GES<br>- Interview<br>- Observation |
| 2. The study is examined the relationship between the level of self-efficacy of the individual and the tendency of the newcomer to adopt either the role of innovator or the role of custodian within the work group. | RQ2: What is the relationship, if any, between newcomer self-efficacy and the tendency to adopt an innovator role versus a custodial role within a work group? | - Questionnaire<br>- GES<br>- Interview<br>- Observation |

(continued)

Table 4 (continued): The Relationship between the Purpose of This Study, Hypotheses and Research Questions, and Methods of Analysis

| Purpose of Study | Research Questions | Methods of Analysis |
| --- | --- | --- |
| 3. The study is designed to explore communicative interaction within the socialization process. | RQ3: What aspects of communicative interaction do newcomers attribute to their socialization? | - Interview<br>- Observation<br>- Document Analysis |
| 4. The study is designed to explore the relationship of organizational values, beliefs, and behaviors to new faculty members. | RQ4: What are desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors that veterans communicated to newcomers at Eastern Asia University during the socialization process?<br>RQ5: How do veterans communicate desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors to newcomers during socialization process? | - Interview<br>- Observation<br>- Document Analysis |

<u>Chapter Summary</u>

This quantitative and qualitative study was conducted to explore new faculty member socialization according to structuration patterns at Eastern Asia University from the perspective of faculty, communicative networks, values, beliefs, and behaviors. This site was chosen both because of its national reputation as an exemplary university and because it met three criteria: a large number of recently-hired full time faculty, diverse faculty backgrounds, and an established and extensive program of socialization tactics.

Twenty new faculty members and 60 veterans completed written questionnaires. Interviews were conducted with those same 20 new faculty members and 18 key informants. This data was further supplemented with observation and document analysis. The sample of newcomers was selected from faculty who had been employed by the university for less than 3 months at the time of the first mentoring, who had not been previously employed by the university, and who did not attend the university as a student. The study was timed to occur shortly before these new faculty members would discover whether they had been accepted as permanent employees of the university through the continuing contract application process.

The structuration concept was analyzed through participant observation and semi-structured interviews; the similar/dissimilar demographic concept was measured through the use of the GES. Questionnaires, observation and interviews addressed additional points of concern, including communication, values, beliefs, and behaviors of newcomers. A pilot study assisted in refining the questions used in the interviews. Data collected in the interviews were transcribed, coded, and subjected to cross-case analysis. Data obtained from other sources were searched and analyzed for information relevant to specific issues.

Chapter Four discussed demographic characteristics of new faculty members and their work groups. The relationship between the level of self-efficacy of the individual and the role of innovator and the role of custodian within the work group are discussed.  The communication interaction within socialization processes, the scope of values, beliefs, and behaviors as reported in interviews or recorded during observations and their relationship to the attributes in the Statement of Faculty Excellence. Many programs that are designed to socialize and influence new faculty members were explored.

# CHAPTER FOUR:

# RESEARCH FINDINGS

The socialization of newcomers to an organization can usefully be viewed both from the organization's and from the newcomer's perspectives. This study was designed to produce a portrait of both sides of the newcomer socialization process at Eastern Asia University. The data presented pertain to the research question concerning communicative interaction and successful socialization. This question was aimed at exploring the interactive processes and successful outcomes that newcomers associated with their transition into membership. This exploration takes a both/and approach to examining organizational socialization processes and outcomes by highlighting how socializing interaction occurs; what newcomers associate with their successful socialization; the values, beliefs, and behaviors that veteran faculty members communicate to new faculty members as being desirable; and the methods through which the university strives to achieve the goal of socialization.

In addition, in order to examine the influence of newcomers on the prevailing patterns and practices in an organization, it was necessary to gain an understanding of the structures and culture of that organization, and to then relate the activities of the newcomers to those existing aspects of their organization. In order to accomplish this, several different types of data were collected in this study. Due to the longitudinal nature of the study, there was a chronological sequence to the data collection process. Data collected in early stages of the study provided the basis for later comparisons with qualitative data, and the development of possible explanations for different patterns that were observed.

This chapter is divided into many sections on the basis of different themes. First, the characteristics of each work group are considered. Second, a brief recapitulation is offered of statistical data relevant to the picture of the demographic characteristics of existing faculty members and new faculty members. Third, the characteristics of newcomers in each group are discussed from both the perspective of the organization and the perspective of faculty participants in the process. Fourth, qualitative data are drawn relating to a picture of EAU's attempts to engage in formal socialization programs of new faculty members. Fifth, the level of new faculty member self-efficacy, and the level of new faculty member socialization and homogeneity are explicated. Finally, the issue of changes between T1 and T2 are considered.

Due to the need to preserve/respect faculty member confidentiality, an identification code was developed. Each faculty member was assigned an alphabetical code. All veteran faculty members were identified with a "V" as the first letter, and all new faculty members are identified with an "N". That "V" or "N" is then followed by the faculty member's own identifying letter.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELECTED DEMOGRAPHICS OF NEWCOMERS AND OF EXISTING WORK GROUPS MEMBERS, AND STRUCTURATION PATTERNSS OF NERTIA AND REORIENTATION

<u>Characteristics of Organization</u>

In order to provide an overview of the issues in the organization studied, a characterization of the organization was constructed through the collection of demographic data. While this data was collected from individuals on a group by group basis, it is presented here in aggregate form in order to provide a profile of the overall organization.

A priori, it was theorized that one factor that could possibly lead to inertia or reorientation in the different work groups was the extent to which the demographic characteristics of the newcomer were similar to those of other group members. In order to get an overview of the potential differences between the newcomers and the existing organizational members, survey results were aggregated in order to provide a profile of the organization. The groups that participated in the study were different faculty groups that were part of EAU. Thus, the aggregation of survey results compiled from the different groups was taken to be an approximate representation of the overall organization. While this might not be totally representative, the term "organizational level" refers to the aggregation of the data from the four faculty groups.

At the organizational level, data were collected on demographic variables and the characteristics of the newcomers and the characteristics of existing members are reported. Frequencies were calculated for each variable across the participants who were members of existing work groups at T1. The most homogeneous measures in these data were those pertaining to sex, marital status, and language. In the marital category, 81% indicated that they were married. As for language, 92% indicated that Thai was the language first learned. The average age of the participants was 37 years, while the average tenure on the job was 4 years.

Table 5: Organizational Demographics at T1

| Variable | categories | Proportion in% |
|---|---|---|
| Marital Status | single | 14.7 |
| | married | 80.7 |
| | divorced | 4.6 |
| Ethnic Origin | Thai | 86.2 |
| | other | 13.8 |
| Language First Learned | Thai | 91.7 |
| | other | 8.3 |
| Present Position | faculty member | 100 |
| Years of Work Experience | 5 or less | 27.5 |
| | more than 5 | 72.5 |
| Education | Bachelor degree | 22.9 |
| | Master degree | 54.2 |
| | Doctoral degree | 22.9 |
| Number of Siblings | 0 to 2 | 44.0 |
| | 3 to 4 | 38.5 |
| | 5 or more | 17.5 |
| Father's Education | some high school | 22.9 |
| | high school diploma | 14.7 |
| | trade certificate | 6.4 |
| | university degree | 51.3 |
| | graduate degree | 4.6 |
| Mother's Education | some high school | 9.2 |
| | high school diploma | 17.9 |
| | trade certificate | 22.5 |
| | university degree | 46.2 |
| | graduate degree | 3.7 |

(continued)

Table 5 (continued): Organizational Demographics at T1

| Variable | categories | Proportion in% |
|---|---|---|
| Father's Occupation | unskilled manual | 0.0 |
| | semiskilled | 40.0 |
| | clerical/sales | 11.9 |
| | technical/trade | 22.9 |
| | tech/professional | 15.6 |
| | managerial/professional | 9.2 |
| Mother's Occupation | unskilled manual | 1.8 |
| | semiskilled | 4.6 |
| | clerical/sales | 1.6 |
| | technical/trade | 5.5 |
| | tech/professional | 11.0 |
| | managerial/professional | 75.5 |
| Previous Employment | unskilled manual | 5.5 |
| | semiskilled | 1.8 |
| | clerical/sales | 12.8 |
| | technical/trade | 20.2 |
| | tech/professional | 8.3 |
| | managerial/professional | 51.4 |

On the basis of previous research (O' Reilly et al., 1989), it was theorized that demographic similarity would lead to greater socialization and group cohesion. The Group Environment Scale (GES) (Moos, 1986) was used to assess the amount of consensus among group members and group cohesiveness. The GES was administered to each of the participants in the study at T1. While the GES is primarily intended to measure different characteristics within an identifiable work group, the ten different sub-scales were also useful for providing a sample of the overall organization. The frequencies and basic descriptive statistics, such as the mean, the standard deviation, and the variance of each sub-scale, were calculated for each group, and grand means were calculated for each sub-scale for the four groups (see Table 6). This was a useful method of analyzing the range of variance that existed in the organization as measured by comparing four different faculty groups.

Table 6: Organizational GES Scores at T1

| Variable | Organizational | | Normative Data | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Task groups | | social groups | |
| | mean | sd | mean | sd | mean | sd |
| Cohesiveness | 7.6 | 1.99 | 6.2 | 1.69 | 6.3 | 1.64 |
| Leader Support | 6.4 | 2.75 | 6.2 | 1.64 | 6.8 | 1.74 |
| Expressiveness | 6.2 | 1.84 | 5.4 | 1.14 | 5.2 | 1.53 |
| Independence | 5.4 | 1.83 | 6.5 | 1.16 | 6.5 | 1.60 |
| Task Orientation | 7.3 | 1.85 | 6.3 | 1.40 | 5.5 | 1.28 |
| Self Discovery | 5.5 | 2.16 | 4.2 | 1.68 | 4.4 | 1.70 |
| Anger and Aggression | 4.7 | 2.91 | 4.2 | 1.65 | 5.1 | 1.79 |
| Order and Organization | 6.1 | 2.34 | 5.3 | 1.54 | 4.9 | 2.08 |
| Leader control | 5.4 | 2.17 | 4.8 | 1.48 | 6.1 | 1.77 |
| Innovation and Change | 3.6 | 1.89 | 5.1 | 1.19 | 4.1 | 1.54 |

The organization data were composed from normative data which was gathered in previous research using the GES (Moos, 1986). The normative data were based on 56 task oriented groups and 75 social-recreational groups. Data indicated that cohesiveness, task orientation, and self discovery were higher in the organization than the norm, and innovation and change were lower than the norm. These differences reflect the nature of the task demands, relative to other jobs, and the traditional tendencies of the organization. In order to examine the relationship between the newcomers and the existing members of those work groups, the characteristics of the newcomers are analyzed.

Characteristics of Groups

The demographic data collected in this study is presented in aggregate form in order to provide an approximate profile of the organization and to highlight issues on which new faculty members and existing group members could potentially differ. However, the primary purpose for collecting this data was to conduct within group comparisons, examining the extent to which new faculty members were similar to or different from existing group members.

The statistical data gathered on demographic items was also supported by qualitative data collected in the study. While there were many different variables that could provide the basis for similarities and differences within groups, one focus of the participant observations was to attempt to ascertain the specific factors which contributed to a sense of unity or division within a faculty group. Comparing statistical demographic data with observations helped to identify which variables were most salient in the different groups. For example, in the School of Communication Arts, the researcher observed a small clique within the group that frequently gathered together and discussed comic advertising on television. When comparing this observation to demographic information about previous employment and education, the researcher found that the faculty members composing this clique had previously worked in advertising agencies. However, in other groups, previous employment and education were more diverse. These factors were less salient and other variables provided the basis for commonality.

For categorizing each group at T1, some variables had several categories, and the approach used was to look for clusters and compare the distribution of the variables to the observations made, looking for the salience or relevance or a particular pattern of similarity or difference.

A spread sheet showing the distribution of each variable was prepared on a group by group basis and each group was examined for patterns. Patterns that emerged from the demographic data were then compared with field notes and interview notes. The characteristics of each new faculty member were penciled into the distribution in order to ascertain the extent to which each new faculty member was similar to or different from members of the groups they would be joining. Such cases were anticipated as being potential sites for reorientation since the introduction of the new faculty members could potentially upset the balance. On the other hand, in groups where there was homogeneity, and the new faculty members closely matched the group characteristics, inertia was expected. The distributional similarities and differences between the new faculty members and the work groups were compared to field notes and interview notes in order to ascertain the likelihood that the particular variable would hold salience in the group, and the potential for inertia or reorientation was also assessed on this basis. The result of the analysis of characteristics of new faculty members within faculty groups is summarized in Table 7 below.

Table 7: Work Group Demography: Distributions within Groups ("F" indicates characteristic of new faculty members within each faculties)

| Variable | Categories | Distribution in % by group | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Faculty of Comm Arts* | *Faculty of Education* | *Faculty of Liberal Arts* | *Faculty of Business Admin* |
| Age | less than 32 | 11.1F | 22.2F | 50.0F | 22.2F |
| | 32 to 39 | 55.5 | 33.3 | 25.0 | 44.4 |
| | 40 or more | 33.3 | 44.4 | 25.0 | 33.3 |
| Marital Status | single | 00.0 | 00.0 | 25.0 | 33.3 |
| | married | 100.0 F | 100.0 F | 50.0 F | 66.6 F |
| | divorced | 00.0 | 00.0 | 25.0 | 00.0 |
| First Language | English | 100.0 F | 100.0 F | 100.0 F | 77.8 F |
| | Other | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 22.2 |
| Tenure in Faculty | 0 to 6 months | 55.5 F | 11.1 F | 25.0 F | 55.6 F |
| | 7 to 18 months | 11.1 | 44.4 | 62.5 | 33.3 |
| | 19 or more | 33.3 | 44.4 | 12.5 | 11.1 |
| Tenure in University | Less than 1 year | 22.2 F | 33.3 F | 37.5 F | 22.2 F |
| | 1 to 3 years | 22.2 | 33.3 | 37.5 | 55.6 |
| | 4 or more | 55.6 | 33.3 | 25.0 | 22.2 |
| Education | some high school | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | high school | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | diploma | 00.0 | 44.4 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | trade certificate | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | university degree | 11.1 | 00.0 | 12.5 | 11.1 |
| | graduate degree | 88.8 F | 55.5 F | 87.5 F | 88.8 F |
| Prior Residence | Job location | 77.8 F | 77.8 F | 62.5 | 77.8 F |
| | Other location | 22.2 | 22.2 | 37.5 F | 22.2 |

(continued)

Table 7 (continued): Work Group Demography: Distributions within Groups ("F" indicates characteristic of new faculty members within each faculties)

| Variable | Categories | Distribution in % by group | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Faculty of Comm Arts* | *Faculty of Education* | *Faculty of Liberal Arts* | *Faculty of Business Admin* |
| Father's Occupation | unskilled manual | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | semiskilled | 22.2 F | 44.4 | 12.5 F | 11.1 F |
| | clerical/sales | 11.1 | 00.0 | 12.5 | 11.1 |
| | technical/trade | 44.5 | 33.3 F | 37.0 | 55.6 |
| | tech/professional | 00.0 | 11.1 | 25.0 | 22.2 |
| | managerial/profess | 22.2 | 11.1 | 12.5 | 00.0 |
| Mother's Occupation | unskilled manual | 00.0 | 00.0 | 12.5 | 00.0 |
| | semiskilled | 11.1 F | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | clerical/sales | 66.7 | 88.9 F | 37.5 | 88.9 F |
| | technical/trade | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | tech/professional | 11.1 | 11.1 | 37.5 F | 11.1 |
| | managerial/profess | 11.1 | 00.0 | 12.5 | 00.0 |
| Father's Education | diploma | 11.1 | 11.1 | 12.5 | 22.2 |
| | trade certificate | 44.4 | 33.3 | 25.0 | 22.2 |
| | university degree | 00.0 | 11.1 F | 25.0 | 22.2 |
| | graduate degree | 44.4 F | 44.4 | 37.5 F | 33.3 F |
| Mother's Education | diploma | 22.2 | 00.0 | 00.0 | 33.3 |
| | trade certificate | 22.2 | 55.6 | 00.0 | 00.0 |
| | university degree | 22.2 F | 00.0 | 75.0 | 22.2 F |
| | graduate degree | 33.3 | 44.4 F | 25.0 F | 33.3 |

(continued)

Table 7 (continued): Work Group Demography: Distributions within Groups ("F" indicates characteristic of new faculty members within each faculties)

| Variable | Categories | Distribution in % by group | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *Faculty of Comm Arts* | *Faculty of Education* | *Faculty of Liberal Arts* | *Faculty of Business Admin* |
| Number of Siblings | 0 to 2<br>3 or 4<br>5 or more | 55.6<br>11.1 F<br>33.3 | 22.2 F<br>66.7<br>11.1 | 00.0 F<br>87.5<br>12.5 | 55.6 F<br>44.4<br>00.0 |
| Years of Work Experience | 0 to 5<br>6 to 10<br>more than 10 | 66.6 F<br>33.3<br>00.0 | 55.5 F<br>44.4<br>00.0 | 63.0 F<br>37.0<br>00.0 | 44.4 F<br>55.6<br>00.0 |
| Pervious Occupation | unskilled manual<br>semiskilled<br>clerical/sales<br>technical/trade<br>tech/professional<br>managerial/profess | 11.1<br>55.6<br>00.0<br>11.1 F<br>22.2<br>00.0 | 00.0<br>44.4<br>11.1<br>44.4 F<br>00.0<br>00.0 | 00.0<br>7.5<br>12.5<br>25.5 F<br>25.5<br>00.0 | 11.1<br>33.3<br>11.1 F<br>11.1<br>33.3<br>00.0 |
| Characterization Of recruit | Totals | A | B | C | D |
| Relative to work Group joined | | SM | SM | DS | DS |
| SM=similar; S=dissimilar | Overall newcomer in group | SM | DS | SM | DS |

As discussed above, in the description of the techniques used at T1, the descriptive statistical data was complied, and the determination of similarity or dissimilarity between the each new faculty member and his/her relevant faculty group was based on a reference to both quantitative and qualitative data sets. Each of the four faculty groups will be discussed in turn, giving attention to the demographic characteristics of the group, and the saliency of different variables as observed through the researcher's participation in the groups.

These four EAU faculty groups are, in many ways, distinct from one another, even as they share a common mission and philosophy. In fact, university insiders contacted in the preliminary stages of this study repeatedly emphasized the significance of the individual faculty cultures and that faculty responses would differ by faculty group. Location, program emphases, historical factors, and faculty leadership have all played a role in establishing the uniqueness of each faculty group.

At the time of this research, Business Administration had 20 veteran faculty members and 5 new faculty members. Fifteen veteran faculty members were in the Faculty of Liberal Arts, with 4 new faculty members assigned to that group. Education had 12 veteran faculty members and 7 new faculty members, and Communication Arts had 14 veteran faculty members and 4 new faculty members.

1. Faculty of Communication Arts

The newest faculty group at EAU began work in Pathumtani – located in the southern part of EAU – in 1998. The Faculty of Communication Arts was created in response to a request from local residents for access to the benefits of Pathumtani. Like most of the other faculty groups, the Faculty of Communication Arts enrolls about 80% Thai students (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

Almost two-thirds of the students in the Faculty of Communication Arts are female, and a slightly higher proportion attends school part time. About 14% of students are over the age of 30 (Eastern Asia University, 2004). In a discussion with new faculty members, the Dean of the Faculty of Communication Arts emphasized that:

> You’re going to have some introduction to the seven values of teaching and learning at Faculty of Communication Arts. Take them very seriously; they really are what they mean. And out of those seven values, the faculty extracted its own values to support them, and there are three. One is to value people as individuals; two is to value qualitative and quantitative growth; and three is value community service, which is really for the underserved. (Dean of the Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

The faculty of Communication Arts probably has the highest proportion of students who enter the university under-prepared for university level work--about 73%, with an additional 13% of students who must begin with the English as a second language course (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

Overall, in this faculty group, there were two variables on which the group was completely homogeneous: language and ethnic origin. While the new faculty members were similar to the majority with respect to language, one new faculty member was Thai-American in a group of Thai people. The majority of members of this group were senior both in terms of age and tenure at work; however, there was one other younger faculty member who had joined the faculty one year previously. Having this other faculty member meant that the new faculty members had at least one other colleague who was similar in age. The new faculty members were part of the majority as far as previous residence was concerned, and were similar to half of the faculty members in terms of marital status.

Across the four SES relevant factors in the Faculty of Communication Arts, father's occupation, mother's occupation, father's education, and mother's education, there was a wide range of difference among the group members, but the new faculty members were not outstandingly different from other members. There was an even split between group members from large families and those from small families, and the fact that the new faculty members were from large families was probably a benefit in terms of getting along and adjusting to the way of life in the faculty.

Despite the differences in age, tenure, and marital status, similarities in the type of family, educational level, and employment background suggested that the new faculty members in Faculty of Communication Arts were, for the most part, similar to the group.

From interviews and observations, an important value among faculty members of the Faculty of Communication Arts was "giving consideration to feedback from students and others." The importance of obtaining detailed feedback from students and doing so often was emphasized in the Faculty of Communication Arts. Not only are faculty members implicitly compelled to participate in the student feedback questionnaire program by the requirement that student feedback results be included in portfolios submitted for continuing contracts and promotions, but they are also exposed to the practice of obtaining formative evaluations of their courses through the use of classroom assessment techniques.

During the course of the interviews, about half of the faculty members spoke enthusiastically about using classroom assessment techniques or other forms of feedback. Other interviewees appeared to agree that student feedback was a good thing but either used it only occasionally or had difficulty recalling a specific instance:

> What I have done, which really I didn't get from them, I got from my reading…I give my students a formative evaluation in the semester, because at the end of the semester they give the students feedback, but that's summative. I give my students a formative evaluation so that I can see how I can change the course to better serve their needs. But I haven't used the classroom assessment techniques. (VE, a veteran faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004)

> I do use them some. Umm…Basically, the one where you come in the next day or the beginning the next period and say, do you remember how to do this to this, you know…just kind of catch up on how you feel about these things, or…something like that. (NA, a new faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004)

No classroom assessment techniques were used during any of the classroom observations, although the faculty members observed did use a variety of techniques, such as asking students to paraphrase or provide a rationale for their answers so as to ascertain whether students understood their lessons (Researcher's Notes). Because the researcher had formed an erroneous impression that faculty members in the Faculty of Communication Arts would be using classroom assessment techniques on a daily basis once they had learned about them, she sought clarification on this point from administers and staff developers. One pointed out:

> Well, you know, one does have academic freedom! But the very fact that we offer workshops on classroom assessment techniques is an indication that

> we're trying to have as part of the culture that teachers routinely do that. But they still do have faculty freedom. What you choose to do in your class is what you choose to do. (VG, a veteran faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004)

Taking the reality of academic freedom into account, it is not surprising that the researcher found such wide variation among faculty members in the degree to which they solicited and made use of feedback from students. The fact that there appeared to be more variation in the degree to which faculty exhibited this value than there was in most of the other values could indicate that the value of student feedback remains a somewhat controversial issue among these faculty members.

2. Faculty of Business Administration

As a reflection of its status as one of the most important faculty groups of EAU, the slogan of the Faculty of Business Administration is, "It all started here." Although a large modern building was added over the years, traces of the agricultural fields are still visible. Emphasized in the business management section of the business field, the Faculty of Business Administration serves several large southern student groups. In 2002, 75% of the students enrolled in the business administration program were students who came from the southern part of Thailand. About two thirds of the entering students in this program began their university careers academically under-prepared, and about 60% had to begin with English as a second language courses. A minority of majors in business administration are part-timers and/or 30 years of age or older (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

Many occupational and managerial programs are centered within the Faculty of Business Administration. Among these are training programs for a majority of

Pathumtani's business owners; groups of uniformed trainees can often be seen in business administration building. Other prominent Faculty of Business Administration offerings are in commercial and international trade (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

The Dean of the Faculty of Business Administration since 2001 stated that:

> We have a lot of fun here with our slogan, "it all stated here." You'll probably get nauseated soon about that slogan: we put it on t-shirts, billboards, lighters, and everywhere else we can possibly put it. Because that's a really special sense of pride for people who work at Eastern Asia University: the good name of university did start here. And all of the good things that are associated with EAU in the years arose out of the university – out of the faculty, and out of the development over many years. (Dean of Faculty of Business Administration, 2004)

The Dean cited the following as being the major developments within the Faculty of Business Administration during recent years: the 2001 integration of the faculty under the leadership of EAU's Vice President, the phenomenal growth of the faculty during its early years, the beginning of a successful staff and program development movement, and the introduction of EAU athletics and programs for handicapped and Muslim students (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

Generally, the new faculty members in this group were similar to a majority of the veteran faculty members on the basis of marital status. Although the new faculty members reported that they were Thai, as were a majority of other group members, some of the new faculty members were visible minorities and appeared to be of American ethnic origin. This was a factor in the interaction between these new faculty members and the other group members. Although a majority of ongoing faculty members were older and had more seniority, there were two faculty members who were of similar age and had less than one year seniority. A majority of veteran group members and new faculty members had master's degrees in education. The new faculty members were similar to the group in prior residence. Parent's education and occupation were broadly distributed within the veteran faculty, and this was also true of the new faculty members. The new faculty members were similar to others in family size, but had significantly more previous work experience than did the veteran members of the school. Previous occupations were widely diverse in the faculty, and only one other member had a background that was similar to that of a new faculty member. Due to the fact that the new faculty members were visibly different from the other group members in terms of race, and were dissimilar with respect to characteristics such as previous occupation and length of previous employment, the new faculty members were classified as dissimilar.

From the interviews with and observations of faculty members in the Faculty of Business Administration, the researcher was able to identify the most important values among the faculty members. One of those values involved integrating up-to-date information and research into current subject matter and making a consistent effort to update the faculty member's own discipline-related knowledge, professional skills, and resources. The faculty interviewees varied in the degree to which they discussed evidence of this value; however, a majority of them spoke enthusiastically about their discipline and about teaching strategies they used with students, often providing examples of their approaches to a subject. All three classroom observations also yielded evidence that faculty members at Faculty of Business Administration make an effort to use current research or information in their teaching.

The methods faculty members reported using to integrate current subject matter into their teaching varied widely with the individual and the discipline. Several said they exposed their students to ideas they had learned in their school years (VG, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004). Others enlivened their classes by bringing in information or research from their discipline; for example, one teacher in the Faculty of Business Administration used current writing and videotapes from fields as diverse as quantum literature and management (VI, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004). Still others mentioned specific examples of attending conferences (VJ, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004) or delving into current literature (VI, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004), with both of these activities resulting in new techniques or theories that could be applied in the classroom.

The researcher observed other approaches to integrating current subject matter during her classroom observations. One faculty member put Shakespearean plays into a modern context and compared situations in them with contemporary news events (Researcher’s Notes). Another, who was teaching in a professional/technical field, made frequent references to practical uses of the information contained in the lesson once students are working in the field (Researcher’s Notes). In fact, all of the faculty members involved in professional fields mentioned that they frequently bring in information about real life situations. In some cases, this extended beyond the subject matter into other practical life skills. Describing how students were prepared for the practical realities of a job search, one faculty member remarked:

> I think oral communication is a big part of it, which is not something that I’ve ever noticed being emphasized until I got beyond the two-year level…We

> have interactions every day with people in the street, our peers, the faculty, with the students…We ask students to do presentations from time to time, and expect all of them to get up and get some verbal practice at what they do. One thing that we talk about, as far as professionalism, is the actual look that you have when you go for your job interviews, and presenting of the resume. So we go through resume writing, interviewing techniques…actually do some role play with them, employer-employee type of situations. (VJ, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004)

In each case, it appeared that faculty members were making an effort either to apply current research to their own teaching styles or to make their subject matter relevant to student needs and interests, or both. Only one interviewee said nothing at all that pertained to incorporating current subject matter into classroom teaching (VL, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004), but this omission alone does not prove that the faculty member does not display the attribute in practice.

3. Faculty of Education

The Faculty of Education, located in building C, is a popular faculty group at EAU. Established in 1997, the faculty grew quickly and today has attractive, modern facilities including an outdoor pool. Some university insiders refer to the Faculty of Education as the "faculty club." The Faculty of Education has the largest enrollment of any of EAU's programs, serving approximately 38% of the total student population (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

The primary focus of the Faculty of Education appears to be on traditional academic subjects; its programs include nearly 10 academic majors. The students in the Faculty of Education are more likely to be "traditional" college students (in terms of age) than students majoring in other programs. In fact, only 16% of the students enrolled in an education major at the time of this research were 30 years of age or older. The majority of the students are degree seekers. The transfer rate to senior institutions is higher for Education students than for students enrolled in one of EAU's other programs. A majority of the students are female (55%) and Thai (85%); only 5% of the students are Indian (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

This faculty group was homogeneous with respect to marital status and language. The new faculty members were similar to the group with respect to language, but there was one single person in a homogeneous group of married men. In term of age and tenure, although there were two others who were similar in age to the new faculty members, and three who had less than five years experience on the faculty, the new faculty members were different from the group. The new faculty members were similar to the majority on the basis of ethnicity and prior residence, but vastly dissimilar in terms of educational level. The majority of group members had master's degrees, while only one member had a doctorate. The new faculty members were similar in terms of parents' occupation, but dissimilar in terms of parents' educational levels. The new faculty members came from small families with only one sibling, while a majority of ongoing faculty members came from larger families with three or more siblings. The number of years previous work experience and the type of previous work experience in the group tended to fall into two categories, and the new faculty members fit into one of the groups in each case.

The Dean of the Faculty of Education has been with the faculty in various capacities from the earliest days. Asked about what distinguishes this faculty, he stressed the importance of two factors – location and excellent teaching:

> I remember when I went to faculty to look at it the first time, I had to park my car about 200 meters from building C, and I had to walk through some trees to get there. You can see what has happened… so the faculty and the area grew up together. But I would say a hallmark in great teaching, real good management. And it was the fact that Faculty of Education sent down there a number of outstanding people. And then, I think she (one employee in the Human Resources department) did an excellent job of recruiting some people who were genuinely interested in teaching and counseling students and believed that everyone, regardless of income or anything else, could get an education. And someone who came there and just didn't have anything at all, we were going find a way for them to go to school (Dean of Faculty of Education, 2004)

Despite discussion in the education literature decrying its ineffectiveness as a teaching method, the lecture method remains the norm in many university classes. A shared value among faculty members in the Faculty of Education specifies that faculty should be familiar with research on how students learn. It is logical that an important value for the Faculty of Education is providing students with alternative ways of learning. Faculty members' beliefs about effective teaching strategies are associated with this value.

On the basis of the faculty interviews, the researcher concluded that a majority of the interviewees were aware of the need for variation in teaching approaches and strove to incorporate different strategies into their teaching. For example, several interviewees talked about alternative approaches to teaching writing:

> I use the overhead projector a lot. I try to use diagrams as well as just writing in order to put across a point. For example, teaching the structure of an essay, I give them a diagram as well as writing points. (VM, a veteran faculty member in Education, 2004)

> They have to do a research paper for class. And I have them go through a seven-step process. Each step is worth a certain number of points. It's a step by step development of a research paper. They begin with a topic; they go on developing the research by turning in a certain number of note cards. Then they have to come up with a thesis statement. Then they have to…we'll do a trip to the library, so I can show them library resources. And they have to turn in a rough draft; then they turn in a final draft. So it's seven steps, but each step is worth a certain number of points, and the last three steps are worth the most number of points. And this way…they can monitor their own progress as they go along. And I think it helps. (VN, a veteran faculty member in Education, 2004)

Although the teaching approaches were strikingly different among the faculty members quoted above – based on the course level, the discipline, and the purpose for which writing is used -- all shared an implicit value that lecturing alone is not an effective strategy for teaching writing. In addition, to using teaching techniques to suit various learning styles, several faculty members emphasized that they try to minimize lecturing in their classes by encouraging students to interact with each other or by using an array of alternative approaches:

> I have come to regard small groups, doing group work, as very important. It helps me to be able to relate, see different points of view. And it gives you a

> different aspect, when you listen to someone else and have their input…I've just started incorporating then into the class. And not so much small groups yet, as the group itself working on critical thinking skills as a big group, and incorporating them all into a decision making process. And it's very interesting, some of the comments that come out in the cooperation and the conflict that you see. (VO, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004)

Small group work was reported by many interviewees as a frequently used teaching strategy.

Some of faculty interviewees were particularly creative. One of these made extensive use of role plays; in fact, this faculty member's office was filled with hats she used to play various characters, and she entertained the researcher by assuming a variety of roles to illustrate the activity (VM, a veteran faculty member in Education, 2004). Another talked about using a wide array of visual aids in addition to role plays, games, and interactive activities (VO, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004). Although not all of the interviewees appeared to be equally inventive, only one acknowledged that lecturing was still his primary teaching strategy in all classes; however, he emphasized that his classes tend to be about 50% lecture and 50% discussion (VP, a veteran faculty member in Education, 2004).

Classroom observation also revealed a variety of teaching strategies. One faculty member who was observed made extensive use of video excerpts, interspersing them with discussion and commentary (Researcher's Notes, 2004). The class that was the subject of the second observation began with interactive practice and discussion between students and the faculty member, and then moved into an extended small group simulation activity. The instructor also announced that students' group presentations would be videotaped on the following class day (Researcher's Notes, 2004). The third class observed by the researcher was structured around lecture and discussion; students were also sent to the board to explain answers to worksheet exercises (Researcher's Notes, 2004).

Overall, interviews and observations uncovered a wide variation in teaching approaches and strategies among faculty member. Therefore, it appeared that the majority of faculty members within the Faculty of Education make an effort to provide students with alternative ways of learning.

4. Faculty of Liberal Arts

In 1997, the Faculty of Liberal Arts was established in the northern part of EAU. In addition to its location, the international focus and flavor of the Faculty of Liberal Arts make it unique among the university's locations. One of the principal purposes the Faculty of Liberal Arts serves is to provide further education for Pathumtani's many immigrants. The faculty also hosts the largest bilingual education program in Pathumtani through its International Center outreach program in the heart of the province. A second outreach program is offered through a community school (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

The Faculty of Liberal Arts is well known as a center for literature and the arts. The School of the Arts is a special program which offers programs in the visual and performing arts. This program attracts a great many international students as well as Thai people from outside of Pathumtani. In addition, the Faculty of Liberal Arts hosts annual special events, such as a book fair, that draw visitors to EAU (Eastern Asia University, 2004).

Enrollment in the Faculty of Liberal Arts is roughly 72% Thai. Like students in the Faculty of Business Administration, a majority are part-time (45%) and female (59%). The Faculty of Liberal Arts also has the highest proportion of Thai students (72%) of any of the faculty groups; international students comprise about 16%. About 28% of the students enrolled in this program are over the age of 30 (Eastern Asia University, 2003).

Generally, this group was homogeneous in terms of marital status. With respect to age and tenure, the new faculty members were different from the group although there were two veterans who were similar in age to the new faculty members, and three who had less than five years experience on the faculty. The new faculty members were similar to the majority on the basis of prior residence, but vastly dissimilar in educational level. A majority of the group members had a doctorate or a master's degree, while two members had only a bachelor's degree. The new faculty member was similar in terms of parents' occupations, but dissimilar in terms of parents' educational levels. The new faculty members came from small families with only one sibling, while the majority of the veteran faculty members came from larger families and had three or more siblings. The number of years of previous work experience and the type of previous work were diverse in the group. The overall classification given to the new faculty members in the Faculty of Liberal Arts were dissimilar on the basis of education, family size, and parent's education, all of which differed markedly from the veteran group.

The Dean of the Faculty of Liberal Arts, speaking about the early days of the faculty, remarked:

> Bottom line, our need at the faculty has been in finding strength in adversity. In adversity because of the lack of a facility…It's not really having a facility, not really having a site, and trying to really work your way, how to find a space and the site facilities. And trying to build sense of faculty has not seemed an easy task. I remember the first day we opened the doors. We were ready to advise students, and ready to do all these things, and no students were coming in. And it was a real sad situation. We realized from day one… that we needed to be very creative, and really come up with new ways of attracting students. And the best way to do that was to really focus on special programs, and to develop a sense of excellence and a sense of pride on the part of the members of the staff and the students. I think that's a distinctive part of the Faculty of Liberal Arts. I would say that there's a tremendous sense and belief in what we are all about, which is really true of all the other faculties. But I think, at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, because of the adversity of not having some of the basic essentials to provide the services that we're all about, the faculty has been especially united in their effort to do things. (Dean of Faculty of Liberal Arts, 2004)

The Dean's sense of the distinctiveness of the Faculty of Liberal Arts seemed to be shared by the faculty members interviewed for this study, several of whom indicated that they would not like to work anywhere else at Pathumtani.

From interviews and observations, the important values among faculty members in Liberal Arts might be combined under the heading, "encouraging students to think critically." In fact, teaching critical or analytical thinking skills to students was cited as a goal either explicitly or implicitly by a majority of the interviewees.

Several faculty members indicated that teaching students critical thinking skills was a primary goal for them. After observing that students had “a major problem with critical thinking, or the ability to think by themselves,” one interviewee described a strategy designed to overcome the problem:

> I basically force them to analyze literature. And I do it in a very specific way, where they cannot just summarize the plot, they cannot just talk about the author’s life, they cannot talk about themselves, and they can’t go off on tangents. They’ve got to examine the text, and they have to explore it, by itself. And that’s it, that’s the only thing they’ve got, which infuriates them. Because I close off all the escape routs. And, when you do that – they understand they are required to think, and it’s something they’re not used to. They’re simply not used to thinking. You just wait, to see that they are thinking. There are different degrees of progress, naturally. Some of them begin to think. And some of them really get it. And others are in that middle ground where – we don’t really understand what you’re saying, so we’re making these mistakes at the beginning, but little by little we kind of understand what you’re saying. (VQ, a veteran faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004)

Another interviewee mentioned that he had brought up the concept of critical thinking in class that very day:

> “Twenty-one students in class today. And I asked them about critical thinking and we did a little exercise on it and nobody had heard of it. That didn’t mean that they weren’t aware of the process; they just weren’t aware of a name attached to it” (VQ, a veteran faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004)

This faculty member reported using a variety of strategies to induce students to analyze and question what they heard.

Among the faculty members in Liberal Arts who mentioned critical thinking explicitly, one even cited it as the major focus of a new class:

> Critical thinking is becoming a very fortunate fad in education, and I welcome that. And if critical thinking means rational processes, strategies of reasoning, if it means getting to touch with your writing skills in a critical manner, if it means translating the world with certain strategies and tools, I think that that's a great idea. We are making a great emphasis – this faculty, at least, is very much into critical thinking. In fact, I have a course structured for the fall that will be just critical thinking. (VR, a veteran faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004)

The interviewee quoted above reported making an effort to create a university of learners in the classroom to analyze and discuss concepts and ideas in a critical manner.

Although almost all of the faculty interviewees mentioned efforts to encourage students to analyze or think independently, the degree to which they emphasized these skills varied considerably. In addition, it is possible that some of the strategies they use to encourage students to think independently and/or be analytical listeners are not as effective as these faculty members suppose. Several studies of university faculty have demonstrated that although a majority of them claim that their classes teach students to think, most classes do not, in fact, demand higher level thinking skills of students (VR, a veteran faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004). However, Liberal Arts specifies only that faculty members encourage these traits in students; it appears that the majority of faculty member interviewed embrace this mission to at least some degree.

With respect to the 20 new faculty members, they were less than 30 years in age. Each was married and speaks Thai as his/her first language. They reported having between 0 to 5 years of work experience. All of the new faculty members had a graduate degree. New faculty members reported their previous occupations as falling into one of two categories: clerical/sales and management field. Father's education and mother's education for new faculty members was a university degree (an undergraduate and, in some cases, a graduate degree). New faculty members reported their father's occupation as in the semi-skilled and technical/trade fields. For mother's occupation, three categories emerged: 1) semi-skilled, 2) clerical/sales, and 3) technical/professional skills. New faculty members reported between 0-2 and 3-4 siblings.

There also appeared to be wider range of values when comparing newcomers with veteran faculty members. Interviews and observations in relation to all values revealed a range of sentiments that were more positive than negative for the organization. The analysis of the demographic characteristics of the new faculty members relative to the work group suggested that, for the most part, a majority of new faculty members were similar to the veteran faculty members of the work group they joined. The new faculty members in the Faculty of Communication Arts and the Faculty of Liberal Arts were classified as similar to their respective groups. On the other hand, the new faculty members in the Faculty of Business Administration were found to be dissimilar in terms of demographics, primarily on the basis of education, previous work experience, and family background.

Characteristics of Newcomers

The theory advanced through this study is that newcomers to an organization have the potential to either reinforce existing patterns and practices and reproduce organizational structures in a manner that is relatively unchanged, or challenge existing patterns and practices and contribute to change in some form. Beyond investigating whether newcomers in the study contributed to inertia or reorientation in their particular group, this study sought to advance the reasons why different newcomers had different influences on their respective work groups. The primary factor suggested was relational demography, and this relationship was theorized to be moderated by self-efficacy. Data pertaining to these two areas was collected from the newcomers at T1. In addition to questions pertaining to these two areas, the expectations form of the GES was administered.

In this section, the findings regarding the demographic characteristics, GES scores, and levels of self-efficacy recorded for the newcomers are presented. The relationship of the newcomers in the study (n=20) to the 60 other members who joined the organization at the same time is also discussed. Since the primary concern in this study was organizational inertia and/or reorientation, and the role of the newcomers in the on-going structuration patterns, it is necessary to discuss the relationships between the newcomers who were in the study to those who were not part of the study in order to assess the extent to which the observations made of the 20 newcomers were representative of patterns emerging throughout the organization.

During the first week that the newcomers were in the mentoring program, they were administered questionnaires pertaining to self-efficacy, personal demographic information, and Form E (Expectations) of the Group Environment Scale (GES)

(Moos, 1986), which was used to measure newcomers' expectations concerning the work groups they would be joining. At the same time the newcomers were in introduced to their faculty group, the researcher was working with these four groups. The members of each work group completed questionnaires soliciting personal demographic information as well as Form R (Real) of the GES. Each group member was interviewed at T1 with the interview focusing on perceptions of their job and key value issues in the organization. Each interview lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes. Interviews and observations made while working with each group provided the basis for assessing the enactment of values and beliefs among group members and patterns of interaction. On the basis of the information gained through the interviews and through observations of the groups under actual working conditions. This same process was repeated at T2. For each area of interest, newcomer data is presented.

Table 8 provides data from the Form E (expectations) GES completed by the newcomers and Form R (reality) GES completed by existing group members. Each of the sub-scales of the GES was presented, and comparison of these two groups was demonstrated.

Table 8: Newcomer Expectations and Organizational Reality

| Variable | Organizational members' mean (n=60 existing faculty members in four groups) | Newcomers' group mean (n=20 new faculty members in four groups) |
|---|---|---|
| Cohesiveness | 6.5 | 7.3 |
| Leader Support | 5.3 | 7.5 |
| Expressiveness | 5.1 | 4.2 |

Table 8 (continued): Newcomer Expectations and Organizational Reality

| Variable | Organizational members' mean (n=60 existing faculty members in four groups) | Newcomers' group mean (n=20 new faculty members in four groups) |
|---|---|---|
| Independence | 4.6 | 3.7 |
| Task Orientation | 7.3 | 8.5 |
| Self Discovery | 4.2 | 6.1 |
| Anger and Aggression | 5.8 | 4.1 |
| Order and Organization | 5.4 | 7.8 |
| Leader Control | 5.4 | 7.9 |
| Innovation and Change | 3.4 | 6.3 |

The results of this analysis indicate that the new faculty members expected a rigidly organized and controlled group environment. This is reflected in the fact that the new faculty members' expectations were significantly higher in terms of leader support, leader control, order and organization, and task orientation, and significantly lower in terms of expressiveness and independence.

This pattern of results suggested that the new faculty members expected to be well guided and looked after by the leader and other group members, and did not expect a lot of independence or a chance to express their views. In addition to the presented data of new faculty members' expectations and the realities of the existing work groups, the demographics of the new faculty members were reported as the aggregate level demographic characteristics.

When specifically queried about their values and beliefs, each new faculty member spoke at length about effective instructional strategies used in the classroom.

Although the types of strategies were wide ranging, they can be grouped into several broad categories: 1) setting clear expectations and demands; 2) being approachable and available to students; and 3) actively engaging students.

Clarity

Nearly every one of the new faculty members spoke strongly to the importance of being very clear and explicit about course requirements and expectations. Several explained that they distribute very detailed course syllabi containing course policies and information about assignments, and exam dates. It was also clear that these key policies and dates are referred to often, so, as NE, a new faculty member in Education stated, “they’re never caught off guard.” NH, another new faculty member in Education, described his distribution of a daily class newsletter that contains “a thought for the day, it has guidance about where you should be in the course, what chapter you should be reading, what you should be focusing on.”

While the new faculty members spoke of the importance of being clear and organized, they also described the benefits of this effort, namely, that it provides an avenue for making a course demanding and rigorous while remaining fair. NA, a new faculty member in Communication Arts, summarized this succinctly, stating:

> I just want to make the classes very demanding. But I feel a tremendous obligation to be very clear-cut about my expectations. If you are going to make them that demanding then I just don’t think it is an exercise in responsible teaching if I don’t clearly state where we are going.

Several new faculty members commented that teaching provided them with the perspective that focusing in depth on the truly essential concepts of a topic was more important than covering a broad range of topics more superficially. NE, a new faculty member in Education, explained that he approached each lecture with the following lens:

> Think carefully for each lecture about the three things you want them to walk away with. And focus on these three things. Your chapter may cover 25 topics, but identify the three or four that your students need, and make sure they understand them.

He concluded that “we tend to make a mistake that we confuse being comprehensive with being thorough.” Likewise, NF, a new faculty member in Communication Arts stated that:

> I won’t try to cover as much of the syllabus as I possibly can but only have 40% of it retained. I’d rather miss some of the syllabus and make sure that everything we are building on through the course…as much of it is learned as possible.

NH, a new faculty member in Education, discussed how creating a course manual forced him to establish the critical information to teach:

> Because you can’t have a manual that is 500 pages or 500 slides, I really had to make some decisions about exactly what my learning goals were and in what order I was going to teach those things.

Several of new faculty members spoke to the advantage of providing students with course notes. The reason was nearly universal across the group: the teachers wanted the students actively listening and learning, rather than mechanically taking notes. NB, a new faculty member in Education, said “I don’t like them trying to take too many notes because you’re not listening and…you miss too many things.” ND, a new faculty member in Education, stated that he provided notes so that "students come to class and not compulsively just take notes…I want people actively learning and thinking." Likewise, NG, a new faculty member in Liberal Arts, explained, "I found early on in teaching that I was in competition with students trying to write things down, so I look away that barrier."

Approachability

The idea of being available to students was strongly articulated by several of the faculty. Many described deriving enjoyment from having an open door policy with students to talk about a course or just talk. As NA, a new faculty member in Communication Arts, said, "I like them to come by anytime. I like them to come. I don't care if they have a question."

Being approachable and available also extended into the classroom. NE, a new faculty member in Education explained that he arrives at his classroom early to get organized for the day. He then greets the students at the door as they arrive. NA, a new faculty member in Communication Arts, mentioned that, early in her teaching career, she would arrive at the classroom just before the scheduled start time, deliver her lecture, and then leave. She began to observe the style of an older faculty member in her faculty group who was quite popular with his students, and noticed that this faculty member arrived early, greeted his students upon arrival, and remained after class to speak to students, either in the classroom or in the hallway. The younger new faculty member began to emulate this style, and she found that she was more approachable in the eyes of her students. The importance of being approachable goes beyond being popular with students for, as this new faculty member said, "if you're not approachable, students won't come and ask for help if they're having problems. If you're not approachable, they just won't ask questions in class. It you're not approachable, very often they'll tune you out."

Engaging students

Many new faculty members discussed methods used to engage their students and to make abstract course material more understandable. NB, a new faculty member in Education, discussed the comprehensive use of technology to keep his lectures interactive. As he said, "I hear and I forgot, I see and I remember, I do and I understand." This takes an otherwise passive lecture environment and makes it into an active and shared learning experience. NG, a new faculty member in Communication Arts, explained that, in her lesson on business management, she discussed the organizational level, as many of the students know that level. As NG said, "you can make the topics about the organizational level a little bit more engaging to the students because you can relate it to their personal (university) lives in some way." Through such strategies, this new faculty member has found she is able to take some difficult concepts and put them in a way that students can really "sink their teeth into and grab onto it."

Examination of both interview and observational data suggests that there are few differences among the new faculty members. First, most of the new faculty members interviewed and observed had been through every facet of the newcomer socialization process, from orientation to the mentoring program. There were a few exceptions; several did not attend all elements of the orientation because of schedule conflicts. Nevertheless, the new faculty members in the main were able to discuss their perceptions of orientation, the mentoring program, ongoing orientation efforts, and other socialization processes at EAU. Some of the new faculty members had more limited experience. None of them had yet taken the EAU training program or prepared their portfolio. Although the new faculty interviewees expressed opinions about these matters, those opinions were based on hearsay and observation rather than direct experience.

As might be expected, the new faculty members in the study appeared in general to have reached a higher level of development in terms of the categories in the Statement of Faculty Excellence. New faculty interviewees reported using a wider variety of teaching strategies and seemed to be much more analytical about their approaches to teaching. Moreover, the evidence provided by classroom observations indicated that the two observed new faculty members used more creativity in their teaching and a wider variety of strategies than did the veteran faculty members who were observed.

In addition, because the “Effective Teaching, Learning, and Assessment in EAU” course and its two course predecessors provide faculty with detailed information about teaching strategies, learning styles, and assessment tools, faculty who have taken one or more of the courses have greater knowledge of these matters, whether or not they choose to apply that knowledge. For example, although not all new faculty members who had learned about assessment tools through the EAU training courses used them routinely, they were all familiar with them and had practice in using some type of formative evaluation technique. In contrast, none of the interviewees who had not yet been exposed to the courses reported using formative evaluation at all.

From the observations, it appears that the new faculty members spent far less time on scholarly writing (e.g., proposals and papers) than was needed to meet promotion and tenure criteria for their university. The new faculty members always admitted to going to class over-prepared with more material than they could reasonably cover in the allotted time, and rushing to complete everything, often at the expense of active student participation. Many reported spending nearly 30 hours per week on class preparation. Moreover, the new faculty members were primarily concerned that students would complain about content errors. However, some new faculty members identified students as an important element of why they enjoyed working at EAU.

> The enthusiastic nature of the students. I love it. I am so glad to be here and to be part of this and to learn from these students…I get the students that are amazingly marvelous. (VC, a veteran faculty member in Business Administration, 2004)

An important and interesting finding is that sometimes the new faculty members experienced a sense of loneliness and lack of acceptance, and had difficulty establishing productive contacts with colleagues who could provide guidance and support. Typically, behavior patterns of new faculty members led to increased stress levels, low productivity, and ineffective teaching. However, it is noted that not all new faculty members fit this description. EAU developed a program to enable all new faculty members to do the things that seemed to come naturally to the effective newcomers. Individuals who followed the university's program showed clear improvement in attitudes and performance (Eastern Asia University, 2004). That is, each new faculty member was asked if she or he participated in any type of faculty development programs or activities. Two said yes. One attended a seminar within EAU, and another attended a conference that offered workshops on teaching techniques. Two other new faculty members in Communication Arts explained that they talk to their colleagues and share ideas, and two cited previous teaching experience. One veteran faculty member in Business Administration summarized a common thought among the group when he said:

> Apart from the experience that I had as a teaching assistant, we were never really trained as teachers. So when it comes to research, we're professionals. When it comes to being teachers, we're amateurs. We are self-taught; we pick it up in sort of random fashion.

Several faculty members specifically described how they strive to improve for the sake of their students. One new faculty member in the Faculty of Education prepared for each course with the underlying questions, "What am I going to do that is new this month? What am I going to experiment with? How am I going to change the course to better meet the population I'm serving?" One new faculty member acknowledged that he learned from his students, noting, "I've always felt that the students were my teachers too--that they can give me something back to try to help me do better." Likewise, another new faculty member said, "Basically, I get satisfaction out of doing a good job and I'm always trying to improve…I always listen to feedback from the students as far as what they think I could do to improve my courses, and I always pay attention to the written feedback."

Although there was diversity in academic fields from which these 20 new faculty members were drawn, several common themes emerged. First, the majority of the faculty groups specifically described deriving satisfaction from working with students, promoting learning, and making a difference in the lives of others. Second, each new faculty member reported that he or she employed a comprehensive set of instructional tools and strategies. Common across these strategies were organization, focus, and holding high expectations for students. These expectations supported a desire to be fair to and caring of students. As one new faculty member stated:

> The most important part of teaching is caring. Caring that your students do well, caring that your students have a clear opportunity and a really clear understanding of what and how and why things happen. Caring about them as individuals--caring about them personally.

Third, new faculty members reported striving to improve as teachers. Several specifically identified students as both their primary source of motivation and their primary point of feedback for improvement. As one faculty member explained:

> When you aspire to teach, you aspire to the realization that the job is never done. That the journey, if you work at it and you give others a chance to tell you how you can do a better job, I think is the most precious and the most beautiful thing that we can give to one another.

To conclude, new faculty members reported enjoying the opportunity to help students and observe them achieve an understanding of course content. The variety of experiences that teaching offers, the challenge if trying to support the growth and educational attainment of individuals, and the interaction with students were each mentioned as contributing to the positive aspects of teaching.

VETERANS CCMMUNICATE DESIRABLE VALUES, BELIEFS, AND BEHAVIORS TO NEWCOMERS DURING SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

Administrators and faculty members at EAU have developed rich informational resources that are made available to new faculty members in the form of documents that are given to newcomers when they begin employment at the university. One of the first items that the new faculty members receive is the “Faculty Handbook & Service Directory” (FHSD). During the 2003-2004 academic years when this study was conducted, the FHSD contained over 300 pages and was divided into a seven sections:

1. An introductory section including a message from the president; a description of the background of the university, statements concerning the purpose and philosophy of EAU.
2. A Faculty Governance section including a statement about the role of faculty governance; the constitution of the faculty senate; and information about the faculty senate consortium, its members, and their participation on standing committees.
3. A Faculty Role and Responsibilities section including detailed information about minimum standards, workload, record keeping, and other faculty duties or concerns.
4. An Employment Practices and Benefits section describing EAU employment policies and practices as they relate to new faculty members.
5. A section on Serving Students presenting a statistical student profile as well as statements concerning the university’s expectations with respect to classroom climate, instructional policies and procedures, and other issues relating to instruction and assessment.
6. A section entitled “Support for the Teaching/Learning Process” that described the Teaching/Learning Project and outlined Faculty Advancement procedures.

7. A University Service section explaining how to access key services such as institutional research, desktop publishing, educational technologies, vision care, etc.

The initial part of the handbook presents new and continuing faculty members with rather detailed basic information about EAU policies, services, and practices. Of particular interest are sections 1, 6, 7 as listed above because these contain passages that relate to the University's philosophy and particular expectations for faculty in their interactions with students. Typical is this passage concerning classroom climate from the "Serving Students" section:

> Although there are wide variations among the personalities and teaching style of individual faculty, it is extremely important for every faculty member to maintain an open, friendly classroom climate where the students feel welcome and comfortable. The effective classroom will encourage questioning and discussion, will not be little students who are less prepared than they should be, and will be patient with students who are not self-assured or self-confident…. Most of our students are adults, both legally and emotionally. The classroom atmosphere should reflect this by promoting mutual respect, encouraging intellectual curiosity, and making the process of learning rewarding. (p. E-3)

Passages such as this one put the responsibility for classroom atmosphere and dynamics squarely on the shoulders of faculty members. Many of the faculty policies and guidelines of the FHSD clearly flow from the Teaching/Learning Values and Statement of Faculty Excellence documents. This section gives a clear general picture of the scope of faculty responsibilities and activities across the university.

Other documents provided to new faculty members include a copy of the Statement of Faculty Excellence, the EAU catalog, and the Institutional Research Department's Eastern Asia University Factbook, which describes EAU's history, functions, and statistical information in a concise format. New faculty members are also encouraged to peruse Eastern Asia University Policy Manual and Eastern Asia University Procedures Manual, both of which are available on the university computer network, in university libraries, and in the Human Resources office (Eastern Asia University, 2003)

New Faculty Members Selection

Hiring the right people–those who already demonstrate many of the qualities EAU seeks in its faculty–is viewed as critical to the success of the new faculty member development program at EAU. The New Faculty Subcommittee of the Teaching/Learning Project recommended that the Teaching/Learning Values document and the Statement of Faculty Excellence be used as recruitment tools:

> Taken together, they would inform prospective applicants about the atmosphere at EAU and what would be expected of them. After all, just as an institution carefully selects a candidate, so should a candidate carefully choose an institution. These documents would provide ample data to help applicants decide whether or not to go forward. (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p. 8-9)

In addition to making these documents available to prospective candidates, the subcommittee recommended that hiring committees be trained to write interview protocols based on the documents and addressing two general areas: knowledge of the subject area and ability to effectively teach that subject to EAU's students. The subcommittee's recommendations were implemented and are now an established feature of the new faculty selection process.

However, in practice, whether this process will result in new hires whose values, beliefs, and behaviors are in harmony with EAU's stated philosophy depends in great measure on the screening committees. The director of the Teaching/Learning Project expressed confidence that interview and selection processes had generally improved following the implementation recommendations emerging from the project team. However, she acknowledged that the selection process does not work consistently well. The level of commitment to the goals of the Teaching/Learning Project vary from faculty member to faculty member. Moreover, when screening committees are composed of mostly veteran faculty, there can be a tendency to prefer candidates who fit a traditional faculty profile.

As stated in the handbook, screening committees are trained to look not only for new faculty members whose views are compatible with the university's philosophy but also for those who bring state-of-the-art knowledge of the field and/or increased ethnic diversity to their faculty group. One Teaching/Learning Center director expressed confidence in the hiring process. Asked whether new faculty members who appeared strongly committed to the open door and expressed a strong commitment to their students were that way in the beginning or had gradually become that way through working at the university, this director replied:

> I think they were that way in the beginning. They didn't become that way. I think that they are selected because they are that way, and I firmly believe that. And I'd say clearly a third, maybe a half of the people we hire here worked for us part-time. So these are not newcomers. Their evaluations have

> been seen by chairpersons; the classes have been observed. These are not fresh off the boat kinds of teachers, in that sense. And even the really young ones, some of them taught for us while they were in graduate school….So when they graduate, if they're that enthusiastic, they get hired. (EAU administrator, 2004)

Another Teaching/Learning Center director expressed a different view of the hiring process, emphasizing the many difficulties it presents for screening committees:

> Hiring committees, you know, they are committees of peers, and so they don't understand human resources, they don't understand recruitment, they barely understand interviewing. We can do some training on behavioral interviewing. It's a committee decision, too, and they're struggling with how to deal with so many people interviewing one person and not making them terribly uncomfortable. I think sometimes the process works and sometimes it probably doesn't. (EAU administrator, 2003)

Some of the difficulties encountered during the hiring process might stem from the fact that screening committees are being asked to search for so many qualities in a single individual. Committees must take into account each candidate's proficiency and experience in the teaching field as well as his or her suitability for teaching university students. The particular needs of the faculty also play a key role. In addition, members must search for a candidate whose personal qualities match the multiple attributes listed in the Statement of Faculty Excellence. When the desired outcomes of the hiring process are so numerous, it is improbable that all of them will be satisfied all of the time.

Orientation

One of the major efforts at new faculty member socialization made at EAU is a weeklong orientation for new faculty members and administrative or professional staff that takes place each May, one week before the start of the first semester. Orientation offers a broad overview of the University as an organization and the nature of its institutional culture. This overview is presented in a series of first-person talks by administrators and faculty. New faculty members will also be informed about EAU's benefit package for faculty and will secure identification cards and e-mail addresses. The primary purpose of the orientation program for new faculty members at EAU is to introduce new faculty members to the mission and core values of the University; present the key administrative and academic officers and programs; and demonstrate institutional resources that support and enhance teaching, learning, research and creative activity.

The orientation process focuses on developing understanding and strengthening competencies in the following seven areas:

1. Organizational Structure Outcome: New faculty understand Extension, its mission, vision, organization, funding, and history.
2. Program Development/Evaluation Outcome: New faculty effectively design, implement, evaluate, and report on educational experiences.
3. Processes and Systems Outcome: New faculty access resources and use systems to support and report programming, performance and professional development.

4. Professional Development Outcome: New faculty members enhance their core competencies and become proficient in developing and managing a successful program effort.
5. Community Knowledge Outcome: New faculty know the area where they will be working--the history, culture, politics, local expectations for position, key leaders, demographics, county plans, community issues.
6. Relationship Building Outcome: New faculty members establish human relationships that will provide a support system for them.
7. Diversity Outcome: New faculty work effectively as a diverse workforce and with diverse audiences (Eastern Asia University, 2003)

In most years, two days out of the week are spent in a general EAU orientation; the remaining sessions focus on the faculty groups that are affected. Some of activities occur on a group level while other activities are handled on a one-on-one level.

Because so many messages about the expectations placed upon new faculty members are embedded in the orientation, this program will be described in detail. This section chronicles the May 27-28, 2004 two-day orientation in which the researcher participated. Each session in orientation program that combine food and conversation with discussion of key issues related to the new faculty experience at EAU such as faculty development opportunities, finding answers for first-year questions, and so on. These sessions offer a relaxed environment where the stress of the faculty workload is relieved and personal interaction with colleagues is encouraged. Additionally, the orientation program at EAU is designed to complement orientation and team-building activities of individual academic departments and programs. The orientation program encourages contacts and perspectives that are cross-disciplinary and University-wide.

The subsections entitled “Analysis” explain some of the background and rationale for the orientation based on university documents and interviews with administrators and faculty developers.

New Faculty Orientation, May 2004

Day 1

The new faculty orientation was held on two consecutive days from 8:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. at EAU. The program for the two days was comprehensive and ambitious, including several panel discussions and small group activities as well as presentations covering a range of topics. The approximately 50 participants included newly hired full time faculty members and a number of newly hired administrative personnel.

Welcoming Words

The orientation program was held in a comfortable training room equipped with large, round tables. A dais for the panel discussions was set in the front of the room, and a table for refreshments was in the back. After a brief introduction, a videotaped message from EAU’s president set the tone for the program. This marked the first time in the history of EAU that EAU’s president was unable to personally attend the orientation session. In his brief remarks, EAU’s president emphasized pride in the achievements of the institution as well as a strong sense of EAU’s importance in the larger scheme of things:

> You’re joining a wonderful group of people with an important mission for the well-being of EAU. So what you do here is very important… I have said on a

> number of occasions that this is the most important institution in Thailand, and I still believe it. Because of what we do, because of the challenge that we take, because of our success with that challenge, and because of the visibility the institution has and the degree to which it's followed. (EAU's president, May 2004)

In his closing remarks, EAU's president mentioned EAU's history of encouraging innovation and urged the new faculty members and administrators to propose new ideas. After the video, the Senior Vice President for Planning gave a more personal address in which he read from an essay he had authored entitled "How I Got Here and Why I Stayed". The Senior Vice President for Planning spoke movingly of his experiences. He conveyed the essence of EAU's mission and modeled a belief in the ability of all students to learn. This is one of the qualities listed in the Statement of Faculty Excellence (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p. 3). He concluded with the following exhortation:

> Ladies and gentlemen, today you embark upon a mission of very great significance. Having cast your lot with us, understand that you will be standing on the shoulders of giants. I refer to the faculty and staff that founded this institution and in less than a decade have brought it to the pinnacle of excellence. We have chosen you; but, in fact, you have also chosen us, and for that we're glad. We're counting on you to carry on the tradition and we pledge our support and give you our best wishes for success. Welcome to Eastern Asia University. (EAU's president, May, 2004)

The address of the Senior Vice President for Planning, like that of EAU's president, appeared carefully designed to give new faculty members and administrators the sense that working for EAU was both a rare privilege and a serious responsibility. This underlying message was communicated repeatedly in various ways during the two-day period.

After the two welcoming speeches, participants were asked to pair off, interview their partners, and introduce their partners to the larger group. They were asked to find out basic information, such as the person's name and field, as well as items such as the last book the person had read. People appeared to enjoy this activity a great deal. The new employees were indeed an eclectic group in terms of ethnicity, culture, and professional background (Field Notes, May, 2004).

After that, there were two individual presentations. The first was a statistical portrait of EAU students delivered by Senior Vice President for Research. Key points presented included the size and growth of EAU; the academic and economic composition of the student body; reasons why students attend EAU; statistics on international students; and outcomes and measures of success. The university's position of leadership and pride in its accomplishments were recurring themes in the presentations. Additionally, students--their attributes, their problems, and their success--took center stage in this presentation.

The theme of student-centeredness continued into the next presentation by the Senior Vice President for Management. This presentation was designed as a sort of mini-course, complete with syllabus, course objectives, an examination, and evaluation feedback. The subject of the "course" was the faculty's role in serving students. After passing out the Teaching/Learning Values documents, the Statement of Faculty Excellence, and the Statement of Administration/Professional Staff Excellence, the Senior Vice President for Managing said:

From this information, I would hope that participants can recall 10 specific aspects of their roles in serving students; that participants can specify, in writing, at least one application of these ten aspects for their own performance. The second objective is to examine the roles of faculty and administrators in supporting teaching and learning. Third, to demonstrate a teaching/learning mode, so that you may experience some of the potential of such a model. Some assignments: to read critically these statements of values, faculty, and administrator excellence; and to participate in both large and small group discussions, being able to recall these ten aspects of serving students. And then, it would not be complete without some assessment instrument. (Senior Vice President for Management, May, 2004)

Using visualization techniques to aid memorization, the Senior Vice President for Managing then presented her ten aspects of the faculty's role in serving students. The principal image used was a rotary-dial telephone; participants were instructed to picture each number along the dial and remember the corresponding part of the faculty role. Senior Vice President for Managing also gave a visual image for each number to suggest both the appearance of the number and something about the point being made. The ten role aspects were:

1- Student-centeredness. Image: holding up one finger. "We're number one. Who is this 'we'? It's students. So the first thing to remember when you see that 1 on the phone, we think of priority to students. Everything we do, whether we're teaching, whether we're an administrator, whether we're doing a committee meeting, it's got to go back to the priority number one, students.

2- Feedback. Image: A mother swan leading her young and nurturing them, giving feedback about dangers, directions, etc. “Often, positive, feedback.”

3- Courtesy. Image: A sofa (the three turned sideways), symbolizing pleasantness and courtesy. “Most important in serving students in courtesy… It’s often not just the message that we give; it’s how we give it.”

4- Direction. Image: A sailboat seeking direction on a lake. “Students need direction. Secretaries need direction. Faculty need direction. Deans need direction. University president needs lots of direction.”

5- Serving students as individuals. Image: A back hoe excavating a site. “Exploring, digging deeper, digging below the surface of that student to the individual as person.”

6- Motivation. Image: A fishhook. “In serving students, we’ve got to try to get at what motivates these students.”

7- Modeling. Image: A stage with actors. “In serving students, we are all models, and we can’t forget it … it’s a very important role that we play.”

8- Patience. Image: An hourglass. “In serving students, we have to have patience. Students don’t always respond, or employees don’t always respond the way we want, as promptly as we want, as clearly as we want, so we have to have patience.”

9- Professionalism. Image: A pipe, as a reminder of an old-fashioned professor. “Above all, he was a professional. So while he was helpful, warm, caring, and a good listener, he was a professional. As soon as he lost that line of professionalism between professionalism and familiarity, his effectiveness is gone.”

10- Unity. Image: Children in a circle holding hands. “When we’re serving students, it’s not just a professor serving students; it’s not just an advisor, it’s not just a registrar…It’s all of them together. So part of serving students is not just what each of us does, but what we all do collectively; how we all reinforce one another, how we are all linked to one another, how we are all supportive.” (Senior Vice President for Managing, May 2004)

After all of the role aspects had been presented, participants were given time to practice recalling them in pairs or groups. The activity ended with a group recall session during which the Senior Vice President for Managing called out numbers and the group responded with the associated images and meanings.

The morning’s activities were followed by a high-quality, pleasant lunch in the cafeteria at which participants had an opportunity to mingle with each other and with the university’s president and the other administrators who were present. Afterwards, the group reassembled for a lengthy first presentation on employee benefits that occupied most of the afternoon. As a closing activity for the day, Senior Vice President for Managing organized the participants into small groups to discuss for about 20 minutes their thoughts about the new roles they were taking on as faculty members or administers. Then, each group chose a spokesperson to report the major points back to the larger group. The day’s activities ended just before 4:00 in the afternoon.

Day 2

The second day of the orientation began much as the first one had, with a buffet table of coffee, juice, bagels, and sweet rolls. A second presentation on employee benefits was the first activity of the day. However, at 9:30, something more unusual was offered: a group of student panelists, moderated by the Director of the Graduate School, talked about their expectations for faculty and for the university. Each of the students had spent at least one year at the university. The initial group consisted of three females and two males; they were later joined by two more females and one male. All were minority students. Most of them said that they intended to transfer to four-year schools after completing their programs at EAU.

Although several of the students were shy at first, all were open about expressing both their positive and negative experiences at EAU. The Director of the Graduate School served as both moderator and commentator, sometimes adding to student comments and often paraphrasing them for listeners. In several instances, she rephrased student comments in a way that softened their meaning for the faculty members present. Although the mood was basically upbeat, with orientation participants clapping for the students and praising their aspirations, there were also awkward moments during which smiles froze on faces and the listeners' silence was palpable, especially when students talked about faculty behaviors they did not like (Field Notes, May, 2004).

A few questions were posed to the students in a manner that helped to structure the discussion. The first of these was, "What practice or behavior do you value most or least in a faculty member, and why?" Some of the responses were: "I like a humorous faculty, you know…I like the way they present themselves and express themselves in the classroom to make you feel more comfortable and laid back. Not too laid back, but enough that you can get to know them", "Maybe…not give you their life story, but maybe say some things to make you feel comfortable, like I do live here, and before I came here…Give some kind of background of what education you've had, or something like that", "Make sure the lecture's not boring, so we won't fall asleep! I've been to certain lectures that have just left me snoring in class, because certain faculty members tend to keep moving on without having to recognize that not all students move at the same level. Some students are too afraid to raise their hand and say, 'can you repeat that?'" (Student Panel, New Faculty Orientation, May 2004). These observations appeared to be well received by the new faculty members and administrators. The remark about boring lectures drew an appreciative laugh from the audience.

When one student said that he appreciated teachers who learned his name early in the semester, the Director of the Graduate School reminded the newcomers of the back hoe analogy of getting to know each student as an individual. Then she moved on to the second question: "If you're in a class and need assistance in completing a particular course requirement–maybe it is maintaining a certain average, or completing an assignment, or learning a particular skill, and you need assistance with this--what action do you typically take?"

Student: We recognize that the student should take that incentive. You're taking a class; you're supposed to have that drive to go ahead and talk to the instructor. But sometimes students feel a little bit scared. You don't need to say it all the time, but you should say it every once in a while.

Director of Graduate School: I think what you're…kind of reflecting is the fact that some students probably are more ready to take it upon themselves to seek help when they need it. Others are not. And sometimes it's the student who needs the most help who is the most reluctant to approach the instructor about it. So we're got a variety of different attitudes or feelings about how students may want to seek the help that they need.

Student: You look at the grades that you're receiving for your test scores, your assignments…and when you start noticing that a student's grades are dropping, and you see that that student is not coming to you, there's got to be a reason why. Either the person wanted to fail the class or really doesn't care, or that information just hasn't sunk in yet. And they really are just either too shy or just… "I feel stupid. I don't want to go to that person because my instructor – oh, my god, look at my grades…oh, my god, this professor is a record, he doesn't shut up."…I've know students that have let three tests go by, and they're failing, but due to the fact that they're shy and they're just afraid, they don't go in to their teacher to seek help.

Director of Graduate School: Yeah, that does happen. And so I think what we're saying is there's a dual responsibility here. There's a responsibility for the faculty member and there's a responsibility for the student, to both begin to communicate--especially, if the student is not achieving to the level that they should be doing at that particular point. (Student Panel, New Faculty Orientation, May 2004)

By this point, it was apparent that, from the students' point of view, not all faculty members at EAU were exemplary. This point was further underscored in responses to the Director of the Graduate School's third question, "How do you feel about giving feedback to faculty regarding their effectiveness as faculty, or perhaps their lack of effectiveness?"

Student: I love feedback!...I love to give them feedback. If I've had a great time, I love to tell the faculty member I think you're great, I love your lectures, and you keep me awake, I learn so much…I like to tell you stink, you make me fall asleep, I don't like you; give me another teacher. I think feedback's really important because if we don't tell you, you won't know what we're really learning or not learning in class.

Director of Graduate School: I think what (the student) is referring to are the Student Feedback Questionnaires that are part of our faculty advancement program here at the university. It's a feedback instrument that all faculty are encouraged to use. So, it's not mandatory at this particular point in time…

Student: I appreciate the form, the individual evaluation for the faculty members, in the sense that it allows me to speak my mind, express myself about a faculty member's treatment--or mistreatment--of the student body…My experience, if you will…I made an F in [a business course] …I have no shame about it, but I don't feel that F belongs to me; it belongs more to that professor because there was a lack of rapport. The professor would put the students on the spot if he felt you were disrespecting him in any way. You couldn't really tell if you were misrepresenting him, because he never gave any feedback. I'm open to criticism also, but he never came to me, never let me

> know that he needed so-and-so …I appreciated that form where we could evaluate him. (Student Panel, New Faculty Orientation, May 2004)

After the student's story about receiving an 'F' in a course, several other students began to air complaints about particular faculty members whose classes they had taken. At this point, some in the audience members became visibly uncomfortable. In my field notes, I even commented on my surprise that this apparently hand-picked group of students had so many complaints (Field Notes, May 2004).

The remainder of the student panel discussion focused on situations in which students had sought the assistance of an administrator and any words of advice they had for new faculty members. The basic themes that emerged concerned actively encouraging students to discuss any problems they were having, establishing teacher-student rapport early in the semester, using teaching strategies that accommodate different learning styles, and putting policies and requirements in writing.

It appeared to the researcher that this session with students, more than any of the other sessions, provided a reality check for the newcomers. The other presenters were colleagues and professionals who smoothly promoted EAU's expectations and values in a largely positive tone. The student panelists were not smooth. Their honest presentations seemed to vividly capture both the hopes and the struggles that manifest themselves each day in EAU's classrooms. They were not reticent about expressing expectations for faculty that went well beyond traditional university faculty roles, nor were they inclined to soften their words of scorn for faculty members who failed to meet their expectations. These students seemed to issue a challenge to the new faculty members present: "Prove to us that you're good. Show us that you can be compassionate and keep the class interesting. We expect you to go out of your way to help us, to teach us, to get to know us." This message seemed to strike a slightly sobering note in the midst of the more polished motivational presentations.

Faculty Panel

Following the student panel, two presentations occupied the remainder of the morning. The first was a discussion of university policies relating to equal access and equal opportunities for both students and employees. Grievance procedures, discrimination, and sexual harassment were discussed in detail. The second presentation involved another panel discussion, this time with four faculty members who had just finished their first year at EAU. They were asked to respond to five questions:

1. What was the most important thing you learned while working at EAU?

2. Who or what person, activity, experience, resource helped you the most?

3. What was the biggest surprise or unexpected event or activity that you experienced?

4. Going into next year, what concerns or goals do you have?

5. What other piece of advice would you give to your colleagues?

Answers to the first question touched on both classroom teaching and issues external to the classroom. Several faculty members said they had learned that they never really knew their material until they had presented it to students and heard the often surprising questions that resulted. One mentioned the importance of listening to students rather than talking all the time. Another had been delighted to find that, unlike colleagues she had worked with at another institution, her EAU colleagues were cooperative and emphasized true teamwork. Still another had entered EAU as a computer-challenged person and related how acquiring computer proficiency had changed her life.

When asked about the person, activity, experience, or resource that had been most helpful, several of the panelists mentioned people such as their mentors, department chairpersons, and faculty secretaries. Two were excited about a computer software package called the "electronic grade book" which assists faculty members in planning their courses and computing course grades. One panelist emphasized the wide variety of helpful resource people who were available throughout the university, including even the university president, and how easy it is to reach these people for information and assistance. Teaching/Learning Center directors were also mentioned as important resources.

The question about what each faculty member had found most surprising yielded a variety of responses, ranging from consternation over how difficult it is to advise students to delighted surprise at finding that EAU sponsors events such as a book fair. One panelist emphasized how pleased she had been at the accessibility and helpfulness of the university's student services personnel. As the discussion moved on to questions about goals or concerns, declining enrollments for the university overall as well as for specific academic groups seemed to be a major concern for all of the panelists. One of them focused the discussion by offering the following comment:

> You and I and all of us are going to be working together for a long time. The future of this university--really, it's not an overstatement--is in our hands. We need to be concerned with the general goals, where we're going, with our standards, with the preparation of our students. Because that's the livelihood of the university. We've got to get these people in, we have to give them a

> valuable education that they can go on and see for themselves, like it's…that it is valuable and that we did a good job…So the quality of our work and where the university is going are some of my major concerns. (Faculty Panel, New Faculty Orientation, May 2004)

This comment seemed once again to underscore for newcomers the seriousness of EAU's commitment to its students. This message seemed to be especially powerful coming from a peer and colleague who, only a short time before, was a newcomer himself.

The panelists' advice to the newcomers included admonitions to ask lots of questions, be patient at first, 'be yourself,' and be willing to go out on a limb and try new things. Several of the panelists mentioned the value of workshops offered by the Teaching/Learning Centers on subjects such as the electronic grade book and student advising. After a brief question and answer session, panelists and audience members broke for lunch with the chairpersons of the new faculty members' departments.

Although the faculty panel's responses underscored many issues that had been brought out earlier in the program, such as encouragement to innovate and being proactive in obtaining information, these admonitions might have carried more weight with new faculty members when coming from colleagues rather than from administrators. Looking around the room, the researcher had the impression that many of the new faculty members found this discussion to be particularly absorbing, and several appeared to be taking notes or planning to initiate follow-up conversations with the panelists (Field Notes, May 2004).

Further Presentations and Wrap-up

The afternoon portion of this day focused on three topics. A panel discussion on the administrator's role in serving the faculty was followed by a presentation on Teaching/Learning Advancement by Head of Public Administration Office, in which she described the goals of the Teaching/Learning Project and introduced the faculty members to the faculty advancement system. The final session of the day was devoted to faculty governance. After a brief wrap-up, the orientation participants completed an evaluation and were released to assume their new responsibilities.

Ongoing Orientation and New Faculty Development

In addition to the orientation, EAU requires new faculty members to attend ongoing orientation sessions throughout the initial term of employment. These sessions are offered at the Teaching/Learning Centers. The purpose of the ongoing orientation sessions is to expose faculty members to important information that cannot be adequately covered in the initial orientation, such as detailed instruction in procedures for advising students or training on computer programs available in the Teaching/Learning Centers. Other functions served by the sessions include exposing newcomers to a supportive group of peers and reminding them of the obligations they are expected to fulfill in their roles as faculty members. One Teaching/Learning Center director described the functions of the ongoing orientation as follows:

> I do what I call the monthly orientation…and I meet with new faculty as a group, and in between meetings, I speak with about half of them. They come to me; they call me; they use me as a resource; they bounce problems off of me about who to go to and how to handle things. I put a lot of effort into working with new faculty members. (Teaching/Learning Center Director, 2004)

Such assistance can be especially critical for new faculty member with little previous teaching experience or whose experience did not include teaching part-time at EAU before being hired for a full-time position.

The Teaching/Learning Centers offer many other helpful services to new faculty members as well. For example, veteran faculty members who have been certified as master teachers offer staff development services to new and continuing faculty members. One such service is a carefully structured classroom observation, by invitation of the new faculty member. The observation takes place in three parts, beginning with a pre-observation meeting between the staff developer and the requesting faculty member to set the ground rules. After the observation has been completed, the faculty member receives only the type of feedback that he or she requested in the pre-observation meeting.

Mentoring

The assignment of a personal mentor to each new faculty member is a vital component of EAU's newcomer socialization process. The mentor is typically a veteran faculty member of the newcomer's school/department whose work is to answer questions, provide a friendly listener, and generally assist the new faculty member during the first year of employment. Generally, the mentor's role is complex and demanding, requiring that the mentor not only share knowledge and information but also establish a friendly helping relationship with the newcomer. A handout on the mentor program lists no fewer than 16 facets of the mentor's role, including:

1. Review course objectives and faculty information on courses

2. Review teaching strategies for specific units

3. Invite new faculty member to sit in on student advising sessions

4. Provide orientation to surroundings

5. Provide helpful strategies that make daily activities go smoothly

6. Help new faculty members anticipate problems

7. Have lunch with the new faculty member

8. Be a comprehensive resource on curriculum planning, presentations, class management, student motivation, and student evaluation

9. Accompany the new faculty member to a faculty senate meeting

10. Schedule a meeting with the new faculty member on a weekly basis

11. Contact faculty in the faculty group to encourage them to invite the new faculty member to sit in on their classes

12. Complete training on classroom observation and be available to sit in on the new faculty member's classes and give feedback to the faculty member

13. Personally introduce the new faculty member to all other faculty members and to key resource/service personnel

14. Provide advice, direction and encouragement

15. Attend reception for new faculty member and introduce the new faculty member to those attending

16. Look for all opportunities to make the new faculty member feel welcome. (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p.1)

Making the mentor's duties both specific and explicit not only clarifies EAU's expectations of those who take on this duty but can also serve to deter faculty members who are unwilling to make such an extensive commitment. Moreover, as a further step toward effective mentor selection, the New Faculty Subcommittee identified the following qualities as desirable in a mentor:

> Willingness to be a mentor; nominated; experience in the university; current knowledge in subject area; personal warmth; empathy; excellence in working with students; good communication; flexible; resourceful; good sense of humor; ability to listen; available. (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p.2)

As the list implies, a mentor at EAU is expected to be much more than simply a source of information.

According to the New Faculty Subcommittee's list, the mentor selection process operates as intended when a prospective mentor first volunteers for duty and then is carefully evaluated and approved by the faculty chair. In addition, the choice of possible mentors is limited in small departments with few faculty members or in departments where veteran faculty members are reluctant to take on additional commitments. Secretary of Student Affair Office acknowledged that there have been inconsistencies in applying the guidelines for mentor selection:

> I would say…it varies from faculty to faculty. There have been some strange mentor assignments. Very often, when you talk to new faculty members as I sometimes do in the second month or third month, and they talk about things that have been really great or things that have not worked out well, often those are connected with the mentors. And sometimes I've heard faculty say, "Boy, it would have been helpful if…," and they listed several things. And I'm saying to myself, "Wow, I wonder what happened in that mentoring relationship, because those are exactly the kinds of things we designed the mentor program to take care of."

> …I know there have been mentors assigned who are second year faculty, which is really not what we intended at all… a person assigned to be a mentor is a second year faculty person as opposed to a veteran. Who knows how that came about? I've pursued some of these. They'll say, "we're a tiny department and there wasn't anybody." So there's a mentor from outside, or whatever. There's often a good explanation. (Director Teaching/Learning Advancement, 2004)

Because the mentor is responsible not only for conveying information but for helping the newcomer to feel accepted and comfortable, proper training is perceived as essential to ensuring effective mentoring. Veteran faculty members who agree to be mentors receive training, usually in two half-day sessions conducted prior to the newcomers' arrival on university (Staff Developer, 2004). The content of these training sessions can vary from faculty member to faculty member, but generally address both a review of university processes for veterans to pass on to newcomers and a discussion of the helping relationship between the mentor and the newcomer. Specific aspects of the mentor-newcomer relationship addressed might include the mentor's position of offering rather than imposing and the importance of discouraging newcomers from putting their mentors on a pedestal.

Confidentiality is emphasized in the training as an extremely important aspect of the mentor's role. An EAU document on mentoring states, "The mentor role is developmental and in no way evaluative" (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p. 2). Sensitivity to the mentor's role of assisting a new faculty member at the most vulnerable time in his or her career with the university is expressed through a prohibition on mentor involvement in formally evaluating the mentored:

> It's vital that it's recognized that this mentor is not in the line. He does not give input on the evaluation of this person, and you are not to ask the mentor to rat on the person. I tell the mentors that; I tell new faculty members that. This is a confidential relationship, just like it would be with a therapist. And I've never had any faculty mentor being leaned on by the chair. (Staff Developer, 2004)

Despite the tacit understanding that mentors should stand outside the formal evaluation process, newcomers themselves can request that their mentors become involved if they perceive that involvement would be to their benefit.

However, in the cases where the newcomer lacks either the interpersonal skills or the good fortune to find an appropriate mentoring relationship with the mentor, the consequences to the newcomer could be quite severe. Although some problems with the mentor program do exist, overall response to the program among the faculty members and administrators appears to be overwhelmingly positive, as indicated by the comments below:

> She (the mentor) opened her filing cabinet and she said, "you can take anything you want," because, at that time, I'd never taught before. And the other person that was new…we could take as much, as many of her handouts as we wanted, and she was always available. She never considered your asking any question or your asking her for time an imposition on her. She was very positive. (VE, 2004)

> Everything that he (the mentor) told me was helpful, because I would ask him questions that I was a little hesitant to just ask out openly because I was acutely aware of the fact that there were procedures. And a lot of the

> procedures were things that people only knew after they had been here a long time. And so…I asked him anything that came into my mind, and felt comfortable about asking him without feeling that I was intimidating myself, you know, by knowing the answer…he was very helpful. (ND, new faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004)
>
> I did have a mentor…it was a wonderful match, because his teaching style is not terribly different from mine. And so, right from the beginning, there was a tremendous collegiality. It [was] just, "how can I help?" instead of, "what can I teach you?" You know? "What can we share?" And we still have that relationship. I think he's a wonderful teacher…and he was very useful. (NE, new faculty member in Education, 2004)

As with other reforms associated with the Teaching/Learning Project, EAU personnel continue to refine aspects of the mentor program based on feedback from faculty chair and participants.

<u>Other Tactics</u>

In addition to EAU's tactics, new faculty members cited a variety of other people or programs within the university that communicated the values, beliefs, and behaviors of the university. Chief among these were faculty peers, faculty chairs, and the Teaching/Learning Center.

A number of the interviewees spoke of their peers on the faculty in glowing terms. In some cases, one or two colleagues had made a particularly strong impression on the faculty member. One mentioned that he had learned valuable things about teaching from several faculty members by "just watching them, and then maybe incorporating the best they have…I've watched whose two individuals, who are so good that I used to hang outside their doors and ask them" (NF, new faculty member in Education 2004). Another spoke warmly of a colleague with whom he had done some team teaching:

> We're talking a lot about what's happening in our class. Sometimes sharing assignments, sometimes it's a discussion of…my class is doing really well , and my class is doing really poorly, and this is what I'm getting from my class…and there's sometimes suggestions back and forth…He's an excellent teacher, and I think we've learned a lot from each other about what works for this kind of…group. (NG, new faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004)

Other interviewees praised the faculty members in general or whole groups of faculty with whom they had worked:

> I respect the people that I work with so very much. We have the most wonderful faculty members here. And they are just great teachers, and wonderful thinkers, and very humane people. And every time a get together with my colleagues, I am inspired. (NA, new faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004)

Although some of the faculty interviewees mentioned colleagues whose behavior they did not respect, all appeared to have found at least some colleagues who had influenced them positively.

Faculty chairs were also cited as important influences by some of the interviewees. Several expressed a high level of respect for their faculty chairs, which contributed to their overall job satisfaction. Predictably, those who felt less satisfied with their faculty chairs did not cite them as influences. Typical of the comments made by faculty members who reported being influenced by their chairs were:

> She (my faculty chair) is excellent. Just excellent in every area. Just totally supportive, encouraging. She's written recommendations for me…and things like that. It took her time to do that, and just the fact that she did that shows me how supportive she is of me. (NH, a new faculty member in Business Administration, 2004)

The faculty member quoted above identified her faculty chair as her primary role model at EAU.

In summary, after socialization tactics, peer or colleagues appeared to have the greatest influence on new faculty members. In some cases, faculty chairs were also very influential, but they were cited as influences by only a handful of the interviewees; other reported taking advantage if their services only occasionally. The Teaching/Learning Centers might have been somewhat underutilized by this group of faculty.

Faculty members were aware of the importance of interaction in their own successful socialization and sought out opportunities for interaction so that they could ease new faculty members' anxiety. The informal socializing activity of hanging out was spontaneous but often intentional interaction to facilitate new faculty members' socialization into the organization. Hanging out was not necessarily linked to particular activities or important conversational topics. However, the organizational members who facilitated such interactions were often seen as role models for appropriate organizational behavior. Additionally, through these interactions, new faculty members were able to build the strong relationships with other faculty members. Therefore, not only those new faculty members socialized into the organization, but organizational life was also demonstrated for them through interaction.

As is clear from what has been shared, EAU employs a variety of methods to communicate desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors to new faculty members. First, a brief review of documents available to new faculty members established that detailed information about the university’s mission, values, beliefs, and expectations is readily available. The section on new faculty selection illustrated how such documents are used both as guidelines for screening new employees and as notice to prospective new faculty about EAU’s expectation.

Other methods through which desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors are communicated directly and indirectly to new faculty were described in greater detail. The section on the orientation for newcomers described the messages delivered through many presentations over a two-day period. Ongoing orientation and new faculty development pick up where the orientation leaves off, offering newcomers’ further opportunities to acquire information vital to effective performance. The mentoring program ensures that each new faculty member will have access to a knowledgeable faculty veteran on an individual basis, while other people or programs within the university provides the effective supports in communicating values, beliefs, and behaviors for newcomers.

The descriptions of the methods listed above each contained an analysis section highlighting details from the data presented that assisted in a deeper understanding of the operation of each part of the socialization process. Finally, the analysis section explained how EAU’s socialization content and tactics fit into the broader theory of organizational socialization.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF SELF-EFICACY OF THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE ROLE OF INNOVATOR AND THE ROLE OF CUSTODIAN WITHIN WORK GROUP

Self-Efficacy among Newcomers

Self-efficacy of new faculty members was assessed using 15 questions, five questions pertaining to each area of general self-efficacy, career specific self-efficacy, and task specific self-efficacy. Questions involved statements to which the new faculty members were to indicate their personal view on a ten point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Several items were reverse scored to avoid response bias. T1 data on self-efficacy involved all 20 new faculty members; T2 self-efficacy data were collected 3 months later and involved these same faculty members. T1 data were compared on each item to T2 data. T-tests were used to test for significant differences.

Table 9: Self-Efficacy of New faculty Members at T1 and T2

| Question Number | T1 Mean (n=20) | T2 Mean (n=20) |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 8.8 | 9.0 |
| 2 | 8.9 | 8.7 |
| 3 | 9.0 | 9.0 |
| 4 | 9.1 | 9.2 |
| 5 | 9.4 | 9.3 |
| 6 | 9.9 | 9.8 |

(continued)

Table 9 (continued): Self-Efficacy of New faculty Members at T1 and T2

| Question Number | T1 Mean (n=20) | T2 Mean (n=20) |
|---|---|---|
| 7 | 9.6 | 9.4 |
| 8 | 9.6 | 9.6 |
| 9 | 8.8 | 8.6 |
| 10 | 9.5 | 9.2 |
| 11 | 9.7 | 9.7 |
| 12 | 9.0 | 9.3 |
| 13 | 9.7 | 9.4 |
| 14 | 5.7 | 9.0* |
| 15 | 9.9 | 9.5 |

* Significant different ($p<0.01$)

There were no significant differences found on 14 of the 15 items. However, on one question pertaining to task specific self-efficacy, there was a significant difference ($p<0.01$) (see Table 10). There are several possible reasons why the scores on question 14 differed between T1 and T2. Respondents indicated on a one to ten scale the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. While other statements dealt with job specific tasks, question 14 taps into the emotional and psychological make-up of respondents, and possibly raised issues that the new faculty members had not previously considered. In some cases, this question likely related to an area which, at T1, was relatively unknown to the respondents. However, at T2, after the new faculty members had gained 3 months of experience, they would have gained confidence and self-efficacy. At T2, the mean was 9, the range was 7-10, the standard deviation was 1, and the variance was 1. This indicates that the level of self-efficacy among the new faculty members rose significantly between T1 and T2, and supports the theory that task specific self-efficacy is developed through experience and mastery of the specific task or situation (Bandura, 1986).

One of the new faculty members shared an experience on the basis of increased level of self-efficacy after he had worked with his faculty group 3 months:

> I like to discuss. I think I have an ability to share my ideas about a specific topic and sometimes realize the way I was thinking was the proper one. I believed my ideas were accepted…it is sometimes one of the things that is hard for some people to do, to accept some ideas from a new faculty member which are different from what you believed for your work. (NH, a new faculty member in Business Administration, 2004)

> My (mentor) believes that interaction with other existing faculty members results in new faculty members learning more about their work as well as potentially increasing [their] ability….Newcomers provide existing members with potential ways to work successfully and ideas with them. I depend on them a lot for their ideas on activities. They know a lot more than I do about activities, give us suggestions, and make sure we're on track. (NC, a new faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004)

In addition, a frequency analysis of the group of 20 at T1 was conducted for each self-efficacy item and on each sub-scale. This analysis revealed that there was little variance among the new faculty members, with all scores extremely high on all self-efficacy sub-scales. In the analysis of the responses given by the new faculty members involved in the groups under study, there were no significant differences between the initial responses given and the responses given three months later, with the exception of the one item previously discussed. In addition to there being no significant differences for the same individuals over T1 and T2, there were also no significant differences between individual organizational members.

Within Group Socialization and GES at T1 and T2

The basic theoretical argument advanced in this study is not that demographic similarity necessarily causes consensus building and group socialization, but rather, that demographic similarity can provide a basis on which common understanding and consensus can be built. As with other constructs under study in this research, the notion of socialization and shared interpretive schemes was studied through the use of both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data took the form of the GES (Moos, 1986), which was used in two different ways. First, there was a nine item sub-scale in the GES which deals with group cohesion. Individual scores within each group were aggregated and analyzed. Group means and coefficients of variation were presented and used as a basis to rank order groups and then classify them as high, medium, or low on socialization and homogeneity of perceived socialization. Second, the scores on the ten sub-scales of the GES were analyzed for within faculty homogeneity of response. The perceptions of each group member with respect to issues such as anger and aggression, leader support, and innovation provided a means by which faculty members viewed these issues in a similar or dissimilar manner. This was taken as an indicator of the extent to which faculty members viewed things similarly and shared interpretive schemes.

Levene’s test of homogeneity (Milliken & Johnson, 1984, p. 19-22) was used to analyze each of the 10 sub-scales, and a rank order measure of homogeneity was computed for each sub-scale. Then, these rankings were subjected to an analysis of concordance in order to look for consistent patterns in the rankings on the different scores. The rankings produced from this analysis were compared with the analysis of the socialization sub-scores, and an overall characterization of the group as high, medium, or low on socialization and homogeneity of perception was established.

Along with the analysis of socialization conducted via the GES, group socialization was also studied through observation and interview notes. Participants were asked during interviews to describe their job and the tasks they perform on a daily basis. Responses were compared on a within group basis in order to look for agreement and similarity versus marked and obvious differences. Following O' Reilly et al. (1989), interview questions were asked pertaining to each respondent's perception of how the group got along and worked together, and the frequency with which faculty members socialized together or engaged in recreational or sports activities together away from work. The responses given to these questions were complied on a group basis.

Observations were also made regarding the types of activities engaged in by the faculty members and the general rapport that faculty members had with one another. In particular, notes were made regarding activities such as preparing and eating meals together, playing sports together, and the general climate and culture which prevailed in the work setting. This assessment was compared with the interview data complied from each faculty group. Through the use of quantitative data, faculty groups were characterized as being high, medium, or low on faculty socialization. This characterization was compared to the observations and interview notes relating to each faculty group. The classification of each faculty group on socialization and homogeneity of perception was later related to demographic data pertaining to faculty distribution in an attempt to find differential patterns in the demographic data which could be used to explain the different levels of socialization.

Although the data on socialization was collected at T1 and T2, the level of socialization of each faculty group at T2 was the primary concern because it was at that time that the new faculty members had spent sometime working within their faculty group. Due to the changes in personnel which took place between T1 and T2, the T1 data were not particularly relevant, and only the T2 data is presented.

Table 10: Within Faculty Socialization at T2

| Faculty | Faculty Mean | Standard Deviation | Faculty Ranking |
|---|---|---|---|
| Communication Arts | 6.2 | 2.438 | Low |
| Education | 8.2 | 1.093 | High |
| Business Administration | 8.4 | 1.014 | High |
| Liberal Arts | 8.0 | 1.195 | Low |

On the basis of faculty mean, Table 10 provides a ranking of socialization at T2. Rankings are based on both the mean level of socialization reported by faculty members and the extent to which members are in agreement. In addition to this analysis of within faculty consistency, the overall rankings of homogeneity on all ten GES sub-scales at T2 were calculated.

Comparison of the qualitative data to the rankings developed through the quantitative data was supportive on all cases with no major discrepancies emerging. There were some interesting patterns and relationships observed regarding the types of activities in which the different faculty groups engaged. Faculty members were asked in interviews whether their activities in the faculty were individual or group activities. Responses to this question were corroborated through observations of the activities engaged in during the time that the researcher spent with each faculty group.

Analysis of the notes regarding the sports activities, the pattern of work, and the pattern of taking meals revealed a relationship in each faculty group that was consistent. In the Faculty of Business Administration and the Faculty of Education, both of which were rated as high in socialization and homogeneity of perception, faculty members played sports or games together and shared meals together when at work. This pattern was consistent for all the faculty groups that were high on socialization and cohesiveness. In the Faculty of Liberal Arts, which was ranked as medium in faculty socialization and homogeneity of perception, there was involvement in sports activities and meals, but this faculty was not rated as high in socialization and homogeneity of perception. Faculty members in the Faculty of Liberal Arts usually ate lunch together but did not eat breakfast together. They also played badminton, but this activity did not involve the entire faculty. In the Faculty of Communication Arts, a group that was low on socialization and homogeneity of perception, there was a lack of faculty activities in the areas of sports, games, and eating meals. Faculty members did not eat meals together, nor did they play sports and games which involved the entire faculty.

Overall, the observations of faculty group involvement in sports and games and in eating meals together support the characterizations of the faculty groups based on the quantitative data. A review of the interview notes also generally supported the ranks as presented. Table 11 provides a visual picture of the relationship between new faculty member's similarity/dissimilarity to his/her work group and the perceived level of faculty socialization/cohesiveness present within the work group.

Table 11: Faculty Socialization/Cohesiveness: New Faculty Members' Perceptions and Veteran Faculty Members' Perceptions

| | | Similar | Dissimilar |
|---|---|---|---|
| Faculty Socialization/ Cohesiveness | High | | - Faculty of Business Administration<br>- Faculty of Education |
| | Medium | | |
| | Low | -Faculty of Communication Arts<br>-Faculty of Liberal Arts | |

On the basis of this classification of the relationship between the new faculty members and the existing faculty members, logically, inertia should have been evident in each of the faculty groups. However, in the Faculty of Business Administration and the Faculty of Education, where the new faculty members were dissimilar to existing faculty, a confrontation appeared imminent since the existing faculty were highly social and cohesive and agreed about the patterns of social interaction within the faculty. Some movement needed to occur on each side if the new faculty members and the existing faculty were to work successfully together and get along. In each of these cases, previous theory suggests that reorientation is likely to occur as the new faculty members and the existing faculty members make adjustments to one another and develop shared understandings and a basis for a relationship.

Faculty (Group) Level Structuration

Inertia and reorientation within each faculty were studied primarily through observation, and through both formal and informal interviews. Informal interviews often took the form of casual questions posed to the faculty members during the work day. Observations and interviews conducted at T1 provided the basis for characterizing the daily work in each faculty, and these characterizations were compared with observations at T2. During the course of the T2 observations, the researcher looked for work patterns identified at T1 and characterized the actions of new faculty members on the basis of the different types of behaviors outlined in figure 2 as previously shown.

On the basis of this classification of the behavior of the new faculty members, the observation of the faculty, and the information gathered through interviews, the influence of each new faculty member was characterized as either promoting inertia or encouraging reorientation. This was done on the basis of comparing the patterns and practices within each faculty at T1 and T2.

As suggested by the analysis of the demographic data, the patterns observed in the Faculty of Business Administration and the Faculty of Education were indicative of reorientation. On the other hand, the patterns observed in the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Faculty of Communication Arts were indicative of inertia.

Each faculty was analyzed through examination of behaviors relating to selected key issues. In addition to the observation of behaviors, values and beliefs relating to these issues were examined in the interviews that were conducted and through questionnaires. The examination of these issues focused on the extent to which the new faculty members reinforced or challenged existing practices and norms. While the issues of concern varied somewhat from one faculty group to the next, consistent comparisons across faculty groups were possible since the focus of concern was on whether prior group practices were being challenged or reinforced. The following is a broad outline of the issues that served as the focus of attention and the types of behaviors observed.

Gender: The opinions of the new faculty members concerning the ability of women to become faculty members or administrators was seen to be closely linked to the members' opinions. The new faculty members were observed in terms of their behaviors and opinions on gender issues. Smoking: The extent to which smoking took place within or in contravention of faculty policies was observed. Health: The behaviors of new faculty members pertaining to health were observed and compared to the patterns and beliefs in each faculty group. Seniority: The acceptance of the seniority system on the part of new faculty members was observed through attention to the extent to which new faculty members accepted or resisted the authority structure. Changes: The extent to which new faculty members would have liked to have done things differently was observed through attention to comments about previous jobs and the discussion of alternative methods of performing job functions or dividing tasks. Meals: Faculty member behavior with respect to eating meals together or separately was observed, including who was in charge of purchasing and preparing the meals. Particular attention was given to the new faculty members' roles in meal time activities, and it was noted if there were any changes from T1 to T2. Sports and Games: The researcher observed what games, sports and recreational activities the faculty members engaged in as a group, and noted whether or not the new faculty members participated, and whether participation patterns changed between the two time periods.

NEWCOMERS' COMMUNICATIVE INTERACTIONS IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

Informal Interaction and "Hanging Out"

Faculty members attempted to create fellowship with new faculty members by holding a variety of events. These events were designed to communicate to new faculty members that it was important and necessary to seek out interaction. Some of these events were designed to create strong bonds of membership.

NA, a veteran faculty member in Communication Arts, noted that, often, veteran faculty members will seek out opportunities to interact with new faculty members in the hopes of reducing any anxiety that the new faculty member might be experiencing. Hanging out together was associated with developing relationships and influencing (or, in some instances, modifying) the behaviors present among faculty members. VA, a new faculty member in Business Administration, described his experience with one such encounter: "we just sat down and talked and, you know, he [a veteran faculty member] was really into wanting to know what I was all about. . . . He was someone I immediately looked up to."

Veteran organizational members sought to contribute to the future successful socialization of the newcomers. Essentially, the veteran faculty members appeared to appreciate the importance of informal interaction helping a new faculty member to adjust to the organization and the work group. They used their assessments to guide their discourse and activities in socializing newcomers so that the newcomers experienced successful outcomes of comfort and competency in their new organization. Both new faculty members and faculty veterans recognized the need to develop relationships with others; therefore, they sought opportunities to simply be around each other and to socialize. A faculty veteran who repeated requests to a new faculty member to get together, communicated a sense of welcoming, a need to get involved in university and faculty activities. Some veteran faculty members expressed recognition of the fact that new faculty members occasionally need encouragement to build connections. The veteran faculty members used informal interactions as opportunities to encourage that connection building:

> So we went and got lunch and came back to the university. Which now I know why…we always ask new faculty members to come to the canteen and I never did, so she brought me back and sat me down in front of the canteen while everyone was eating lunch…So we just had conversations. (NB, a new faculty member in Education, 2004)

Through encouraging informal time together, faculty veterans hoped to demonstrate that "you get out of it [professional relationships and work] what you put into it" (VB, a veteran faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004):

> I like to… invite new faculty members to join me in actives where we are actually doing something. I like to get them involved as much as possible, so they can see…how we function like that. We're always asking them to come around and eat meals with us…because I think the more that you're around us, the better you'll get to know the colleagues, "You get out of it what you put into it." It's so true though. Like, if you're not around that much, you're not gonna be able to know the colleagues…So I just…try to get them to come to join with us as much as possible.

New faculty members wanted existing members to help them feel more comfortable, and wanted to hang out more. Hanging out allowed new faculty members to get to know each other, and helped them to feel more connected to the organization. Through building relationships, veteran faculty members actively taught new faculty members the value of interaction and its necessary role in the reproduction of the organizational system.

VC, a veteran in Business Administration, explained that informal time spent together was typically associated with an activity (such as going to dinner, lunch, a party, and so on). The conversational topics or activities that constituted time spent hanging out were often not specifically recalled by participants. Other times, conversations that began over small issues (such as classes) turned into more meaningful interactions as individuals found they had much in common (NC, a new faculty member in Liberal Arts, 2004).

In order to spend time together, faculty members must be available for interaction and to share experiences; therefore, socializing was facilitated by the presence of the faculty as it provided increased opportunities for interaction and involvement for work group members (VD, a veteran faculty member in Communication Arts, 2004). As such, socializing provided opportunities for interaction that resulted in close friendships.

Relationship between Newcomers and Structuration Patterns

Theory suggests that similarity between a new faculty member and existing faculty members will increase the chances that the new faculty member and the other faculty members will share similar interpretative schemes. As such, inertia (i.e., support for pre-existing group behaviors or patterns) should ensue. By contrast, when a new faculty member is dissimilar to other faculty members, there should be less consistency in beliefs and, thus, a greater likelihood of reorientation (i.e., challenges of pre-existing group behaviors or patterns). In order examine these possible relationships within the current research, each faculty group was independently classified as exhibiting inertia or reorientation, and faculty groups were categorized on the basis of this analysis. Then, the patterns of similarities and differences were investigated within those categories.

In examining the relationship of the new faculty members with the patterns and practices of their particular faculty group, the characteristics and behavior patterns which the new faculty members and the other faculty members exhibited were compared between the faculty groups that exhibited inertia and those that exhibited reorientation at T2.

Table 12: Comparison of Faculties that Presented Inertia and Faculties that Presented Reorientation on the Basis of the Manner in which New Faculty Members Dealt with Issues at T2

| Issue | Inertia (Faculty of Communication Arts, Faculty of Liberal Arts) | Reorientation (Faculty of Education, Faculty of Business Administration) |
|---|---|---|
| Smoking | Faculty members basically ignored the rules and the non-smoking new faculty members went along and did not object. | These faculty groups adhered to policies and directives. |
| Gender | No systematic differences were observed between faculty groups in the two different categories. | No systematic differences were observed between faculty groups in the two different categories. |

(continued)

Table 12 (continued): Comparison of Faculties that Presented Inertia and Faculties that Presented Reorientation on the Basis of the Manner in which New Faculty Members Dealt with Issues at T2

| Issue | Inertia (Faculty of Communication Arts, Faculty of Liberal Arts) | Reorientation (Faculty of Education, Faculty of Business Administration) |
|---|---|---|
| Health | New faculty members basically adhered to previous patterns and did not encourage any changes. | New faculty members actively encouraged faculty members to participate in exercise activities that faculty members had already established. |
| Seniority | New faculty members accepted roles as presented and acted in a custodial manner in many of the works they were assigned. | New faculty members resisted many of the traditional roles and behaved in a manner that exhibited both process and role innovation. |
| Changes | Current issues were discussed in both faculty groups; there were no observable differences on the basis of this category. | Current issues were discussed in both faculty groups; there were no observable differences on the basis of this category. |
| Meals | New faculty members assumed custodial roles and went along with the patterns that prevailed. | Faculty members ate meals as a group. |
| Sports & Games | New faculty members assumed a custodial role and did not provide any stimulus to other faculty members. | Faculty members actively participated and encouraged others to do so as well. |

A distinct pattern can be seen in the above results with respect to five issues (smoking, health, seniority, meals, and sports and games) that differentiate these two categories of faculty groups. The issues where there were no observable differences between the faculty groups were gender and changes. For each of these latter two issues, the similarity among faculty groups in each category can be explained by the fact that the behavioral patterns associated with the issues had become accepted as standard aspects of daily work. The issues of greatest importance in distinguishing between the faculty groups that experienced inertia and those that experienced reorientation were the issues that were central to the daily work of the faculty members.

Smoking

Smoking was an issue which affected members on both sides of the issue. Faculty members in each faculty are expected to take personal responsibility for following this policy. EAU has adopted a policy on smoking which is designed to secure a healthy environment for faculty members, staffs, and students. Cigarette smoking is leading cause of cancer, death and disability. Medical evidence indicated that exposure to second-hand smoke can be hazardous to health. However, reactions to EAU's policy and arguments concerning cancer met diverse reactions both from smokers and non-smoker in the faculty groups that experienced inertia versus the groups that experienced reorientation.

For many smokers, the introduction of a ban on smoking presented an imposition which required a major change in their daily work. There were two ways to manage the conflict between the rules and their desires: ignore the rule and maintain their habits, or obey the rule and change their habits. In the faculty groups that exhibited inertia, there was a tendency for the former to occur. In these faculty groups, the smokers continued to use a designated area which was agreed to by the non-smokers. Through the interviews, it was discovered that many thought that they would get along better as a group if there was a designated area. This reflected a pattern of managing the conflict and finding a compromise solution. On the other hand, in faculty groups that experienced reorientation, there was a much higher incidence of strict adherence to the rules. In these faculty groups, there appeared to be a greater value placed on adherence to rules and less value placed on any inconvenience caused to the smokers. There was more of a confrontation style of dealing with conflict, and this change resulted in the patterns of interaction being altered between T1 and T2.

> I get the feeling in the back of my mind that I will die of lung cancer in the end. I have this fear of cancer which overrides everything else…they showed someone's lungs and all that tar and nicotine and all that stuff building up inside, it frightens the life out of you. (VB, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

> I've never known any smoker who has died of cancer but my grandmother never smoked and died riddled with cancer. My father smoked about fifty a day and he died at 80, not of lung cancer. A lot of people say if you are going to die, you are going to die. (NC, a new faculty member in Faculty of Liberal Arts, 2004)

The interview with faculty members in faculty groups that experienced inertia also revealed that, whether or not they had a smoking policy or understood where they could or could not smoke, they did not always follow the policy in practice. They were still smokers and smoked in the non-smoking area. In my field notes, I observed that, if some faculty members are smoking in non-smoking area, the best initial approach in this kind of situation was a direct, courteous reminder to that person, and a request to refrain from smoking. A faculty group request is often more effective than a request from an individual. In addition, the volume smoked in these faculty groups tends to increase because it was thought polite to give as many cigarettes as one took. "The social things, I don't know what to do with my hands" (NC, a new faculty member in Faculty of Liberal Arts, 2004). "It's a relief. It makes you feel better altogether" (VB, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

The university intends to arrange some support for smokers who need assistance in giving up smoking. "It is important to realize that cutting down on smoking can be extremely difficult. We will all be working with them who are attempting to curb their smoking during work hours" (NA, a new faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004). "Give them support! Those who wish to stop smoking may need to try several times…quitting smoking is not a single event, it's a process" (NI, a new faculty member in Faculty of Education, 2004).

The interviews with and observations of faculty members in faculty groups that experienced reorientation suggested that many smokers had reduced the number of cigarettes smoked each day. The reason is the influence of publicity. The publicity campaign tended to concentrate on health anxieties and made faculty members who were smokers aware of the social unacceptability of smoking. Some faculty members had given up smoking after exposure to university's programs, although, within a very short time, they had returned. "I love this program. There's that one with the pregnant woman when it say 'if you value your health, don't smoke'" (NJ, a new faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004). "It is actually dangerous for me to sit in a pub with lots of smoke" (VD, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004).

Health, sports, and games

The differences observed with respect to the issues of health, sports, and games reflected an element of the patterns observed at T1. The faculty groups that were observed to be passive at T1 maintained that behavior at T2, and seemed to influence the new faculty members to behave in a similar manner. Although some new faculty members in those faculty groups took the initiative to work out, this was done on an individual basis and the new faculty members did not try to motivate or involve others. One new faculty member shared what he learned:

> One of my big problems with exercise is I'm lazy to work out. My colleagues in faculty probably don't want to do that. So they were not enthusiastic about a healthy group…I think the idea is just to get them excited about it to begin with, before they make other commitments. (VN, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Education, 2004)

Observations at T1 and T2 revealed a low attendance among faculty members at faculty sports-related activities. Although the faculty groups offered faculty members opportunities for exercising and playing sports, participation was low because of the other demands on their time. On faculty member shared that, although her colleagues in her faculty group had an opportunity to participate in an aerobic dance, they did not go. She indicated that her colleagues were too busy with course-related projects.

Other faculty members had the same kind of experience with activities in this faculty group. "We're still trying to find a way…to make everyone interested in exercising and having fun together. But I don't know what to do" (VC, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Business Administration, 2004). By not participating in these activities, faculty members had little opportunities to observe the benefit of these events and adopt this kind of behavior enacted by their colleagues and their peers.

Conversely, the researcher observed the attempts of the new faculty members to influence veteran faculty members in the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation. Those observations revealed that the new faculty members consistently tried to involve other faculty members in exercise and sports activities. In the faculty groups that were observed to experience reorientation, there were generally high levels of activity at T1 which continued at T2. In several of these cases of interest, the new faculty members initiated many of the activities. One new faculty member indicated that attendance at faculty activities was best when all faculty members can join:

> I found with my group, I had the best participation when they establish the activity. I had two enjoyable activities this month…It was about more than half the faculty members that showed up". (VG, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

Seniority

With respect to the issue of seniority, there were marked differences between the faculty groups that exhibited inertia and those that exhibited reorientation. In the faculty groups that exhibited inertia, the roles and duties assigned to the new faculty members by other faculty members were accepted as presented and performed in a custodial manner.

> Coming here as a junior faculty member, there were two people who helped me negotiate with the dean. They would tell me what to ask for and then they helped me get settled in. I depended on their trust and honesty, so I don't mind for seniority system in my work. (VB, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

> I think it has taken me about one month to figure out that it is okay to have a seniority system in my faculty, which I don't need to work by without the

> order. Whereas before I was just avoiding doing that, now I felt like I was supposed to be doing it all the time… I don't feel guilty about it…I think that part of faculty member right now and being really involved that system, and it does become part of my overall work life. (VA, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Business Administration, 2004)

> It was not a whole lot of difference for me, the way I had been working before. I think that things might get different but responsibility just shifts and changes a little bit…I still have a seniority life. I mean, I will never not make change for this work system. (NA, a new faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

In the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation, there was much more confrontation and resistance, and in the situations where roles were accepted, they were often performed in an innovative manner.

> I think I went in a severe state of depression concerning the seniority system. I was so depressed I couldn't stand it. I was so exhausted from trying to eliminate the seniority system in our faculty…I feel burned out if I confront with this system. I just felt like I was not functioning in the faculty. (VI, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Business Administraion, 2004)

> I think the teaching—I am more comfortable with it. While I work with the dean, some of the stress that I felt in that first month, I no longer stand it. I mean seniority system. I think I have managed and I am doing quite well more than the dean did so I should be promoted this year…Even though there is still a time constraint, I don't feel that there is someone else dictating my time. I

feel just completely overwhelmed. (VC, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Business Administration, 2004)

The differences in these patterns of behavior on the part of the new faculty members can be attributed to situational factors. Four of the new faculty members who resisted the seniority structure were noted to be different from the faculty members in their group in terms of demographic characteristics. Two of these four (in the Faculty of Education) were relatively outspoken in their resistance to the seniority system, while the other two (in the Faculty of Business Administration) were quieter in their manner of resistance.

The new faculty members who encouraged inertia were similar to many faculty members. All of the new faculty members scored high on self-efficacy, so it was difficult to differentiate factors on the basis of that construct. The dissimilarities among the new faculty members who encouraged reorientation were considered on the basis of observation since the quantitative data on self-efficacy did not reveal any differences. No consistent patterns or characteristics were found among these new faculty members.

One factor that seemingly influenced resistance to the seniority system by the new faculty members was a perception that a certain amount of resistance would not result in rejection from the faculty. All of the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation were rated as high on faculty socialization and cohesiveness, suggesting that the new faculty members might have felt secure enough about their relationships that they were able to speak out regarding how they really felt about issues related to seniority. It might have been the case that new faculty members who did not actively resist the seniority system felt similar to those who did resist, but lacked a well developed relationship with their respective faculty groups. However, it is important to bear in mind that the new faculty members who encouraged reorientation did so in different ways. As such, consistent behavior patterns among the new faculty members who encouraged reorientation were not observed.

Meals

The issue of meals was another issue where there were differences between faculty groups that exhibited inertia and those that exhibited reorientation at T2. In all of the faculty groups that experienced inertia, the new faculty members went along with the previous patterns at T1 as they pertained to meals. In the faculty groups that experienced inertia, meals were eaten individually, and the new faculty members took no initiative to change that situation. One faculty member shared that:

> I don't want to hang out with other colleagues. I think that's not really important to have meal together because doing work is our faculty goal. I see other people doing it; I can do it. I think that's not one of the biggest parts of my work life. (VD, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Communication Arts, 2004)

Through this kind of activity, faculty members clearly indicated that they saw this kind of activity as unimportant to the accomplishment of faculty objectives.

In the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation, the new faculty members made changes in the meal patterns and the traditions of the faculty group. In the Faculty of Education, the new faculty members were asked to order meals and said they did not know how, nor did they want to learn. In the Faculty of Business Administration, the new faculty members accepted the role of buying the food and preparing the meals.

> As far as my faculty is concerned, it might be a success because we are united. We always have breakfast and lunch together. As far as I'm concerned, it's a success because we can share something while we had meals. Our faculty develops well. (VQ, a veteran faculty member in Faculty of Business Administration, 2004)

While the influence of the new faculty members might be seen as different in the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation, the key factor is that the new faculty members' actions led to fundamental changes in the patterns of interaction within the faculty group. Meal preparation and consumption was a central element of the daily work, and many of the other activities, such as sports and games, revolved around meal times. It is also interesting that, in all of the faculty groups that exhibited reorientation, regular faculty meals were a part of the faculty routines, while the faculty groups that exhibited inertia had few or no group meals as a part of their routines. As previously noted, the faculty groups that scored high on socialization and cohesiveness (the Faculty of Business Administration and the Faculty of Education) were the faculty groups that engaged in sports and games together and ate meals together. The fact that these two faculty groups were also observed to exhibit reorientation between T1 and T2 warrants some discussion.

Summary

This study has sought to explore employ structuration theory in an exploration of whether new faculty members who are similar to or different from existing work group members contribute to inertia and reorientation within their work group. The major objective of this study was also to examine relationship between the level of self-efficacy and the role of innovator versus that of custodian within a work group.

An overall main goal was to explore selected demographic features and level of self-efficacy of new faculty members.

With respect to demographic characteristics, the new faculty members who joined the Faculty of Communication Arts and the Faculty of Liberal Arts were identified as being more similar to existing faculty members than were the new faculty members who joined either the Faculty of Education or the Faculty of Business Administration. The findings showed that the new faculty members in the Faculty of Communication Arts and the Faculty of Liberal Arts contributed to inertia, while the new faculty members of the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Business Administration contributed to reorientation.

A finding of particular interest is that faculty members within faculty groups that experienced reorientation were all highly social and cohesive. Although the characteristics, values, and behaviors reported by new faculty members in each faculty group varied considerably, their responses in general suggested that they were high on self-efficacy. A brief review of documents available to new faculty members established that detailed information about the university's mission, values, beliefs, and expectations is readily available. The section on new faculty selection illustrated how such documents are used both as guidelines for screening new employees and as notice to prospective new faculty about EAU's expectation. The section on the orientation for newcomers described the messages delivered through many presentations over a two-day period.

Chapter Five continues with the conclusions to be drawn from this research, a discussion of the study findings, and recommendations for further study.

# CHAPTER FIVE:
# CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of this study have important implications on both a theoretical and a practical level. From a theoretical point of view, the results of this study have implications relating to the two major theoretical areas that were central to this study: socialization and structuration. This study dealt with different levels of analysis and used both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques. Additionally, the study has practical implications both for the organization that was under study and for other organizations that are experiencing, or might in the future experience, changes of a nature similar to those of the organization that was the subject of this research.

In order to examine these implications in an orderly fashion, this chapter is divided into sections on the basis of different themes. First, a brief recapitulation of study findings relevant to each of the five research findings is presented. Second, theoretical implications are drawn from the concepts of socialization and structuration. Third, practical organizational issues are considered at the group level of analysis. Fourth, the newcomer socialization process is discussed from both the perspective of the organization and from the perspective of faculty participants in the process. Finally, the issue of generalization is considered as the implications of these conclusions for other organizations are discussed. The chapter closes with recommendations for further research.

Conclusions

Five research questions were posed in this study. Findings relevant to each of the questions were discussed. Brief conclusions of the answers to each of the questions are presented below.

Question 1: What is the relationship, if any, between newcomer similarity/dissimilarity to existing work group members and the structuration processes of inertia versus reorientation?

Adopting an interaction perspective on organizational socialization proved to be an insightful approach, highlighting the influence that newcomers can have on the patterns and practices within existing work groups. Structuration theory (Gidden, 1984), which was used as the theoretical foundation for the study, oriented the investigation to the manner by which group level activities were influenced by individual members. Through an analysis of the patterns of behaviors in the four different faculty groups, two dominant frames of meaning or interpretive schemes were observed. One pattern was labeled the "traditional pattern" and revolved around the concept of seniority as a central organizing principle. The second pattern was the "rational pattern" and revolved around the concept of knowledge based expertise.

The faculty members themselves were well aware of the extent to which characteristics of new faculty members, in particular their demographic characteristics, affected their faculty group, and the power that could be gained through the control of resources. The similarity or dissimilarity of new faculty members when compared with the veteran faculty members of their work group was reflected in the structuration patterns of inertia and reorientation. The demographic characteristics of the new faculty members in the Faculty of Communication Arts and the Faculty of Liberal Arts were similar to the veteran faculty members of these units, and apparently resulted in the emergence of the process of inertia. Conversely, the demographic characteristics of the new faculty members in the Faculty of Education and the Faculty of Business Administration were dissimilar from the veteran faculty members of these units, and apparently resulted in the emergence of the process of reorientation. In addition, the faculty groups that experienced inertia were low on socialization and cohesiveness. On the other hand, the faculty groups that experienced reorientation were high on socialization and on cohesiveness.

Changes which occurred in the organization were seen as reflecting a movement away from traditional concepts such as seniority and towards a more rational based interpretive scheme. Each faculty group is analyzed through the discussion of behaviors relating to a set of issues currently relevant at EAU. The broad outline of the types of behaviors examined was smoking, gender, health, seniority, changes, meals, and sports and games. The patterns and practices that appeared to distinguish units that were experiencing reorientation from units that were experiencing inertia were smoking, health, seniority, meals, and sports, games, and hanging out. It was suggested that the changes observed are likely to continue and that, over time, the organization will move towards a more fully developed bureaucratic archetype.

Question 2: What is the relationship, if any, between newcomer self-efficacy and the tendency to adopt an innovator role versus a custodial role within a work group?

As mentioned in Chapter Two, Jones (1983) predicted that self-efficacy moderates the learning process and found that socialization tactics produced a stronger custodial role orientation when the newcomer possessed low self-efficacy, and produced an innovator role when the newcomer possessed high self-efficacy. These findings served as a foundation for research question two. Unfortunately (at least for the purposes of this research), the new faculty members who participated in this research all scored extremely high on all three areas of self-efficacy. Research question two called for a comparison of high self-efficacy new faculty members with low self-efficacy faculty members. Since all of the new faculty members who participated in this research were high on self-efficacy, it was not possible to engage in a robust examination of this research question.

Question 3: What aspects of communicative interaction do newcomers attribute to their socialization?

This study was designed to explore the importance of interaction. Faculty members were aware of the importance of interaction in their own successful socialization and sought out opportunities for interaction so that they could assist the next generation of newcomers by sharing their experiences and easing newcomer anxiety. Informants discussed the importance of interaction (such as spending time socializing with each other) for their successful transition to faculty membership. A number of the university's formal socializing activities were designed to communicate the importance of interaction in socialization. However, it can be seen that socializing activities in each faculty were usually informal but often involved intentional efforts to encourage interaction so as to facilitate newcomer socialization into the organization. The informal interactive process resulted in new faculty members learning about and building relationships both with other new faculty members and with veteran faculty members. Although the conversations that took place while socializing often concerned relatively general issues (such as hobbies and sports), new faculty members discovered commonalties between themselves and others and learned about organizational life. Activities (such as having lunch, playing badminton) were associated with “hanging out”, which often took place outside of formal faculty or university activities. Many existing members encouraged newcomers to join in these “non-professional” activities, and the activities provided an opportunity for new faculty members and existing faculty members to get to know each other.

The veteran faculty members who facilitated interactions were often seen as role models for appropriate organizational behavior. Additionally, through these interactions, newcomers were able to build strong relational connections with these role models, other senior faculty members, and other new faculty members. Not only were new faculty members socialized into the relational system of the organization, but organizational life was also demonstrated for them through interaction. The meeting room for the faculty members was a necessary component for informal interaction. Informants recognized the importance of having a meeting room or place for spontaneous informal interactions to occur and relational connections to be built. Successful encounters encouraged new faculty members to continue such interactions in the future. Whether these interactions were fortuitous or planned, the result was that members learned about each other, providing a foundation for building relationships and future interactions.

Data supported previous research that revealed that interactions facilitated newcomers’ feelings of comfort and competency (Louis et al., 1983) and assisted in personal development and a decrease in anxiety. Informally spending time together provided new faculty members with an opportunity to get to know both EAU and other faculty members better. Moreover, it provided new faculty members with an opportunity to engage in member life. This informal interaction might have been influential to newcomers' successful transition because the differences in power and status were diminished in these interactions. Therefore, this finding could then more closely reveal the ways in which existing organizational members and new faculty members are mutually influenced via communicative interaction in the organizational socialization process.

Question 4: What are desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors that veterans communicated to newcomers at Eastern Asia University during the socialization process?

Within the individual interviews that were conducted, most of the new faculty members reported moderate to high job satisfaction, and all made statements that demonstrated concern for their students as individuals. Faculty beliefs were also explored within these interviews. This included beliefs about the nature of teaching, effective teaching strategies, and the general value and relevance of the faculty member's academic discipline. Regarding the nature of teaching, about half of the interviewees indicated that they believe that teaching ability is an innate gift; the others reported thinking of teaching as a skill to be learned or a marriage between skill and talent. Interviewees' comments about teaching strategies described styles ranging from the highly innovative and creative to more static styles focusing on lecture and discussion. Finally, in relation to academic disciplines, all of the interviewees appeared to be enthusiastic and to believe strongly in the intrinsic value of their respective fields.

The new faculty members' behaviors were examined in addition to their values and beliefs. These behaviors were selected from three categories in EAU's Statement of Faculty Excellence: Motivation, Interpersonal Skills, and Knowledge Base. Behaviors were noted during classroom observations as well as being self-reported during the interviews that were conducted. For the behaviors of setting challenging goals for students, some of the interviewees reported goals that struck the researcher as clearly challenging, while other reported goals that appeared more modest in nature. Nevertheless, all of the interviewees discussed positive approaches of some sort.

Interview and observational data alike revealed more variation in relation to some values, beliefs, and behaviors than in relation to other values, etc. This could indicate that some new faculty member characteristics are more critical in attaining full organizational membership than are others.

Question 5: How do veterans communicate desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors to newcomers during socialization process?

As was shown in chapter four, clearly EAU uses a wide range of socialization tactics to communicate values, beliefs, and behaviors to new faculty members. Socialization begins with the faculty selection process. Because the hiring of faculty is an interactive activity involving group decision making, it will never be a scientific process. Although attempts have been made to bring the new faculty member selection and hiring process in line with the overall goals of the Teaching/Learning Project, hiring probably continues to be one of the weaker links in the chain. For each new faculty member opening, the outcome will depend, at least in part, on the training, perceptions, and agenda(s) of the screening committee members. Because not all faculty members at EAU have equal levels of commitment to either the Teaching/Learning Project or the hiring goals stated above, the degree to which new hires reflect EAU's Teaching/Learning Values will continue to be uneven. Nevertheless, the use of key values documents for recruitment and interviewing probably helps to screen out candidates whose personal philosophy is at odds with EAU's philosophy.

New faculty members are exposed to an array of documents, processes, and programs designed to deliver messages about the core values of the organization and EAU's expectations for its faculty members. Although faculty handbooks and other documents are routine features at most universities, EAU's versions bear hallmarks of institutional consistency that resulted from the Teaching/Learning Project. The researcher was struck by the place of importance accorded to EAU's Teaching/Learning Values and Goals catalog, the Factbook, and other official publications (Field Notes, August 2003). Many Thai universities have adopted mission statements; few have taken the trouble to spell out so clearly how their activities contribute to the accomplishment of the mission.

The official publications appear to overlook no opportunity to drive home the point that faculty are expected to serve students and seek ways to accommodate students who are making a sincere effort to learn. The intended message appears to be that the instructional approach at EAU does not place the entire responsibility for learning on the students (as in, "I'm here to teach a course; it's their fault if they can't learn it") but, rather, views faculty members as active partners in helping students learn. A number of passages in the Faculty Handbook help to underscore that message. For example, the Handbook lists requirements for the annual performance review that include completion of a self-assessment in which each faculty member answers a number of questions, including “How do I motivate students or others whom I serve?”, “How do I create a climate conducive to learning?,” and “How do I meet or support the individual learning needs of my students?” (Eastern Asia University, 2003, p. F-13). There is symmetry in the way key documents, such as the Teaching/Learning Values document and the Statement of Faculty Excellence, are used as a base from which to design programs and processes at the university.

Once new faculty members are hired, they are expected to attend a week-long orientation program at which messages about the importance of being student-centered are repeatedly emphasized. In contrast with university orientation programs that last a mere two hours or half a day, the sheer length of EAU’s new faculty orientation program appears to make a statement that emphasizes faculty professionalism at EAU. The fact that new faculty members are paid by special contract for five days of attendance demonstrates that EAU is willing to devote substantial resources to helping newcomers begin their careers in the best possible way. Of course, newcomers were not always treated in this way; the lengthy orientation was one of the fruits of the Teaching/Learning Project. The informational benefits to be gained from attending the orientation serve as a rationale for this program. New faculty members who miss the orientation run the risk of not having or being aware of at least some information about EAU activities and services. Other themes emphasized at the orientation were the importance of keeping current not only in one’s field but in Teaching/Learning theory and practice, the positive value placed on risk-taking behavior at the university, and the importance of cooperation. After two days of constant reinforcement, it would be difficult for a newcomer not to walk out of the orientation feeling he or she was, indeed, a very special person entrusted with the responsibility of working in a very special place.

In addition, new faculty members are expected to attend ongoing orientation meetings throughout the first semester of the academic year. Unlike new faculty members at universities with few established systems for organizational socialization, new faculty members at EAU have a wide range of resources from which to seek job-related information. Ongoing orientation provides not only regular reinforcement of the lessons covered during the initial orientation but training in additional job-related functions. Ongoing orientation and new faculty development pick up where the orientation leaves off, offering newcomers' further opportunities to acquire information vital to effective performance. Thus, new faculty members simultaneously undergo both formal and informal socialization processes; they learn on the job, where they can seek the advice of veteran faculty or their department chairs, but they also learn specific lessons together in a preset format. If they are having difficulty getting their questions answered informally or through the orientation sessions, they can turn to the Teaching/Learning Center or to their faculty mentor. The availability of many options for job-related learning should increase the likelihood that new faculty members will be very well versed in the intricacies of their jobs by the newcomer socialization process.

Each new faculty member is assigned a mentor who provides individualized guidance to new faculty member. The mentoring program ensures that each new faculty member will have access to a knowledgeable faculty veteran on an individual basis, while other people or programs within the university provide effective support in communicating values, beliefs, and behaviors for new faculty members. Because success depends so heavily on interpersonal chemistry, the mentor program has the potential of producing both the most spectacular successes and the most stunning disappointments of any of EAU's new faculty socialization processes from the point of view of the new faculty members. However, when the mentoring program works as intended, the program represents EAU's attempt to ensure that new faculty members receive at least some wealth information that formal socialization processes, such as the orientation program, cannot possibly provide. Moreover, the program is clearly designed to assist new faculty members with the affective dimension of adjustment to a new workplace by supplying a potential friend and confidant to each new faculty member.

New faculty members are provided with a variety of other people or programs within the university that communicate the values, beliefs, and behaviors of the university. All of the interviewees reported having positive and professionally stimulating interactions with at least some of their peers within their faculty group.

In addition to what this study has shown about the content of EAU's message to new faculty members about desirable values, beliefs, and behaviors and the multiple methods through which these messages are communicated, the findings reported demonstrate where the institution is situated in relation to general theories of organizational socialization. Because this study examined the inputs rather than the outcomes of the socialization process, it best illustrates EAU's position in terms of the content of and tactics used to socialize new faculty members.

In terms of content, the range of socialization processes used at EAU reflect all three of Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) organizational learning elements: 1) content and knowledge, or the range of solutions to problems encountered on the job,

2) strategic base, or ground rules for choosing particular solutions, and 3) explicit and implicit mission, purpose, or mandate, which is grounded in the overall mission of the organization (p. 227). The first of these, content and knowledge base, is covered during orientation, where new faculty members are exposed to a wealth of information about the university, its students, and the challenges of teaching in such as environment. The second element, strategic base, is often the province of the mentors, faculty chairs, and Teaching/Learning Center staff who expose new faculty members to the range of services and options available to them and coach them on what is or is not acceptable in their dealings with students and colleagues. Finally, the explicit and implicit mission, purpose, and mandate of EAU are established through official publications, direct messages at orientation sessions.

Fisher's (1986) scheme of learning progression in socialization content is reflected in EAU's socialization processes. During the preliminary learning period, new faculty members at EAU discover that they must make adjustments in order to survive in the university, identify what they need to know to become effective faculty members, and choose the sources on which they can rely for necessary information--perhaps their assigned mentors and faculty chairs, or perhaps faculty colleagues and others. Then new faculty members spend their first year engaged in Fisher's four areas of learning. They learn about the organization--its values, goals, and culture--through institutional documents, formal socialization process such as orientation, and daily insights attained through personal communication with veterans on the work. With varying degrees of success, they learn how to function in the work group gradually through working with colleagues and their faculty chair. Learning to do the job has frequently been at least partially accomplished before being hired at EAU, but many specifics about the university's expectations for faculty members must be learned by all newcomers regardless of the extent of their previous teaching experience. Finally, some degree of personal learning must be involved as newcomers experience shifts in personal identity and motivation structure which ultimately contributes to their degree of commitment to staying at EAU.

In order to deliver the content of socialization described by these two theories, EAU has resorted to an impressive array of tactics that, in some cases, cover both ends of the available spectrum. According to Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) classic model, EAU's socialization period incorporates both collective (orientation) and individual (mentoring and job training) socialization tactics. In addition, EAU's processes include both formal training in which newcomers are singled out for special treatment (orientation, mentoring) and informal training during which newcomers mix freely with veteran colleagues through the work of their faculty group.

With regard to Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) other four dimensions, it is likewise difficult to classify EAU's socialization process clearly in one camp or the other. The process is sequential rather than random in the sense that new faculty members must complete a series of processes before applying for full organizational acceptance through a continuing contract; however, no firm sequence of processes is followed.

Theoretical Implications

One of the primary objectives for this research was to challenge the traditional view of socialization through the development of the notion of an interactive perspective on socialization. It was noted that, in much of the previous literature, there is a tendency to take the existence of an organization as given, and to focus on the manner via which newcomers come to be functional members of that existing organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In proposing the notion of an interactive perspective on socialization, the concept developed in this research relates to organizational practices which shape the behaviors of newcomers; newcomers can also influence organizational patterns and practices. The assumption underlying this concept was that organizations consist of members and social relationships, and that the introduction of a new member into a network of social relationships has the potential to alter existing patterns of interaction.

As was pointed out in chapter two, the traditional view of socialization has been relatively one sided, adopting the view that organizational socialization involves molding the employee into a pre-determined organizational role. In reality, the socialization process is much more reciprocal and interactive than this traditional conceptualization. While the view adopted within this research might also be seen as one sided in some respects, the focus on the role played by the newcomer was thought appropriate as a means of supplementing and balancing the biases of previous research.

The findings in this research lend support to a description of socialization as a process that involves both inertia and reorientation as both were observed at the group level of analysis. Further, it was observed that, at the organizational level, the values and beliefs of newcomers were supportive of a new interpretive scheme that was central to the many changes occurring in the organization. Simply put, both inertia and reorientation were found at the group level, and the newcomers were observed to contribute to each of these patterns in different group settings. Clearly, socialization is a reciprocal process, and it is this reality that is worth further theoretical elaboration and empirical investigation.

An emphasis on the reciprocal effect that newcomers have on an organization encourages a more dynamic view of organizations than is often found in the literature. In developing this approach, organizations are treated as dynamic social networks and relationships rather than rigid static structures. Considering the influence of newcomers on the organization contributes to a dynamic outlook and assists in capturing some of the emergent aspects of organizational life.

Examining the concept of socialization as an interactive process was greatly facilitated through the use of structuration theory. Through structuration theory, organizations were conceptualized as systems of interaction, and their social nature was highlighted and emphasized. In particular, at the group level of analysis, structuration theory assisted in making sense of activities that occurred recursively, and in comprehending the potential for change.

Particular to other empirical research based on the theory of structuration (Burman, 1988), the concept of structuration was used as a research lens that oriented the research and focused it upon the manner through which individual actors drew upon stocks of knowledge in patterning their behaviors (Giddens, 1991). Consistent with structuration theory, it was noted that, as actors drew upon stocks of knowledge to create patterns of behaviors, they created the patterns that knowledge or past behavior was based upon. The concept of "frames of meaning" (Spybey, 1983) proved to be a useful tool to describe patterns of interpretive schemes, and the rules, resources, and norms that supported those schemes.

The major contribution of structuration theory is to make the connection between individual action and group and organizational level patterns, and to facilitate the comprehension of organizational structure as emergent patterns of behaviors rather than rigid templates for behaviors. As many writers have recognized, structuration theory provides many of the answers and explanations that organization theorists have long been searching for to connect individual action to the structural level (Ranson et al., 1980).

Implications

The major implication arising out of this research pertaining to the group level of analysis relates to the interactive nature of socialization. When faculty members were asked to reflect on the history of their particular work group, changes in patterns and practices were seen to be linked to the actions and influences of a particular member. This was most prevalent for faculty members as it related to two of the major activities that many faculty routines centered around: meals and sports. These activities often revolved around a particular person who got things organized and then motivated and encouraged the involvement of others.

Leadership shown by members with regard to meals and sports was also often a source of power in groups. Members who were keen and ambitious and could provide other members with resources often gained the respect of other members and were able to influence others through their opinions regarding other aspects of their work at EAU. In this regard, leadership in the faculty often came from members other than the formally recognized leaders.

The major implication of these observations is that individual members of a work group can create fundamental changes in the patterns and practices of their group. The overall implication of the discovery of the influence of individuals on group patterns is that the process of recruiting should be considered seriously by the management of the organization. The addition of newcomers should be conducted in a systematic manner giving consideration to the strategic implications of the movement of different members.

This study has demonstrated the importance of interaction in the organizational socialization process. While the researcher examined the socializing interaction in order to detail what the process feels like for newcomers and existing members, future research should emphasize daily communicative interaction as it establishes the organizational socialization process.

As this study found that interactions located in the organization were important to newcomer socialization, and that conversations concerning personal rather than organizational issues influenced successful socialization, further research needs to explore how communicative interactions contribute to work accomplishment. All of the interactions could be important in coalition building, which could impact organizational member socialization into influential relational networks. Interactions can also implicate a number of socialization outcomes (such as commitment, satisfaction) and processes (such as sense-making).

One important implication of this study is that an integrated program of socialization tactics can achieve very positive results for an organization such as Eastern Asia University. Despite the fact that new faculty members reported values, beliefs, and behaviors that varied on many issues, the new faculty members were articulate and passionate about their field, and involved in their work. For example, they demonstrated concern about their students and enjoyment of their work and teaching role.

Another implication of this study is that faculty peers exert a very strong influence on newcomers. Many of the interviewees ultimately formed their ideas about the university, and often their beliefs about working and teaching, by interacting with other faculty members. Faculty chairs, veteran faculty members, officemates, fellow newcomers, and others involved with the work group (e.g., secretaries, receptionists, student employees) are often the ones who inform newcomers about the university. Therefore, a university seeking to improve its own newcomer socialization process might look to this area first: What are newcomers learning from veteran faculty members and other colleagues? What attitudes and practices are they likely to learn?

Finally, it is hope that this study can provide a helpful guide for universities that are interested in instituting their own programs to facilitate the socialization of new faculty members. The details of specific socialization tactics can provide the university with a framework for designing their own programs.

Limitations

This study is subject to several limitations. First, the study is primarily concerned with faculty values, beliefs, and behaviors as those values, beliefs, and behaviors are related to faculty roles. Although this research touches on other aspects of faculty jobs, such as participation on committees and in university governance, greater emphasis is placed on interaction with other faculty members and students. Individual career outcomes such as job satisfaction and internal work motivation, a traditional focus of the organizational socialization literature, are examined largely from the perspective of how they relate to teaching. In addition, the study explores the socialization of full-time faculty. The results cannot be assumed to describe the experiences of the many part-timers or non-instructional members of the university community.

Socialization theory is a widely studied theory of organizational communication. Nevertheless, most organizational communication theories originated in western contexts, particularly in the United States and Europe academic tradition (Harper, 1979). Therefore, the socialization theoretical review and research cited in this study relied heavily on the claims emerging from research done in the West and with Western-based organizations. This is a significance limitation that can be addressed only through the further development of research and theory within non-Western contexts.

<u>Recommendations for Further Research: Application to Other Organizations</u>

The theory of structuration provides a useful theoretical framework for analyzing the process and organizational socialization. Taking a structurational approach focuses research on the ongoing reproduction of interpretive schemes rather than on the formally prescribed frameworks that are used to organize employee relationships. While many people take for granted the wide spread existence of bureaucratic practices and norms, the present study illustrated the extent to which traditional modes of operation continue to exist in some organizations.

Factors which sustain a traditional interpretive scheme were observed and described in the present study. These include some of the unique aspects of the work such as its unpredictability and the close conditions under which group members operate. Some other factors cited, such as the demographic homogeneity of the work force and seniority, were not entirely unique to the type of organization studied. There are many other organizations such as sport teams, the military, and even some manufacturing and/or service oriented companies that also continue to be dominated by people of a particular gender, and share similar backgrounds in terms of socio-economic status and previous work and life experiences. Organizations exhibiting such features might find some of the results of this study relevant to their own situations.

Similarly, many organizations within society continue to base promotions on the basis of seniority alone, or on some combination of seniority and merit. Organizations such as automobile companies, the building trades, some sectors of the medical profession, and even social organizations continue to use seniority as a central organizing principle. Organizations such as these might find some of the results of this study to be of interest. Organizations which are organized around traditional interpretive schemes also provide sites for future research of a nature similar to the present study, and possibly even an opportunity for comparative analysis.

The ongoing process of organizational socialization continues in many sectors of society, and the framework for analysis utilized in the present study could be used to analyze this process in other similar organizations and in other different organizations which experiencing similar changes. Future research could also possibly examine faculties that have moved further along the path of socialization, and examine the extent to which the intended results are actually achieved.

Finally, as an important factor contributing to effective socialization, ‘culture’ has not received much recognition in socialization theory. Through future research efforts concerning the socialization process, hopefully we can obtain a better understanding of how individuals socialize in multi-cultural work environments. I personally argue that there are important developmental changes in the nature and significance of socialization in each culture, and that socialization process is influenced by culture.

Socialization theory was developed in an attempt to understand the relational closeness that exists between two people, especially between employees in organizational settings. Employees are able to choose who they want to become closer to and to decide how much of their private self they want to expose. Cozby (1973) explain that the socialization process is seen as a useful strategy of sharing information with others. By sharing information, employees become more intimate with other people and interpersonal relationships within the organizational setting are strengthened. This desire for uncertainty reduction and the use of socialization to overcome work-related anxieties, subject to cultural variation, and specific features of the environment or nature of the interactants serve to inhibit or accelerate the socialization process.

Relationship development within socialization theory should be linked to cultural dimensions. Since culture is internalized within the cognitive structures and processes of the individual (Bruner, 1990), individuals tend to be unaware of the cultural basis for many of their assumptions and judgments. Interpretations of other persons' socialization behaviors and communication styles are influenced by culture-based habits and assumptions. In order to understand and apply socialization theory to the way of socialization among Asian employees, it will be helpful to consider more general oriental culture and oriental psychological values.

Efforts to apply socialization theory to oriental organization settings would challenge many of the central assumptions of the socialization literature. The concept of non-assertive individualism, for example, has been identified as an attitude that has grown out of Asian hierarchical social patterns. Implicit in this system is an underlying belief of inequality, where a person knows where he/she stands in the culture. People in oriental culture are aware of those who occupy positions of superiority and others who are at various levels of the social structure. Assertiveness and outspokenness are not appropriate. It would seem, then, that this argument falls short in capturing some of the problematic applications of socialization theory to Asian employees, although socialization theory is worth noting that employees should learn the behaviors and attitudes necessary for becoming effective organizational members through active behavior in socialization process, and lead organization to success. Therefore, understanding of non-western cultures and values may prove to be beneficial for future researches, and to be empirical validity of western-based socialization theories.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

RECRUITS' QUESTIONNAIRE (GROUP 1)

As part of my research to earn a university degree, I am studying teamwork and group cohesiveness in Eastern Asia University. One aspect of this research process is to get an idea of the attitudes and values held by newly hired recruits. I ask that you corporate in this study and provide honest and thoughtful answers to the questions posed. The information gathered in this study will be in the highest confidence and will be used for academic propose only. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation.

**<u>Part 1: Background Information</u>**

Please tell me a little bit about yourself:

1. Name and Family Name: ______________________________________

2. Age: _______________ 3. Marital Status: _________________________

4. What is your ethnic origin? _______________________________________

5. What is the language you first learned in childhood and still understand?

_______________________________________

6. What level of education have you attained? (Pleas check as many boxes as apply to you)

______ Grade 12 Diploma

______ Grade 12 Senior Matriculation (University Entrance)

______ Certification or Diploma (Please specify) __________________________

______ University Degree (Please specify) _______________________________

7. What province, district, or rural area did you reside in for the majority of the five years prior to your acceptance into Eastern Asia University?

________________________________

8. What is your father's occupation? (Give major life-time occupation if deceased or retired)

______________________________________

9. What is your mother's occupation? (Give major life-time occupation if deceased or retired)

______________________________________

10. What is your father's level of education? (Check as many as apply)

______ Some high school

______ High school completed

______ Technical or vocational training completed

______ University Bachelor's degree

______ University graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.)

______ Do not know

11. What is your mother's level of education? (Check as many as apply)

______ Some high school

______ High school completed

______ Technical or vocational training completed

______ University Bachelor's degree

______ University graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.)

12. How many brothers and/or sisters do you have? _______________

13. After leaving High school and before joining Eastern Asia University, how long were you employed? ________ years, ________ months.

14. Past employment: Please tell me about your previous job(s) including the type of work and the length of time you worked in the position(s) you held, beginning with the most recent (use back of page of necessary):

| *Date (month/year)* | *Position Held* | *Job Description* |
|---|---|---|
| _______ to _______ | _______________ | |
| _______ to _______ | _______________ | |
| _______ to _______ | _______________ | |

**<u>Part 2: Personal Attitudes</u>**

For the following statements, please indicate the extent to which you believe each statement describes you. Rate each statement from 1 to 10 with 1 indicating that you strongly disagree with that statement and 10 indicating that you strongly agree:

1. When I make plan, I am certain I will follow through with them.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

2. When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick with it until I am finished.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

3. I feel insecure about my ability to do things.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

4. When unexpected problems occur, I do not handle them very well.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

5. When trying to learn something new, I give up soon if I am not initially successful.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

6. I feel quite confident that now that I have chosen a profession, I will stick with it over my entire career.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

7. I believe that I can easily adapt to shift work and do my own thing even when my friends are on different schedules.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

8. When working in a team, I feel I can always hold my own and contribute my share or more.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

9. In situations that are dangerous, I worry that I will lose my nerve and not be able to perform as expected.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

10. When it comes to work, I contribute only what I have to because I worry about making a mistake.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

11. I have the highest confidence in my physical ability and believe I can perform any task required of me.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

12. In emergency situations where chaos prevails, I often lose my cool and do not know what to do.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

13. If I am faced with a situation that requires strength and endurance, I usually get some one else to do the job for me.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

14. I have never really been exposed to seeing students in trouble or injured, and I worry about how I will react.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

15. If I had a fever while I taught or worked in faculty, I would work until the work was done.

strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 strongly agree

**Part 3: Expectation of Work Group**

***Instruction:*** Below there are 90 statements. They are statements about groups.

When you complete your basic training, you will be joining an existing work group and your work. Imagine in your mind what that group will be like.

You are to decide which of the following statements describe what you expect the group to be like, and which do not describe what you expect the group to be like. If you think a statement describes what you expect your work group to be like, mark a T (True) in the left margin beside the statement. If you think the statement does not describe what you expect your work and your work group to be like, mark F (false) in the margin beside the statement.

Please be sure to answer every item. Make all your marks in the space provided in the left hand margin beside each of the statement.

The 90 questions that comprise the group environment scale (moss, 1986) were included in the questionnaires, but are omitted here due to copyright restrictions. A fee was paid to the copyright holder in order to use the GES in the questionnaires. Copies of the GES are available from the copyright holder.

APPENDIX B

**EMPLOYEES' QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW FORM: GROUP 1**

As part of my research to earn a university degree, I am studying teamwork and group cohesiveness in Eastern Asia University. One aspect of this research process is to get an idea of the attitudes and values held by newly hired recruits. I ask that you corporate in this study and provide honest and thoughtful answers to the questions posed. The information gathered in this study will be in the highest confidence and will be used for academic propose only. Thank you for your assistance and cooperation.

**Part 1: Background Information**

Please tell me a little bit about yourself:

1. Name and Family Name: ______________________________________

2. Age: _______________ 3. Marital Status: ________________________

4. What is your ethnic origin? _____________________________________

5. What is the language you first learned in childhood and still understand?

_____________________________________

6. What is your present position? ___________________________________

7. How long have you been at your present position? __________years __________months

8. When did you join Eastern Asia University? __________months __________years

9. What level of education have you attained? (please check as many boxes as apply to you)

______ Grade 12 Diploma

______ Grade 12 Senior Matriculation (University Entrance)

______ Certification or Diploma (Please specify) __________________________

______ University Degree (Please specify) _______________________________

7. What province, district, or rural area did you reside in for the majority of the five years prior to your acceptance into Eastern Asia University?

_________________________________

8. What is your father's occupation? (Give major life-time occupation if deceased or retired)

_______________________________________

9. What is your mother's occupation? (Give major life-time occupation if deceased or retired)

_______________________________________

10. What is your father's level of education? (Check as many as apply)

______ Some high school

______ High school completed

______ Technical or vocational training completed

______ University Bachelor's degree

______ University graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.)

______ Do not know

11. What is your mother's level of education? (Check as many as apply)

______ Some high school

______ High school completed

______ Technical or vocational training completed

______ University Bachelor's degree

______ University graduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.)

12. How many brothers and/or sisters do you have? _______________

13. After leaving High school and before joining Eastern Asia University, how long were you employed? ________ years, ________ months.

14. Past employment: Please tell me about your previous job(s) including the type of work and the length of time you worked in the position(s) you held, beginning with the most recent (use back of page of necessary):

| *Date (month/year)* | *Position Held* | *Job Description* |
|---|---|---|
| _______ to _______ | ______________ | |
| _______ to _______ | ______________ | |
| _______ to _______ | ______________ | |

**Part 2: GES Answer Sheet**

Use the sheet below to mark responses to the statements found in the accompanying booklet of statements about groups.

Using the pencil provided, mark an X in box corresponding to the statement number, and indicate whether you feel the statement is true or false of your particular work group.

The 90 questions that comprise the group environment scale (moss, 1986) were included in the questionnaires, but are omitted here due to copyright restrictions. A fee was paid to the copyright holder in order to use the GES in the questionnaires. Copies of the GES are available from the copyright holder.

**Employees' Interview Format: Group 1**

**Part 3: Values and Beliefs**

Name: ___________________________

Date: ____________________________

Position: _________________________

What, in your opinion, is your job?

How does the group decide which members of your group will perform what duties in the department?

Do you think this is fair way to divide tasks?

How do you think your self and other members of your work team should be evaluated on your performance?

How do you get along with other members of your group?

Do you feel that everyone on your group is pretty well equal in skill and ability?

Do you feel that your group works effectively together as a team?

What activities do you and other members of your group engage in during idle time? Are these activities primarily individual or group activities?

To what extent do you feel your activities in the department during idle time affect your groups performance?

Do you and other members of your group socialize together or engage in recreational and sporting activities off the job?

Do you socialize with or engage in recreational and sporting activities off the job with employees other than those on your own group?

What do you think about the promotional system in the department? Do you think it is fair and equitable?

Do you have faith and confidence in your officer, and officers generally?

Do you think that every employee has the ability to become a supervisor?

What do you feel the minimum requirement for a supervisor should be in terms of skills and experience?

When you become a supervisor some day, will you do anything differently?

How will you divide the tasks among employees in your command in the department?

Do you consider this your work to be a life time career?

Can you tell me about two things that you feel that your group does extremely well, and two things that they do poorly?

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX C

**Employees' Questionnaire and Interview: Group 2**

Part 1

Please answer the following questions, and place an X beside the responses that most closely represents your opinion. If you do not feel that the responses are appropriate, please write in your own response in the space provided.

1. What hobbies, sports, and recreational activities do you engage in both away from and on the job?

*On the job*:

*Away from the job*:

2. Are any of these activities ones which you have taken up since joining in department Eastern Asia University?

3. Are there any activities that you have stopped participating in since joining in department Eastern Asia University?

4. What is your opinion of the promotional system in the department?

____ I think the seniority system works well and should remain unchanged.

____ I think seniority provides a good basis for giving everyone a chance, but the standards for qualifying should be more difficult.

____ I think seniority works well up to superior, but above that rank it should be more of a merit based system.

____ I do not think the seniority system works; all promotions should be based on merit and initiative.

5. If you were in charge of your group, would you do things any differently?

____ No, I think our group woks well the way it is. There is nothing I would like to see changed.

____ I think that our group runs relatively smoothly, but there may be some small things I would change.

____ If I was in charge, I would make major changes to the way this shift operates.

5. What do you think about training in the department?

____ I feel our present system is highly effective, and I feel that myself and my colleagues are well trained to handle any situation we might face.

____ I feel that our current training is inadequate.

____ I think we need less training based on theory and videos, and more "hands-on" practical training.

____ I feel that we presently do more training than is necessary.

6. Do you consider your position with Eastern Asia University to be a life time career?

____ Yes

____ No

____ Not sure.

7. If you have the training provided by Eastern Asia University , did you take that training before or after you joined with Eastern Asia University ?

____ Before

____ After

If after, did the department provide any support or financial assistance?

_____Yes   _____ No

8. Additional comments?

**Interview: Group 2**

1. When I talked to you last several months ago, you describe to me what your job is and how different tasks were divided up on your work and your group. Since that time has anything changed, or is there anything you can think of that you do differently now?

2. I assume that through transfers etc. there have been some changes in personnel over the last few months. Do you feel that these changes have affected the way your group operates or the way the guys get along?

3. I noticed that you now have a newcomer on your group, has that changed things at all around here or altered the way you do things?

4. There has recently been a lot of controversy over our contract, and seems that no one seems to know who or what to believe any more. What is your opinion of the current rift in union-management relations?

APPENDIX E

**Interview Questions:**

**(for conducting the Research Questions)**

**1).** Let’s start out with a little background. What were you doing before you began teaching full-time at Eastern Asia University?

What teaching positions have you held before; at what kinds of institution?

How long?

Where you ever a part-timer at Eastern Asia University?

**2).** What degrees do you hold, and in what fields? Other types of certification for this position.

**3).** Please give a brief description of your career with Eastern Asia University;

How did you get there?

What positions have you had?

Which faculty/department have you worked on?

**4).** What factors influenced your decision to become a teacher?

**5).** Was Eastern Asia University your first choice?

**6).** How did you learn to be a teacher?

**7).** How well did your degree program prepare you for Eastern Asia University?

**8).** What else in your background helped you to prepare for this position?

**9).** What was the hiring process like?

**10).** What do you think gave you the edge to be hired for this position?

**11).** Thinking about your early experience here, would you say that you were given any impressions in your job interview for through orientation that turned out not to be accurate?

Let's talk a little bit about what you've encountered at Eastern Asia University in terms of your organizational members and students. I'm interested in your personal view of all of these issues.

**12).** Imagine that you have a new class of students coming in, and within this group there are various subgroups. What subgroups would you find?

How do you see each of these groups?

Do you ever get organizational members that just don't belong there?

**13).** We hear a lot about how good it is to have open doors university on the one hand; on the other hand, we sometimes hear that faculty feel that too much is being asked of them, that there are too many underprepared students, for example. What's your feeling about this?

**14).** Have you come across faculty members who express concern over the caliber of students? Please tell me about their concerns. How about over the direction the university is taking? For example, some people think that it would be better to concentrate on the transfer curriculum or not use so many resources for developmental courses. What's you feeling about his?

**15).**Can you remember anything specific that happened here that shaped or changed your impressions of organizational members in Eastern Asia University?

What?

**16).** What goals do you have for your faculty/department?

**17).** What kind of relationship do you think Eastern Asia University's faculty member ideally ought to have with colleagues?

How does this operate for you? What would that kind of a faculty do?

**18).** How about teaching and communicating interaction in Eastern Asia University?

**19).** How would you describe yourself as a faculty member?

**20).** What do you feel is the most effective approach to interact with other faculty members?

Explain how this would work in the socialization process?

**21).** Has your style of socializing/interacting changed since you started working here?

How?

How did you learn to make these changes?

Did you learn this at Eastern Asia University, or elsewhere? Where/How?

**22).** I'd like to talk about some of the things that might have influenced the way you socialize/interact.

Have you read anything that influenced you?

Were you influenced by other faculty members?

By activities that you took?

Have you learned anything about socializing by watching or talking to your colleagues here?

Did you ever get a lightening bolt—a sudden insight – that changed your approach to socializing/interacting/communicating?

Was there anything else, insider or outsider Eastern Asia University, that strongly influenced the way you work today?

**23).** Other than during class time, what kinds of encounters do you have with your students?

**24).** Complete the sentence: The most important skill for Eastern Asia University's faculty members to have is ………………

Let's talk about your experience as a new faculty member. Take a moment to reflect back over your time here, including your early expectations and the peaks and valleys of learning the ropes.

**25).** How do you feel about working for Eastern Asia University at this point in your career?

Have your feelings changed since you started here?

**26).** How would you characterize the time since you started here?

Was any part of the experience different from what you expected when you were hired?

**27).** Eastern Asia University has a national reputation for putting teaching and learning above everything else. How accurate is that image?

**28).** I'd like ask you about the impressions you've had, since you started working here, about your perceptions of the priorities of some of the people at Eastern Asia University. What do you think is the top priority to:

Dr. Butsayamas?

Your president?

Your department chair?

Your peers?

Have you encountered anyone whose priorities seem to be at odds with what you think the university should be?

**29).** How did you learn what was formally expected of a faculty member here?

**30).** Most places have informal and unwritten rules as well as formal ones. For example, in some companies there is an unwritten rule that no one disagree with the boss.

Did you learn any unwritten rules of behavior from your colleagues? What?

Did they tell you about these things, or did you just learn from watching?

Was there anything that surprised you?

**31).** Did anyone serve as a model for you? For example, was there an experienced faculty member here whose teaching/communicating style you admired or wanted to learn from?

**32).** What kinds of communication networks did you learn from your colleagues?

What kinds of other communication networks did you learn from them?

When you had questions or difficulties with anything, who did you go to?

How about when you had things to celebrate?

**33).** What things do you remember about the new faculty orientation?

How did you feel afterwards? (Impressions)

What did you learn from it?

**34).** What was your experience with your mentor like?

What did the mentor tell you that you remember most clearly?

How helpful was the experience?

Was there anything your mentor told you that you later decided was not accurate?

**35).** What did you think about the required Eastern Asia University's works?

What was best about them?

Anything you don't like?

What from the works has been helpful to you?

Did you learn anything that you use in the faculty/department?

Examples?

**36).** Looking at these three things together: orientation, your mentor, and the works: How helpful were these things? Which helped you the most? If you had to eliminate one, which would it be?

**37).** Have there been any regrets or disappointments so far?

**38).** What was your experience of preparing the work like?

Knowing that you had to prepare your work, were there things that you did that you would not otherwise have done? What sort of things?

**39).** What advice would you give to someone just starting as a faculty member here?

**40).** How has interacting/communicating at Eastern Asia University changed you?

**41).** What would you like to be doing one year from now?

Do you see yourself working at Eastern Asia University for a long time?

**42).** How could your job as a faculty at Eastern Asia University be made better?

**43).** If you could make just one request to the administration of Eastern Asia University on behalf of new faculty, what would that one request be?

**44).** Is there anything that strikes you, related to what I have been asking you about, that you think it would be helpful for me to know, but about which I didn't ask you?

Thank you very much.

APPENDIX F

**Contact Summary Form**

**Type: Interview___________** **Site______________**

**Observation_________** **Date_____________**

**Other______________**

**Name________________________________________________________________**

1. What were the main issues or themes that struck me in this contact?

2. Summarize information I got (or failed to get) on target questions for this contact:

How Eastern Asia University communicates expectations to faculty

Values, beliefs, behaviors

Influences on values, belief, behaviors

3. Anything else that struck me as interesting, illuminating, or important?

4. Any new ideas or target questions for the next contact?