

**ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION TACTICS AND
LEARNING IN THE UNITED STATES HOTEL INDUSTRY**

by

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ABSTRACT

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Title: Organizational Socialization Tactics and Learning in the United States Hotel Industry

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Employee turnover is widely recognized as a concern for hospitality employers. Therefore, strategies are needed to attract and retain workers. Organizational newcomers are vulnerable to job stressors that lead to burnout and turnover. However, organizational socialization facilitates employee learning and adjustment, which subsequently reduced turnover intentions. The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of organizational socialization tactics on the domains of socialization learning and on organizational commitment in the hotel industry. The study also investigated the influence of socialization tactics and learning on turnover intentions. Additionally, the study explored content, context, and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics used by hotels to facilitate employee learning. The study utilized a mixed methods approach including survey data from employees of upper midscale and upscale hotels in the Midwest, and interviews conducted with a convenience sample of survey participants. Empirical analyses were conducted using descriptive statistics, t-tests, analyses of variances, and regression analyses. Thematic analysis was used for interview transcripts. Findings indicate higher perceived levels of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics do positively impact the four domains of socialization learning – training, understanding, coworker support, and future prospects. Higher levels of two socialization learning domains, coworker support and future prospects, positively impacted organizational commitment. Institutionalized socialization tactics and the socialization learning domain of future prospects

were negatively associated with turnover intentions. Interview findings enhanced survey data on organizational socialization tactics in the hotel industry. There was a higher prevalence of individual and informal learning, and employees have limited awareness of sequential steps or fixed timetables. Employees engaged in observational learning related to job duties from coworkers, and observation of customer service skills from their supervisors. The study also found employees are learning interpersonal skills from guest interaction, including how they can integrate guest feedback into their organizational roles. The study demonstrates the positive influence of institutionalized organizational tactics on employee learning in the hotel industry and provides further context on socialization tactics from an employee perspective. Implications, limitations, and recommendations for future study are discussed. Practitioners are encouraged to engage in institutionalized socialization activities. Employers can also cultivate an organizational climate that enhances hands-on learning by adopting socialization activities that enhance employee self-efficacy and encourage relationship building between coworkers.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, services-producing industries employ 80.3% of workers in the United States and that proportion continues to grow (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Services-providing industries are projected to add 10.5 million jobs between 2016 – 2026, while jobs in goods-producing industries are only expected to grow by 219,000 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). Within services-producing industries, leisure and hospitality alone is expected to add 1.3 million jobs. However, health care and social assistance will add nearly 4 million new jobs (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017). There is competition within and between industries to attract workers, and that challenge is exacerbated by low unemployment rates and slower workforce growth (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2017).

Employees are critical to service organizations. According to Gronroos (1990), “a service is an activity or series of activities of more or less intangible nature that normally, but not necessarily, take place in interactions between the customer and service employees and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of the service provider, which are provided as solutions to customer problems” (p. 27). In service-focused organizational roles, employees with direct customer contact are the connection between the organization and the customer (Ross & Boles, 1994).

Challenges attracting workers are compounded by employee turnover. Figure 1 shows Leisure and Hospitality has the highest rate of turnover based on separation rates by industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019).

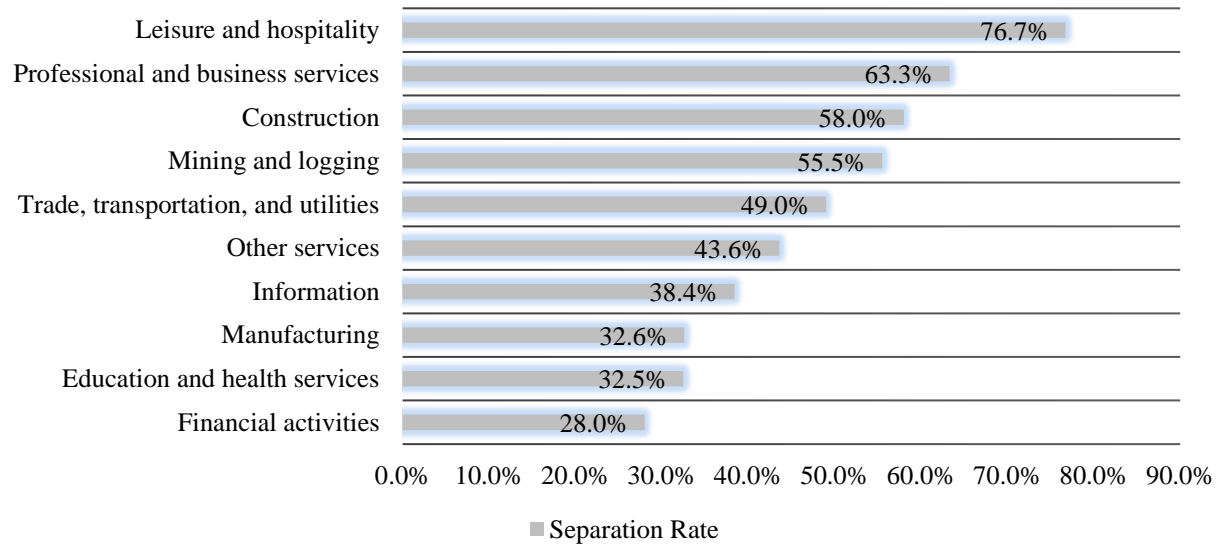


Figure 1 2018 Annual Separation Rates by Industry (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019)

Leisure and hospitality also had the highest quit rate of industries at 51.8% (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). The quit rate indicates voluntary turnover, which can be costly for employers. Research has identified several direct and indirect costs associated with employee turnover (Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011; Woods & Macaulay, 1989; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Employee turnover can negatively impact a company's financial performance through increased recruitment costs related to interviewing and selecting employees, as well as orientation and training costs for new employees (Fang et al., 2011; Woods & Macaulay, 1989). Companies with higher levels of turnover face difficulty managing labor costs. For example, turnover contributes to lost productivity while new employees learn their positions (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Hospitality managers may spend a disproportionate amount of time on new hire training activities and may also need to cover hourly duties as new employees become proficient team members (Woods & Macaulay, 1989). High turnover can negatively impact service quality

(Kim, Choi, & Li, 2016), and subsequently, high turnover can lead to decreased revenue (Davidson, Timo, & Wang, 2009; Woods & Macaulay, 1989).

The hospitality industry has long been associated with high rates of turnover (U.S. Department of Labor Employment and Training Administration, 2007). Some turnover has been attributed to “seasonal adjustments, youthful employees, (and) new competitors opening up” (Woods & Macaulay, 1989, p. 79). However, job characteristics such as work hours outside traditional business hours, shift work, irregular vacation days, physical demands, heavy workloads, and low wages have been identified as contributing factors that lead to turnover intentions and actual turnover in the hospitality industry (Chiang & Liu, 2017; Iverson & Deery, 1997; Lee, Huang, & Zhao, 2012; Richardson, 2010; Shani, Uriely, Reichel, & Ginsburg, 2014).

Unlike a growing number of jobs in other industries that can offer flexible hours or work-from-home arrangements, the majority of working hours in the hospitality industry are scheduled based on anticipated customer demand which means “scheduling the appropriate number of employees, with the required skills, at the appropriate time each day on the basis of demand forecasting” (Park, Yaduma, Lockwood, & Williams, 2016, p. 97). The hotel industry experiences wide demand fluctuations and times where demand exceeds capacity (Lovelock, 1988). Individual hotels experience temporary demand changes like “seasons or days of the week, across the business cycle, or erratically” (Park et al., 2016, p. 93). Within a day, hotels must manage demand fluctuations to accommodate guests efficiently and at appropriate service levels. Many service industries have eased customer demand on physical employees by shifting toward technology that increases customer participation and reduces employee-customer interactions. For example, airline industries widely implemented self-service kiosks and online functions that increasingly enable airline passengers, depending on luggage, to arrive at security

without requiring employee assistance. Personal banking is conducted online or through ATM machines. While the hotel industry has been implementing these strategies, a customer's desire to interact with hotel employees can influence their decision to use self-service technologies (Oh, Jeong, & Baloglu, 2013).

Hotel employees are required to “display organizationally-expected emotions when interacting with customers” which is referred to as emotional labor (Shani et al., 2014, p. 151). Emotional labor is not only part of handling service bottlenecks or difficult customers. It also relates to constant human interaction and suppressing personal emotions in order to attend to the needs of others. The requirement of emotional regulation when providing customer service has been linked to higher levels of role stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity (Kim, Im, & Hwang, 2015; Ross & Boles, 1994; Thomas, Brown, & Thomas, 2017) and also higher turnover intentions (Chau, Dahling, Levy, & Diefendorff, 2009; Jung & Yoon, 2014).

Guests must be physically present at the property by nature of consuming hotel services (Lovelock, 1988). Therefore, guest interaction with the hotel environment is also a critical part of hotel service quality. The physical environment is the direct result of employee efforts. room condition and cleanliness are service expectations that cannot be outsourced to technology. Cleaning and maintaining guest rooms and public areas is labor-intensive and physically demanding. These tasks cannot be outsourced to technology. Hotel room attendants typically work in isolation, and cleaning tasks are repetitive. When a guest checks out, a guest room must be reset to hotel standards. Hotel room attendants can lose a sense of meaning in their work. Room attendant job stress leads to burnout, which subsequently increases turnover intentions (Chiang & Liu, 2016).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Employee turnover is widely recognized as a concern for hospitality employers (Iverson & Deery, 1997; Woods & Macaulay, 1989). The labor-intensive and service-focused employment environment in the hotel industry is physically and emotionally demanding for employees. Companies are also facing difficulties filling positions due to changing workforce demographic. Labor shortages (Kim, Choi, & Li, 2016), an aging workforce (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019) and fewer younger job applicants (Iun & Huang, 2007; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019) intensify the need to address commitment and turnover challenges in a multigenerational workforce. Employers in the hotel industry need strategies to attract and retain employees in this competitive workforce.

Yet attracting and retaining employees alone is insufficient for achieving and exceeding customer service expectations. Service delivery in the hotel industry is characterized by a high degree of customer contact, which means “product variability is harder to control...because customers exert more influence on timing of demand and service features due to their greater involvement in the service process” (Chase, 1978, as cited by Lovelock, 1988, p. 47). A typical length of hotel stay is longer than the duration of services in other leisure settings, such as a movie theater or a museum. However, it is still a transient relationship between a hotel and a guest characterized by low switching barriers. Compared to industries such as banking or insurance, individual hotels have a low formal relationship with guests (Lovelock, 1988). Like George Clooney’s character in the 2009 Oscar-nominated *Up in the Air*, frequent hotel guests often have a plethora of so-called loyalty membership cards. Even when a hotel customer is loyal to a hotel parent company such as Hilton or Marriott, they can typically choose from a range of hotels within a geographic area.

When a guest checks out, there is no guarantee they will return, and service quality provided by employees is a key factor in their attitudinal and behavior loyalty. Employees that are emotionally attached to their organizations increase service quality (Dhar, 2015) and customer satisfaction (He, Li, & Lai, 2011). Subsequently, service quality is directly related to firm value, competitive advantage, and overall business performance (Chiang & Lin, 2016). Therefore, it is important that hotel employees are well-trained and provide customer service that reflects the organizational values for the hotel and its brand.

Organizational newcomers are vulnerable to job stressors that lead to increased turnover, such as uncertainty, ambiguity, conflict, and anxiety (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ellis, Bauer, Mansfield, Erdogan, & Simon, 2015; Jones, 1986). However, research has found effective organizational socialization can reduce turnover intentions by enhancing employee learning and facilitating employee adjustment (Allen, 2006; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Filstad, 2011). Organizational socialization is “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979, p. 3). Research has found socialization activities positively impact employee adjustment factors including role clarity, task mastery, and social integration (Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Morrison, 1993; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). As the result of employee learning and adjustment, organizational socialization processes have been positively linked to outcomes including job satisfaction, employee commitment, job performance, personal identity and organizational identity (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007). Also, research has found effective socialization decreases employee quit intentions and job burnout (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Fang et al., 2011; Taormina & Law, 2000).

1.3 Research Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of organizational socialization on organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the hotel industry. There is little exploratory study on organizational socialization tactics initiated by hotel industry employers. The majority of previous hospitality studies have used quantitative approaches based on general socialization literature without further exploring situational and contextual differences inherent to the hotel industry. To the author's knowledge, this is the first study to mix qualitative and quantitative methods to better understand how hotel companies provide socialization resources to their employees. Additionally, there are no studies in the hospitality literature that examine the direct impact of organizational socialization tactics on socialization learning outcomes. Existing studies examine the impact of organizational socialization tactics on the outcomes of organizational commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, & Anderson, 2004; Filstad, 2011) and turnover intentions (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bigliardi, Petroni, & Dormio, 2005). However, there are fewer studies that also consider the role of socialization learning on employee commitment and turnover intentions. Therefore, the following research objectives are proposed:

- 1) Analyze how employee perceptions of organizational socialization tactics influence socialization learning
- 2) Evaluate how perceived levels of socialization learning impact organizational commitment
- 3) Investigate the effect of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics on turnover intentions

- 4) Examine the relationship between socialization learning and turnover intentions
- 5) Explore the content, context, and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics used by hotel companies to facilitate employee learning

1.4 Scope of the Study

This study focused on employees of upper midscale and upscale hotels in Midwestern cities. These hotels are considered select service and reflect the evolution of that segment. In the past, the select service hotel segment was distinguished by lack of food and beverage outlets. Smith Travel Research used separate chain scales to differentiate 1) midscale with food and beverage and 2) midscale without food and beverage through 2010 (O'Connor, 2011). In 2011, the research organization dropped the food and beverage descriptor from the midscale category and added an upper midscale category. Updated classifications were based on Average Daily Rate (ADR) rather than hotel amenities (O'Connor, 2011). This change reflects today's select service properties which offer guests a continuum of complimentary to paid food and beverage choices. This ranges from complimentary breakfast to revenue-generating casual dining outlets in some hotels. The food and beverage options offered by hotels are based on brand standards, as well as hotel segments and types. For example, upscale extended stay hotels generally offer complimentary breakfast daily, and also provide evening receptions and/or meals to guests on Monday through Thursday.

In a survey by the CBRE Hotels organization, 1/3 of select service hotels included retail food and beverage (Mandelbaum, 2017). According to the 2019 Hotel Management Survey of Top Limited Service Hotels, the newest lifestyle brands are positioned as midscale (Avid Hotels by IHG, Tru by Hilton) and upper midscale (Moxy by Marriott). Both Avid Hotels and Tru by Hilton provide markets for customer snack needs all include self-serve pantries and convenience

stores (Avid Hotels, 2019; Tru by Hilton, 2019). Lobby convenience stores are not new, but in brands like Tru by Hilton these markets are moving out of the corner, into the lobby center along with guest registration.

According to Hotel Business (2019), 74% of hotel projects expected to open in 2019 and 2020 are upper midscale or upscale. As midscale hotels, Tru by Hilton and Avid Hotels are not reflected in that percentage. The Tru by Hilton brand has 302 hotels in the United States development pipeline, and there are 160 Avid hotels from Intercontinental Hotel Group in the pipeline (Hospitality Net, 2019). Together, these two new brands represent 8.35% of the 5,530 planned hotels in the United States. As select service brands evolve and new brands are introduced, employee job duties are also evolving. In addition to typical front office duties such as guest registration, an open position for Front Desk Crew at a Moxy Hotel includes the following job responsibilities: “prepare & serve F&B menu items” and “assist with keeping front office, bar and kitchen areas clean & well maintained” (Front Office – MOXY Crew, 2019). The posting also notes “experienced mixologist preferred.”

Brand parent companies, ownership structures, management companies, or any combination of those entities are all key stakeholders that can influence or be influenced by a hotel’s performance. Branded select service hotels tend to be franchised rather than owned by the brand’s parent company. According to Hotel Management’s 2019 Survey of Top Limited-Service brands, many brands are completely franchised (Hotel Management, 2019). According to the report, the Holiday Inn Express brand had 2,270 hotels open in 2019 in the United States and all of them were franchised. Ideally, stakeholder interests are aligned to be service-focused, but many management companies are primarily focused on financial results. Some claim expertise on turnarounds and repositioning of underperforming hotels. This also depends on

ownership strategy, and the relationship between owners and management companies. Hotel employees may have a greater awareness of the brand's parent company than the third-party management company or ownership that appears on their paycheck. The brand dictates many aspects of a hotel's physical environment. The parent company provides the majority of formal training materials and provides service standards.

In the complexity of hotel ownership and operation, management companies may own assets or be contractually obligated to an asset management company. However, the general manager of a select service hotel is typically employed by the management company. General managers in select service hotels are expected to perform accounting and human resources duties, whereas full-service hotels have separate support departments for those areas. Select service hotels do tend to have one sales manager, where in the past the sales may have also been part of the general manager's responsibilities. It is also common for a general manager of a select-service hotel to manage multiple properties, further dividing his or her attention. A current trend is multi-branded hotel sites where "two or more hotel brands share one property footprint and some combination of back-of-house operations, executive staff and amenities or common spaces" (Grigg, 2019). Multi-branded projects often include a select service brand paired with an extended stay brand from the same parent company (Allen, 2018). Co-branding impacts human resources by further flattening of organizational structures through shared services. Also, the presence of additional brands has operational implications. According to Allen (2018), "the operational benefit for dual-branded hotels is realized primarily when the management company can run both hotels and employ just one person for key positions, such as the General Manager, Director of Sales, and Chief Engineer." Hourly employees are typically

oriented first to a single brand within the multi-branded complex, but operators then often cross-train employees to perform job duties in both areas.

Operating departments in select service hotels are typically limited to front office, housekeeping, and maintenance. There can be a food and beverage department if there is a retail restaurant, but typically complimentary food and beverage and/or smaller retail outlets are not large enough to merit a separate department. Therefore, personnel changes such as hiring, quitting, or terminating employees have a greater impact on the team of workers because there are fewer operating departments and smaller numbers of employees in each area. Within those departments, there may be only 1-2 employees designated to train new individuals. Schedules fluctuate until the new hire can cover shifts as a productive organizational member. Coworkers will also be impacted if an experienced employee becomes disengaged.

Employees from all major departments were surveyed including front office, housekeeping, food and beverage, and maintenance. The research focused on the influence of organizational socialization tactics on employee perceptions of socialization learning outcomes and their subsequent influence on two job attitudes: organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

1.5 Significance of the Study

There is awareness that strategic human resource activities improve business performance (Tracey & Hinkin, 2000). According to Chao (1988), “early turnover of organizational newcomers...can be minimized through planned socialization programs that aid the new hire in learning and adjusting to organizational life” (p.46). Improvement of socialization tactics will help organizations with newcomer adjustment and learning, leading to higher commitment levels

and reduced turnover. Additional understanding of organizational socialization tactics and learning can assist employers with developing or improving socialization programs.

This study also addresses a need to further examine organizational socialization from a hospitality perspective. The research adds perceptions of United States hotel employees to the few existing socialization studies in the hotel context, all of which were conducted with hotel employees in Asian countries. This is the first study to mix qualitative and quantitative methods to better understand how hotel companies provide socialization resources to their employees.

The qualitative strand of this study also addresses a need to explore the role of socialization agents in the hospitality context. Socialization agents facilitate learning as a source of information, feedback, and support, and can include coworkers, supervisors, and mentors (Saks & Gruman, 2012; Klein & Heuser, 2008). While there is existing research in general socialization literature on the role of coworkers and supervisors in socialization learning, it is limited in hospitality contexts. With the extent of employee on-the-job training that is performed in hotel settings, it is important for the hotel industry to gain additional insight on how socialization agents can facilitate employee learning and adjustment. Customers can also be considered socialization agents in service-focused industries with frequent customer interaction (Wang, Kammeyer-Mueller, Liu, & Li, 2015). Little is known regarding how customers can be source of information, feedback, and support for employees (Saks & Gruman, 2012). This knowledge can be beneficial for improving employee communication skills, as well as improve customer loyalty through enhanced customer service.

While existing studies focus on organizational entry and newcomer adjustment, this study examines socialization processes and outcomes throughout employment. Employees in the hotel industry are constantly being asked to adjust to situational factors such as seasonality, demand

variations, management turnover, and ownership changes (Tracey, 2014). When turnover is high, organizational insiders may feel burdened by additional responsibilities while newcomers become proficient which is also why it is important to examine ongoing socialization.

Finally, this study also provides comparative analysis on generational differences in employee perceptions of organizational socialization tactics and learning outcomes. According to King, Murillo, and Lee (2017), generational research is underdeveloped in hospitality studies. Considering generational differences on the impact of socialization on commitment and turnover can provide further insight for practitioners and contribute to limited studies on generations in the hospitality workforce.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Organizational commitment: an employee's attachment to an organization

Organizational socialization: "the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role" (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979, p. 3)

Organizational socialization tactics: processes structured by an organization to facilitate an individual's role transition (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979)

Socialization learning: the acquisition of job knowledge and content referring to "the substance of what an individual learns (or should learn) in order to become a proficient and comfortable member of the organization" (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007, p. 449)

Socialization learning domains: categories and measures of learning content areas resulting from organizational socialization processes

Turnover intentions: "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (Tett & Meyer, 1998, p. 262)

1.7 Organization of the study

This study has five chapters. Chapter 1 includes research background, a statement of the problem, research purpose and objectives and significance of the study. Key terms related to the study are defined. Chapter 2 reviews literature related to organizational socialization, organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The chapter starts with the background of organizational socialization research and key concepts, followed by a discussion of organizational socialization processes and outcomes. Organizational commitment and turnover intentions are also discussed in relation to organizational socialization. Hypotheses related to the research objectives are proposed.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology utilized to examine the relationship between organizational socialization tactics on learning outcomes, as well as the impact of socialization on organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The study employed a mixed methods approach. Research design, participants, instrument development and measurement, data collection, and analysis are discussed for the quantitative strand of the study. Subsequently, research design, data collection, the interview guide, and data analysis for the qualitative strand are outlined. Chapter 4 presents and discusses results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 summarizes key findings, offers practical applications from the findings, outlines theoretical contributions, and recommends areas for future study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational socialization literature spans over five decades. Previous studies include both employee and organizational roles in socialization processes. However, organizational studies are limited to the organizational entry of new employees. Further, there is limited research in the hospitality context. The literature review presents a comprehensive overview of organizational socialization concepts. It summarizes previous studies that relate various antecedents and outcomes of organizational socialization. Additionally, it discusses the concepts and relationships between organizational socialization, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. A proposed model examines the influence of organizational socialization tactics on an individual's learning and subsequent organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

2.1 Organizational Socialization

The historical context of organizational socialization literature derives from life course socialization, occupational socialization, and socialization in total institutions (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Socialization is defined as “a continuing process whereby an individual acquires a personal identity and learns the norms, values, behavior, and social skills appropriate to his or her social position” (dictionary.com, 2017). Organizational socialization extends this concept to industrial settings.

Organizational socialization can be described as an acculturation process whereby an individual obtains social and cultural knowledge, as well as critical skills necessary to successfully perform their organizational role (Filstad, 2004; Jex, 2002; Jones, 1986; VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). VanMaanen and Schein (1979) refer to organizational

socialization as “the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (p. 3). Chao (1988) notes that “an employee who is successfully socialized not only understands what his or her role is in the organization, but also shares the attitudes and values of the company” (p. 46). Jex (2002) points out that “socialization is synonymous with the process of acculturation of new organizational members” (p. 62). The goal of the socialization process has been described as the “transition from outsider to organization member” (Jex, 2002) or the transition from new member to established member (Filstad, 2004). Filstad (2004) points out that “newcomers’ organizational socialization must be focused on as social and cultural learning processes, and therefore organizational socialization includes all learning from when a new member enters the organization and until he or she becomes an established member of the same organization” (p. 402). Chao (1988) proposes “a newcomer who is beginning his or her career may be compared with a child who is learning about life in general” (p. 42). Jones (1983) suggests the essential theme of organizational socialization is “how the socialization process conditions the newcomer’s subsequent orientation to his or her organizational role” (p. 464).

While most studies examine the organizational socialization of new hires, many researchers argue for the consideration of socialization as an ongoing process throughout an employee’s tenure (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Taormina, 2004; VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). According to Taormina (2004), organizational socialization “can be measured not only to assess newcomers, but also to assess the socialization of members at any given time during their employment in an organization” (p. 77). He also referred to socialization as an ongoing, long-term process. Chao et al. (1994) stated “socialization occurs at all stages of an individual’s career” (p. 740). VanMaanen and Schein

(1979) suggested “if one takes seriously the notion that learning itself is a continuous and life-long process, the entire organizational career of an individual can be characterized as a socialization process” (p. 3). Ashforth, Sluss and Harrison (2007) referred to socialization as a continuous process and considered that individuals may be newcomers or veterans. Additionally, Bauer et al. (2007) noted that “socialization unfolds over time” (p. 716).

The following sections describe socialization stages, socialization processes and activities, and socialization outcomes presented as proximal and distal outcomes. First, socialization stage models are discussed. Next, socialization processes and activities consider organizational-driven tactics, as well as associated employee characteristics and behaviors. Finally, an overview of proximal and distal outcomes is presented. Proximal outcomes are those that are more immediate, direct results of socialization processes, and include newcomer adjustment and socialization learning. Distal outcomes are indirect consequences of socialization processes and include a range of attitudinal outcomes with organizational commitment and turnover intentions being the two outcomes pertaining to this study.

2.1.1 Socialization Stages

Researchers have developed models to examine the sequence of organizational socialization stages. There is general agreement on four stages of socialization: anticipation, encounter, adjustment, and stabilization (Anderson & Thomas, 1996; Ashforth, 2012; Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Ashforth (2012) outlines “four major phases: anticipation (preparation prior to entry), encounter (confronting the reality upon entry), adjustment (meshing with the new reality), and stabilization (becoming and being a bona fide insider)” (p. 175). Employees’ experiences at different stages may influence their attitudes and behaviors (Buchanan, 1974; Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009; Jones, 1986). According to Louis (1980),

“socialization practices facilitate sensemaking and, in the process, encourage appreciation of the local culture and acquisition of a setting-specific interpretation scheme (that) ultimately facilitate(s) adaptation to the new setting and progress through the stages of socialization” (p. 245). The following paragraphs discuss characteristics, processes and outcomes of the various stages.

First, the anticipation or anticipatory stage “encompasses all learning that occurs before a new member joins an organization” (Feldman, 1981, p. 310). This includes an employee’s formal learning such as educational background, as well as informal learning such as what has been learned through family and interpersonal relationships. The anticipatory stage also encompasses an individual’s encounter with an organization’s recruitment and selection processes (Chao, 1988). Pre-work entry experience has been found as an antecedent to positive socialization outcomes (Adkins, 1995; Filstad, 2004). During the anticipatory stage, individuals “develop expectations about their life in the organization and on the job” (Louis, 1980, p. 230). Tracey (2014) suggests that “a company’s image, brand and reputation may influence attitudes and behaviors of job applicants” (p. 682). Organizations should influence the anticipation stage to promote positive and realistic expectations to potential employees.

The second stage, encounter, is characterized by the passage from outsider to newcomer (Louis, 1980). This stage “involves new members actually entering the organization and confronting its realities and contending with the discrepancies between expectations and experience” (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007, p. 9). Feldman (1981) suggested activities during this stage include “role definition, management of intergroup conflicts, and management of outside-life conflicts” (p. 312). These activities have an important role in reducing uncertainty, ambiguity, and role conflict (Klein & Polin, 2012). During this stage, organizations

frequently offer onboarding programs to facilitate the transition as an individual enters a new organization (Klein & Polin, 2012). Onboarding programs consist of practices to inform, welcome and guide newcomers as they adjust to the organization (Klein, Polin, & Sutton, 2015).

The third stage, adjustment, involves reconciling expectations and adapting to both role and organization (Louis, 1980). Ashforth, Sluss, and Harrison (2007) suggest there is less consensus on conceptualization of the third stage is because it is not associated with a specific timespan, therefore leaving greater opportunity for interpretation. Three important representations of the third stage of socialization are adaptation (Louis, 1980), adjustment (Anderson & Thomas, 1996), and change and acquisition (Feldman, 1981). Louis (1980) described adaptation as the passage from newcomer to insider, and considers adaptation “the state of being adapted, of having assumed an insider role are indications of the completion of socialization” (p. 231). Anderson and Thomas (1996) conceptualized the adjustment phase as the result of the anticipatory and encounter stages. According to their model, adjustment allows evaluation of measurable job performance factors and attitudes. During the change and acquisition stage of Feldman’s (1981) model “new recruits master the skills required for their jobs, successfully perform their new roles, and make some satisfactory adjustment to their work group’s values and norms” (p. 310). Despite the difference in terminology, each conceptualization considers the third stage as an outcome of processes during the anticipation and encounter stages. As Louis (1980) describes, “adaptation is treated more as a state than a stage” p. 231.

The fourth stage, stabilization, has been conceptualized as the state of being considered an indisputable organizational member (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). According to Ashforth, Sluss and Harrison (2007), “stabilization focuses on signals and actions that

individuals are bona fide organizational insiders” (pp. 9, 11). Feldman (1981) viewed the fourth socialization stage as the achievement of desired behavioral and affective outcomes. Other researchers consider additional stages beyond stabilization including resocialization and discontinuous events that impact organizational roles (Chao et al., 1994; Louis, 1980). Louis (1980) encourages research examining role transitions within an organization.

A single dominant model for socialization stages has not emerged. However, the stages of socialization are still important for socialization research. Conceptualizations of socialization stages provide situational contexts for research, as many studies are embedded in one or more stage of the socialization process. The socialization stages should not be confused with career stage theory. Past research has conceptualized career stage as employee age, organizational tenure, and positional tenure (Allen & Meyer, 1993). Organizational newcomers or those employees experiencing a boundary passage can be any age. By definition, organizational newcomers have lack organizational tenure, but they may have differences in industry tenure or previous experience with their position in the new organization. According to Boswell et al. (2009), “recent research has also recognized the temporal context in which employees experience and react to their work, examining how attitudes change over time and how these changes impact outcomes” (p. 844).

2.1.2 Organizational Socialization and Organizational-Driven Tactics

Socialization processes are considered by two major categories: organizational-driven tactics and individual-driven attitudes and behaviors. Organizational-driven socialization tactics are focused on tactics used by an employer to facilitate an individual’s transition through the socialization stages (Jex, 2002). The following discussion outlines the seminal model of organizational socialization tactics (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979), followed by a recent

framework developed to outline specific activities for onboarding organizational newcomers (Klein et al., 2015; VanMaanen & Schein, 1979).

An employee enters an organization with expectations about their role and the organizational culture. Their expectations are influenced by their prior work experience, formal training or educational background, influence of interpersonal relationships, and previous experience with the new organization. Sensemaking is the process by which an employee reconciles expectations with reality (Louis, 1980). Organizational socialization can facilitate sensemaking by providing information and access to socialization agents such as human resources representatives, coworkers, mentors and leaders (Fang et al., 2011; Klein et al., 2015). As Chao et al. (1988) points out, “if the socialization process reaffirms the newcomer’s decision to join the organization, their subsequent decisions to continue their employment and to work toward certain goals that satisfy both personal and organizational needs would be positive” (p. 42).

Socialization resources theory views organizational-driven socialization processes through the lens of job demands – resources (JD-R) theory (Saks & Gruman, 2018). In that framework, job demands are “physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Demerouti et al., 2001, as cited by Bakker & Demerouti, 2017, p. 274). “Job resources refer to physical, psychological, social, or organizational features of a job that are functional because they help achieve work goals, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. Job resources can come from the organization (e.g. pay, career opportunities, job security), interpersonal and social relations (supervisor and coworker support, team climate), the organization of work (e.g. role

clarity, participation in decision making), and from the task itself (e.g. skill variety, task identify, task significance, autonomy, performance feedback)” (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008, as cited by Saks & Gruman, 2018, p. 21). Organizational socialization tactics involve the provision of resources designed to facilitate employee learning and adjustment. In their advancement of socialization resources theory, Saks and Gruman (2018) offer 17 socialization resources to facilitate employee learning and adjustment.

VanMaanen and Schein (1979) developed a classification scheme of organizational-driven socialization tactics to facilitate the socialization process that is still widely used in current studies (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2006; Song, Chon, Ding, & Gu, 2015). The tactics “are methods organizations use to help newcomers adapt” (Allen D. , 2006, p. 239) and are measured on a continuum from institutionalized to individualized. Fang et al. (2011) provide the following summary: “under institutionalized tactics, newcomers have access to structured forms of modeling and social support; they undergo common learning experiences as part of a cohort, with clearly defined, sequenced, and time training and orientation activities” p. 131. Institutionalized tactics can “reduce newcomers’ uncertainty by shaping how information is disseminated as well as what sources of information and social resources are given” (Fang et al., 2011, p. 135).

The organizational socialization tactics model from VanMaanen & Schein (1979) does not refer to specific processes or practices by organizations. Instead, the model offers “a framework for understanding specific tactics” (Jex, 2002, p. 66). There are six continuums for organizational socialization tactics outlined in the model which are listed below (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979).

1. Collective versus Individual – degree of group compared to isolated learning
2. Formal versus Informal – degree of separation from regular organization members
3. Sequential versus Random – degree of “discrete and identifiable steps leading to the target role” contrasted with “unknown, ambiguous, or continually changing steps” (p. 51).
4. Fixed versus Variable – degree to which a rigid timetable exists
5. Serial versus Disjunctive – degree to which socialization processes offer grooming by experienced organization members
6. Investiture versus Divestiture – “degree to which a socialization process is constructed to either confirm or disconfirm the entering identity of the recruit” (p. 64).

Jones (1986) developed a measurement scale for the six organizational socialization tactics outlined by VanMaanen and Schein (1979). Further, he categorized the six tactics into a the three-factor model whereby a context factor includes collective and formal tactics, a content factor includes sequential and fixed tactics, and the social aspects factor includes serial and investiture tactics. He also proposed the tactics could be considered on a one-factor continuum from institutionalized to individualized tactics. Figure 2 shows the classification scheme developed by Jones (1986).

| | Institutionalized | Individualized |
|----------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Context | Collective Formal | Individual Informal |
| Content | Sequential Fixed | Random Variable |
| Social Aspects | Serial Investing | Disjunctive Divesting |

Figure 2 Classification of organizational socialization tactics from Jones (1986)

Studies have used Jones' measurement scale for a single categorization of institutionalized versus individualized tactics, the three-factor measures of context, content and social aspects, and studies of VanMaanen and Schein's (1979) six tactics (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1997). One-factor studies have found institutionalized socialization tactics are positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and perceived fit (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Gruman et al., 2006) and were negatively related to role ambiguity, role conflict and intention to quit (Saks et al., 2007). Ashforth et al. (1997) argue the six-factor measure is more robust than either a three-factor or one-factor model.

Social aspects under Jones' (1986) three-factor model include both serial and investing tactics. Serial tactics encourage knowledgeable organizational members to serve as role models or mentors for newcomers (Allen, 2006; Fang et al., 2011). Investiture tactics "allow experienced insiders to provide positive feedback and social support to help newcomers develop relationships and gain feelings of competence and confidence in interactions" (Allen, 2006, as cited by Fang et al., 2011, p. 135). According to Fang et al. (2011), "serial and investiture tactics directly reflect the social or interpersonal aspects of socialization" (p. 137).

Serial and investing tactics support learning and adjustment by helping employees cultivate social networks and build social acceptance (Fang et al., 2011). According to Fang et al. (2011), institutionalized socialization tactics strengthen employees' social networks by helping them develop "mind maps of key contacts and liaisons in different departments for coordination and communication" (p. 135). These mind maps "allow them to target high-status insiders (enhancing network status) from different departments (increasing network range) for communication relationships" (Fang et al., 2011, p. 135).

Serial and investing tactics, or social aspects have been found to be most strongly related with adjustment outcomes (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Fang et al., 2011; Saks et al., 2007). In their meta-analytic review, Saks et al. (2007) found social tactics most strongly predicted eight adjustment outcomes including a negative relationship with role ambiguity, role conflict and intentions to quit, and a positive relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived fit, role orientation and job performance.

Socialization agents are primarily organizational insiders who facilitate newcomer adjustment as a source of information, feedback, access to social capital, and other resources (Saks & Gruman, 2012; Klein & Heuser, 2008). Socialization agents such as supervisors, coworkers, and mentors provide support (Klein, Polin, & Sutton, 2015) and "have been shown to play an important role in the learning process" (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992, p. 851). Regarding organizational newcomers, Fang et al. (2011) point out "socialization activities (e.g., training classes and mentoring programs) also help them interact with trainers and instructors, who generally are supervisors or experienced peers from different departments" (p. 135). According to Saks and Gruman (2012), "socialization agents provide newcomers with information that can

facilitate learning and they are an important source of support than lower newcomer stress and result in positive job attitudes” (p. 42).

In industries characterized by frequent human interaction, customers can be considered socialization agents (Wang et al., 2015). While not technically organizational insiders, customers influence employee learning about job roles and organizational culture through the co-creation of products and services. Wang et al. (2015) acknowledge the role of the customer in employee learning as providing feedback about products and services, and “clarifying role expectations” (p. 9) from the perspective of the customer. They point out “obtaining information and learning behaviors that may facilitate the provision of such exceptional service are highly desirable and often explicitly encouraged” (p. 9).

Relatively few studies have attempted to delineate specific organizational socialization tactics or to provide a practical outline of activities to be used by organizations (Klein et al., 2015). Socialization is an ongoing process that begins prior to organizational entry and continues throughout an individual’s organizational tenure. Onboarding is a part of the organizational socialization process that relates specifically to newcomers as they enter an organization (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007). Klein et al. (2015) developed a framework for onboarding that outlines activities designed and conducted by an organization to facilitate newcomer socialization. According to the researchers, the purpose of onboarding is to “a) reduce the inevitable uncertainty and anxiety newcomers experience, b) help them make sense of their new environment, and c) provide them with the necessary tangible (e.g., explicit knowledge) and intangible (e.g., relationships) resources to become fully functioning members effective in their new role” (p. 265). Their model categorizes onboarding practices into three major activities: inform, welcome, and guide. They further subdivide inform

into three additional categories including communication, resources, and training. This framework provides clear practical implications for strategic human resources, and merits further study on its impact on socialization outcomes.

2.1.3 Organizational Socialization and Individual-Driven Processes

Researchers called for an interactionist approach to the study of organizational socialization (Jones, 1986; Song & Chathoth, 2010; VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). Song and Chathoth (2010) describe the interactionist approach as seeking “to integrate the individual difference and situationist approaches by proposing that a person’s organizational attitudes and behavior are functions of factors in the person and factors in the situation” (p. 365). This approach considers that employees actively participate in organizational socialization processes (Finkelstein, Kulas, & Dages, 2003). The following discusses existing literature about an individual’s role in socialization processes including proactive behaviors and employee attributes.

2.1.4 Proactive Behaviors

Researchers have studied proactive employee behaviors as part of the organizational socialization process. Two frequently researched proactive behaviors are information seeking and relationship building (Ashford & Black, 1996; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Both behaviors consider an individual’s action in the organizational socialization process (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Gruman et al., 2006). These activities can be positively related to role clarity, job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment, engagement and embeddedness (Finkelstein et al., 2003); and negatively related to stress,

anxiety, and turnover intentions (Fang et al., 2011; Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Saks & Ashforth, 1996).

The study of proactive behavior and organizational socialization is influenced by Louis' model of surprise and sensemaking (Louis, 1980). Louis (1980) proposed that "change, contrast, and surprise constitute major features of the entry experience" (p. 235). He suggested "surprise" is characterized by "a difference between an individual's anticipations and subsequent experiences in the new setting" (p. 237). He outlined a model for sensemaking, which refers to cognitive processes utilized to reconcile expectations with the reality of organizational entry or change. This process of sensemaking combined with individual differences subsequently shapes an employee's information-seeking behavior (Miller & Jablin, 1991).

Ashford and Black (1996) developed a scale for seven proactive socialization behaviors including information-seeking, feedback-seeking, general socializing, networking, building relationships with one's boss, job-change negotiating and positive framing. When employee engage in positive framing, they "cognitively frame events as challenges and opportunities rather than as problems or threats" (Ashford & Black, 1996, p. 203). Information-seeking and feedback-seeking are further categorized as sensemaking, while general socializing, networking, and building relationships with one's boss are further categorized as relationship building. They found individuals' differences in desire for control related to information-seeking, general socializing, networking, job-change negotiating, and positive framing. They also found building relationships with one's boss was associated with higher job performance; general socialization was associated with higher job satisfaction; and positive framing was associated with both higher job satisfaction and job performance measures.

Gruman et al. (2006) examined the impact of organizational socialization tactics and self-efficacy on proactive behaviors, the relationship between proactive behaviors and socialization outcomes, and tested mediation of proactive behaviors on the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and self-efficacy. Their measures utilized six of the seven constructs outlined by Ashford and Black (1996). The researchers used the 30-item organizational socialization tactics instrument developed by Jones (1986) and determined the single-factor measure for institutionalized socialization tactics had a better fit than either the three-factor or six-factor model. Institutionalized socialization tactics had a positive impact on four proactive behaviors including feedback-seeking, general socializing, boss relationship building, and information-seeking, but did not find a significant relationship between organizational socialization tactics and the two proactive behaviors of job change negotiation or networking. Five of the proactive behaviors, including feedback-seeking, general socializing, networking, boss relationship building, and information-seeking, fully mediated the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and the outcomes of social integration and organizational commitment and partially mediated the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and person-job fit, person-organization fit, and job satisfaction.

2.1.5 Employee Attributes

Previous research has studied the influence of employee characteristics and attributes on organizational socialization outcomes (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007). Differing from proactive behaviors, an individual's proactive personality orientation during organizational entry has been studied (Ashford & Black, 1996; Filstad, 2004; Finkelstein et al., 2003; Korte, Brunhaver, & Sheppard, 2015; Tang, Liu, Oh, & Weitz, 2014). Self-efficacy (Jones, 1986), self-confidence (Filstad, 2004), learning orientation (Tang et al., 2014), performance orientation

(Tang et al., 2014), and competitive instinct (Filstad, 2004) have also been identified as personal attributes that influenced desirable organizational socialization outcomes.

Researchers have studied the influence of Big Five personality traits on preference for institutionalized socialization tactics (Burbock, Schnepf, & Pessl, 2016; Gruman & Saks, 2011). The Big Five is a framework for examining individual differences in personality traits including openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Two recent studies suggest that personality does impact preference for socialization tactics, and institutionalized socialization tactics are generally preferred (Burbock et al., 2016; Gruman & Saks, 2011). However, there was no overlap between the two studies regarding which of the five traits had a significant relationship with preferences for institutionalized tactics in context, content and social dimensions. Gruman and Saks (2011) found openness was positively related to institutionalized tactics for the social dimension. Additionally, agreeableness was significantly and positively related to preferences for institutionalized tactics for the content and social dimensions. They found no relationship between extraversion and emotional stability factors and preference for organizational tactics. They did find agreeableness related to a preference for context, content and social tactics, and both conscientiousness and openness to experience were positively related to content and social tactics. Burbock et al. (2016) identified a significant positive relationship between conscientiousness and preference for institutionalized tactics in the context and content dimensions. Neuroticism was significantly related to a preference for individualized socialization tactics in the content and social areas. Interestingly, extraversion had a significant and negative relationship with a preference for institutionalized tactics in the context dimension.

Self-efficacy relates to personal belief in ones' own ability to learn and perform a role and can be examined as an attitude in the anticipatory stage and after joining an organization. Jones (1986) measured self-efficacy prior to joining an organization, and then followed by measuring employee perceptions of socialization tactics and outcomes. He found that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation.

Tang et al. (2014) examined how the extent to which an employee is oriented toward learning, performance and proactivity influenced three proactive socialization behaviors: inquiry, observation and networking. The researchers found newcomer learning orientation to be positively associated with inquiry and observation; newcomer performance orientation to be positively associated with observation and networking; and newcomer proactive orientation with networking.

Finally, researchers have considered the role of demographic and work classifications in perceptions of organizational socialization processes. Burbock et al. (2016) found students' age and work experience were negatively related to preference for sequential and fixed socialization tactics. Sequential tactics are clear socialization steps, and fixed tactics follow a structured timetable. Benzinger (2016) examined the use of socialization tactics and proactive behaviors among various types of German workers. Institutionalized socialization tactics positively related to the employment type – permanent workers reported the highest use of institutionalized socialization tactics, followed by fixed-term contract employees reporting less institutionalized socialization tactics, and finally temporary agency workers report the least use of institutionalized socialization tactics. The research found “that permanent newcomers showed the most intensive proactivity compared to contingent workers” (p. 752). Further, duration of

work contract related to the use of institutionalized socialization tactics and employee information-seeking.

2.2 Organizational Socialization Outcomes

Existing research links organizational socialization processes to both immediate and long-term outcomes (Bauer et al., 2007; Jex & Britt, 2014). The socialization literature commonly refers to “more immediate or ‘proximal’ outcomes versus more long-term or ‘distal’ outcomes” (Jex & Britt, 2014, p. 82). Organizational socialization has been positively associated with two general types of proximal socialization outcomes: 1) socialization learning and 2) newcomer adjustment (Fang et al., 2011). Socialization learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge and content (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). Newcomer adjustment refers to the process of reconciling expectations with reality (Louis, 1980).

2.2.1 Socialization Learning

Socialization can be viewed as “a process of learning about a new or changed role and the environment surrounding that role” (Klein & Heuser, 2008, p. 321). Socialization learning refers to the attainment of knowledge related to a job role and organizational culture (Louis, 1980). Ashforth, Sluss and Saks (2007) describe socialization learning as “the acquisition of job knowledge and content referring to the substance of what an individual learns (or should learn) in order to become a proficient and comfortable member of the organization” (p. 449). The learning content involves both information and relationships (Wang et al., 2015). During this process, an individual attains “a variety of information, attitudes and behaviors in order to become more effective organizational members” (Klein & Heuser, 2008, p. 296).

Learning is considered central to organizational socialization (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Klein & Heuser, 2008). According to Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2005), the centrality of learning aligns with sense-making theory whereby “as newcomers come to accurately interpret organizational events, they develop an accurate cognitive map of the organizational context” (p. 116). Further, the authors point out the centrality of learning also aligns with uncertainty reduction theory because “as newcomers learn about their role, colleagues, and organization, they reduce their uncertainty, show improvements in performance and job satisfaction, and are more likely to stay” (p. 116).

Therefore, socialization learning is the goal of socialization processes (Klein & Heuser, 2008; Wang et al., 2015). According to Wang et al. (2015), how well an individual is socialized “depends on the methods or tactics they use during the socialization process” (p. 5). Methods or tactics are performed by both organizations and individuals, which subsequently results in individuals attaining knowledge of socialization content. The content of socialization learning “determines the information that newcomers are supposed to master and the relationships they must establish” (Wang et al., 2015, p. 5) and includes “*what* should be learned by newcomers to complete their transitions into organizational insiders” (Wang et al., 2015, p. 10, emphasis by the author). While socialization content consists of what should be learned by an individual, socialization processes influence “*how much* information and knowledge newcomers actually obtain” (Wang et al., 2015, p. 10, emphasis by author).

Multiple conceptual models have been developed to measure socialization learning content in the context of organizational socialization research (Chao et al., 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003; Morrison, 1995; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Taormina, 1994). According to Klein and Heuser (2008), the socialization content

domains “provide a more direct set of criteria for assessing the extent or degree to which an individual is socialized in each distinct content area and for assessing the impact of antecedents to socialization” (p. 296). While the conceptual models have differences, Ashforth, Sluss, and Harrison (2007) note there is general agreement among the typologies that “learning spans the job and role, interpersonal and group relationships, and the nature of the organization as a whole” (p. 17). Three of the scales measure socialization learning from the perspective of those organizational levels (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Haueter et al., 2003; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Ashforth, Sluss, and Harrison (2007) also identify three themes in the existing models including the acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities; employee adjustment; and socialization support. These themes form the basis for the three other measurement scales (Chao et al., 1994; Morrison, 1995; Taormina, 1994).

The three scales that use organizational levels as learning domains assess role, social, interpersonal resources, and organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005), task, group, and organization (Haueter et al., 2003), and task, role, group, and organization (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). The domains from each measurement scale and domain descriptions are shown in Figure 3.

| Author(s) | Domains | Descriptions |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2005) | Role | Knowledge and mastery of skills and understanding of performance requirements |
| | Social | Integration and camaraderie with their colleagues |
| | Interpersonal resources | Establishment of a network of contacts for help with various problems that they might experience |
| | Organization | Knowledge or familiarity with the wider structural and cultural aspects of the organization |
| Haueter et al. (2003) | Task | Task knowledge, learning how to perform relevant task behaviors, and learning how to interact with others in the course of performing specific tasks |
| | Group | Particulars about the work group and the behaviors associated with the group's rules, goals, and values |
| | Organization | Values, goals, rules, politics, customs, leadership style, and language of the organization |
| Ostroff & Kozlowski (1992) | Task | Task mastery and how to do the job |
| | Role | Establishing the boundaries of responsibility and learning the behavior appropriate for someone in the position |
| | Group | Understanding how to interact and get along with coworkers |
| | Organization | Learning about the politics, power, culture, and value system of the organization |

Figure 3 Socialization learning scales based on organizational levels

The three scales outlined above assess socialization learning outcomes as related to the information acquired from the specified organization levels of task/role, group/social/interpersonal resources, and organization. Also considering information acquisition, Morrison (1995) developed a measurement scale that assesses socialization learning based on types of information obtained. The organization levels previously discussed can be found within domain descriptions, but the domain itself refers to the various information types.

According to the author, the information-seeking measures were based on Ashford's (1986) measures of feedback-seeking behavior (p. 566). The scale includes seven domains and brief descriptions are listed below in Figure 4.

| Author | Domains | Description |
|-----------------|----------------------------|--|
| Morrison (1993) | Technical information | How to execute required tasks |
| | Referent information | What is required and expected as part of one's job role |
| | Social information | Other people and one's relationship to those people |
| | Appraisal information | How others are evaluating one's performance and behavior |
| | Normative information | About the organization's culture |
| | Organizational information | About the firm's structure, procedures, products/services, and performance |
| | Political information | Distribution of power within the organization |

Figure 4 Newcomer Information-Seeking (Morrison, 1993)

The measurement scales from Chao et al.'s (1994) Content Areas of Socialization and Taormina's (2004) Organizational Socialization Inventory consider learning content that is focused on knowledge and information. While still related to organizational levels, task/role, group, and organization do not form the domain structure of the measurement scales. Domains and descriptions of both scales are shown in Figure 5 on the following page.

| Author | Domain | Description |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---|
| Chao (1994) | Language | Knowledge of the profession's technical language as well as knowledge of the acronyms, slang, and jargon that are unique to the organization |
| | Politics | Success in gaining information regarding formal and informal work relationships and power structures within the organization |
| | Performance proficiency | The extent to which the individual has learned the tasks involved on the job |
| | Goals and values | Specific organizational goals and values, links individual to organization |
| | History | Organizational customs, myths, rituals, transmit cultural knowledge, personal backgrounds of organizational members |
| | People | Establishing successful & satisfying work relationships with organizational members |
| Taormina (2004) | Training | How well the company has prepared the employee to do a job |
| | Understanding | How well the employee comprehends how the organization functions and how to operate within it |
| | Coworker Support | How well the employee relates to other members in the organization |
| | Future Prospects | The employee's long-term view with the organization, such as his or her anticipation of continued employment in and the rewards offered by the organization |

Figure 5 Socialization Learning Content Domains

Researchers have discussed limitations of the existing frameworks for socialization content (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Haueter et al., 2003; Klein & Heuser, 2008). According to Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2005), there is overlapping content among the domains, as well as domains that measure multiple concepts.

Several domains in one scale were similar to single domains in others (Klein & Heuser, 2008; Taormina, 2004). According to Klein and Heuser (2008), “several of the Chao et al. (1994) dimensions, particularly the politics and goals/value dimensions, more specifically cover Taormina’s (1994) understanding dimension and Cooper-Thomas and Anderson’s (1998) organizational knowledge dimension” (p. 298). While Klein and Heuser (2008) suggested politics and goals/values could fit within single domains of other scales, Bauer et al. (1998) proposed the single domain of goals/values should be treated as two separate factors (as cited by Klein & Heuser, 2008, p. 299).

Additional criticism of existing socialization learning models is exclusion or inadequate measurement of role-related domains (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Klein & Heuser, 2008). Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) criticize Chao et al. (1994)’s measurement scale for not including role learning. Klein and Heuser (2008) point out the organizational socialization inventory from Taormina (1994) fails to differentiate learning content by different organizational levels.

Finally, socialization learning domains are not clearly distinguished from newcomer adjustment domains (Klein & Heuser, 2008). According to Klein and Heuser (2008), socialization learning scales with the exception of Haueter et al. (2003) fail to differentiate learning from adjustment variables such as task mastery, role clarity, and social integration. For example, Klein and Heuser point out “the performance domain in the Chao et al. (1994) typology is similar to Cooper-Thomas and Anderson’s (2002) role dimension but both conceptually confound task-related learning with the proximal outcome of task mastery” (p. 298). Additionally, Klein and Heuser (2008) note that Cooper-Thomas and Anderson’s social

dimension “assesses the outcomes of social acceptance and integration rather than actual learning” (p. 298).

There is a need for additional socialization learning when there is an organizational change (Chao et al., 1994). Referring to the content areas of socialization (CAS) model developed by the authors, they note “a major job/organizational change demands resocialization in these content areas (Chao et al., 1994, p. 741). Chao et al. (2004) conducted a study that compared the change in socialization learning outcomes across three different groups: job incumbents who kept the same job, job changers who changed jobs within the same organization, and organization changers who changed both jobs and organizations. They found job incumbents had significant positive increases in measures of socialization learning for four domains: performance proficiency, language, people and history. In contrast, organizational changers had significant decreases in five socialization learning domains including performance proficiency, language, people, politics and history. Organizational changers also had greater decreases in socialization learning domains than job incumbents and job changers.

While socialization scholars consider both socialization learning and employee adjustment as proximal outcomes of organizational socialization (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007), an additional perspective considers learning content as a necessary pre-cursor to the proximal adjustment outcomes (Klein & Heuser, 2008). The researchers criticized existing socialization learning scales for lacking differentiation between measures of socialization learning content and measures of newcomer adjustment outcomes including task mastery, role clarity, and social integration. They argue that “socialization learning content dimensions should only include the knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes that need to be acquired in order to

result in proximal socialization outcomes such as task mastery, role clarity, and social interactions” (p. 298).

2.2.2 Newcomer Adjustment

According to Ashforth and Saks (1996), “socialization facilitates the adjustment of newcomers to organizations” (p. 149). According to Merriam-Webster, adjustment is “to achieve mental and behavioral balance between one’s own needs and the demands of others” (p. 16). Research of newcomer adjustment includes the concepts of role ambiguity, role clarity, role conflict, self-efficacy, social acceptance, role innovation, and person-organization fit (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1997; Bauer et al., 2007; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Morrison, 1993).

Researchers have examined the impact of organizational socialization tactics on the adjustment variable of person-organization fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005). According to Kim, Cable, & Kim (2005), person-organization fit refers to “employees’ subjective beliefs about how well their personal values match the organizational culture” (p. 233). Kim, Cable, and Kim (2005) found that institutionalized socialization tactics were positively associated with employees’ person-organization fit, and that positive framing – where employees view potentially negative situations as growth opportunities – moderated that relationship. Related to serial tactics, Cable and Parsons (2001) found “interactions with supportive organizational insiders help newcomers develop social networks and feel accepted in their new environment, while disjunctive and divestiture tactics cause newcomers to sense poor fit in the environment” (p. 16). Disjunctive tactics represent the polar opposite of serial tactics, and suggests employees are without organizational role models from which to receive guidance (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). As the opposite of investiture tactics, divestiture tactics

disconfirm an individual's identity during the socialization process (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979) which related to poor person-organization fit in this study.

Information-seeking has also been related to newcomer adjustment (Finkelstein et al., 2003; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993). Information-seeking reduces uncertainty (Morrison, 1993; Saks et al., 2007). Morrison (1993) found information-seeking influenced the dimensions of newcomer adjustment including role clarity, task mastery and social integration. Bauer et al. (2007) found information-seeking was significantly related to two dimensions of newcomer adjustment – role clarity and social acceptance.

As previously discussed, socialization learning and newcomer adjustment are the two proximal outcomes frequently related to organizational socialization, and there has been confusion between learning content domains and adjustment variables (Klein & Heuser, 2008). Socialization learning is characterized by the knowledge acquired and relationships established through socialization processes (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Louis, 1980; Wang et al, 2015). Newcomer adjustment relates to attitudes resulting from socialization processes and is influenced by socialization learning (Bauer et al., 2007; Cable & Parsons, 2001).

2.2.3 Distal Outcomes

Whereas adjustment attitudes are considered the proximal or direct results of socialization processes, job attitudes have been identified as indirect or distal outcomes of organizational socialization activities and learning. The organizational socialization activities outlined by the organizational socialization tactic framework have been positively associated with several job attitudes including organizational commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Bauer et al., 2007); job satisfaction (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Chao et al.,

1994; Feldman, 1981), embeddedness (Allen & Shanock, 2013); performance (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007), personal identity (Chao et al., 1994), and organizational identity (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). Researchers have also found an inverse relationship between organizational socialization tactics and turnover/quit intentions (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Bauer et al., 2007), and employee burnout (Taormina & Law, 2000).

The constructs of personal identity and organizational identity have both been identified as outcomes of organizational socialization processes (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Chao et al., 1994). Organizational identity refers to “the extent to which an individual defines himself or herself in terms of the organization and what it is perceived to represent” (Ashforth & Mael, 1989, as cited by Ashforth & Saks, 1996, p. 155). Saks and Ashforth (1997) found institutionalized socialization tactics related positively to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational identification, and related negatively to role ambiguity, role conflict and stress symptoms. The latter variables are measured here as distal outcomes but are generally considered proximal socialization outcomes when considered as employee adjustment variables (Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007).

2.3 Organizational Socialization in Hospitality and Tourism

Service quality provided by hospitality companies is dependent on employee performance (Chiang & Lin, 2016). According to Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988), service quality refers to the “degree and direction of the discrepancy between consumers’ perceptions and expectations” (p. 17). Service quality is directly related to firm value, competitive advantage, and overall business performance (Chiang & Lin, 2016). Studies have shown organizational commitment positively influences service quality (Dhar, 2015), and high turnover can negatively impact service quality (Kim, Choi, & Li, 2016). Therefore, Chiang and

Lin (2016) assert “employee commitment is a central component of business performance” (p. 462).

Organizational socialization is important for the hospitality industry due to the connection between employee performance and business results. Employees acquire knowledge about their job role and organizational culture through the socialization process, whereby they learn about the norms, attitudes, and values of the organization, as well as their organizational role (Chao, 1988; Jex, 2002). Additional challenges threaten the ability of hospitality organizations to achieve desired service levels. According to Tracey (2014), the “the intangible nature of services, seasonality and demand fluctuations, the reliance on low-wage/low-skill workers, high fixed costs, and related industry characteristics present several unique challenges from an HR standpoint” (p. 692). Describing the emotional labor required by customer interactions, Lu and Gursay (2016) note “the hospitality industry is a service-oriented industry where workers are always required to behave politely and display appropriate emotions when serving customers” p. 210).

Formal training programs are a common aspect of the socialization process (Saks & Gruman, 2012). Bulut and Culha (2010) describe organizational training as “systematic activities to develop and improve employees’ skills, knowledge, and behavior to enable them to perform job-related duties, accomplish specific tasks and meet quality requirements of HR (human resources) for the future” (p. 311). According to Saks and Gruman (2012), “formal training programs focus on the knowledge and skills that are required to perform particular tasks or jobs” (p. 33).

Training programs in the hospitality industry have been evaluated as inadequate (Shani et al., 2014). Poulston (2008) found poor training was a central problem. The study identified

three themes in response to open-ended questions, including “poor training, misuse of the concept of on-the-job training, and the frequency of (and support for) sink-or-swim workplace initiations” (p. 421). Regarding misuse of the on-the-job training, respondents reported use of “the buddy system” and “show as you go” methods that replaced effective on-the-job training protocols with a trainer present.

Formal socialization tactics are assessed as the degree of separation from regular organization members during the socialization process (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). Hospitality industry managers are challenged with balancing the provision of formal training programs with reaching adequate staffing levels (Thomas et al., 2017). Thomas et al. (2017) note that “supervisors must fight the tendency to throw employees onto the line without ensuring they are ready to perform their specific job duties effectively” (p. 81). Poulston (2008) also advises “performing a task publicly with insufficient skill jeopardizes service quality and can demean and embarrass employees” (p. 414).

Newcomer socialization goes beyond orientation and training. When a newcomer enters an organization, onboarding as part of a broader organizational socialization program serves to reduce uncertainty, aid sensemaking, and connect newcomers with tangible and intangible resources (Klein, Polin, & Sutton, 2015). Where training relates to the acquisition of job skills and knowledge, socialization considers employee adjustment and learning in a social-emotional context by facilitating access to social capital and relational capital as outlined by relational cohesion theory (Allen & Shanock, 2013). In order to address those needs Klein, Polin, and Sutton (2015) developed the Inform-Welcome-Guide (IWG) framework to outline specific practices for newcomer onboarding. The onboarding practices that Klein, Polin and Sutton

(2015) found the practices that were most commonly offered by employers were also the practices that employees found most useful. These are shown in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6 Onboarding Practices from Klein, Polin, & Sutton (2015)

| | |
|------------------------|---|
| Inform – Communication | My manager set aside a block of uninterrupted time to spend with me. |
| Inform – Resources | My workspace was ready for me (including all supplies, materials, and equipment). |
| Inform – Training | I received on-the-job training on how to perform my job. |
| Welcome | There was a gathering (meeting, welcome lunch) for me to meet my fellow associates. |
| Guide | I had a single point of contact (welcome coordinator) that I could reach out to with any questions. |

The labor-intensive and customer-focused nature of the hospitality and tourism industry emphasizes the need for effective organizational socialization. Despite this need, limited academic research on organizational socialization has been conducted from the hospitality and tourism perspective. The following discusses existing studies in the hospitality context. Key concepts include the impact of socialization learning on job satisfaction (Song & Chathoth, 2010; Yang, 2008), the influence of organizational socialization tactics on job satisfaction and work engagement (Song, Chon, Ding, & Gu, 2015), and research concerning the adoption of intranet techniques on newcomer adjustment (Chu & Chu, 2011).

Two studies conducted in the hotel context found socialization learning was significantly related with job satisfaction (Song & Chathoth, 2010; Yang, 2008). Song and Chathoth (2010) surveyed hospitality and tourism students that had just completed internship programs of an average duration of four months. Using the Taormina's (1994) organizational socialization

inventory as the socialization learning measurement scale, they found all four domains, including training, understanding, coworker support, and future prospects, were significantly and positively related to the student's job satisfaction with their internship. Similarly, Yang (2008) found socialization learning was significantly related to job satisfaction. Yang (2008) examined the relationship between organizational socialization and job satisfaction, and further tested hypotheses of the relationships between job satisfaction and commitment and turnover, and the relationship between commitment and turnover intentions.

Organizational socialization tactics have been evaluated for their potential to improve desired outcomes in general organizations, yet there is limited study in hospitality and tourism research. In one such study, Song et al. (2015) studied employees of luxury hotels and resorts with less than one year of tenure. The researchers found that organizational socialization tactics were positively related to both newcomer job satisfaction and newcomer work engagement. They also found institutionalized organizational socialization tactics had a greater impact on job satisfaction when employees had higher core self-evaluations on the dimensions of general self-efficacy, general self-esteem, locus of control, and emotional stability. The researchers recommended socialization strategies that enhance employee core self-evaluations in order to improve socialization effectiveness. This study is consistent with previous studies that relate individual differences to organizational socialization tactics and attitudinal outcomes (Filstad, 2004; Jones, 1986; Song & Chathoth, 2010; Tang et al., 2014).

Chu and Chu (2011) surveyed hotel employees in Taiwan that had been on the job for between 6 to 12 months. They found that newcomers' adoption of intranet techniques had significant effects on task mastery, role clarity, organizational knowledge, and social integration. Intranet refers to a private network with access limited to organizational members. Previous

studies identified task mastery, role clarity, and social integration as dimensions of newcomer adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007; Morrison, 1993).

Certain characteristics of retail industry employment are similar to employment in the hospitality and tourism industry. First, both industries are considered labor intensive. Frontline employees in both industries have the emotional labor of customer problem solving. Many jobs in both industries are also characterized by highly variable schedules to meet fluctuating customer demand. Tang et al. (2014) considered the impact of organizational socialization processes in the context of the retail industry. The researchers found two proactive socialization behaviors, observation and networking, were “positively associated with attitudes toward a retail career” (p. 69).

Matuszewski and Blenkinsopp (2011) conducted in-depth interviews of cruise ship employees. The interviews were focused on “prior expectations and the perceived reality once on board, and their awareness or realization of these differences” (p. 81). Most participants believed they did not have prior expectations, and the remainder of participants believed they had realistic expectations. However, responses revealed all interviewees had tacit expectations and employed various strategies for sensemaking and adjustment. According to the researchers, “the newcomers’ sensemaking of the subjective reality of the cruise ship environment resulted from a mismatch between these tacit expectations and experienced reality, highlighted through reality shock when arriving on board” (p. 84).

2.4 Organizational Socialization Processes and Socialization Learning

The following section discusses existing studies related to organizational socialization tactics and socialization learning outcomes. The following summarizes results of organizational socialization processes on the various socialization learning domains.

Existing studies have found a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and socialization learning (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) found a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and four socialization learning domains - social, role, interpersonal resources, and organization. Ashforth, Sluss and Saks (2007) found institutionalized socialization tactics were positively related to learning. They reported a single measure for socialization learning despite using the seven-item scale from Morrison (1993).

Previous study has been conducted on the impact specific organizational practices on organizational socialization learning. Relating to training practices, Klein and Weaver (2000) found attending an orientation program had a significant impact on the goals/values, history, and people domains of socialization based on the Chao et al.'s (1994) content areas of socialization.

Researchers have considered the impact of the serial and investing tactics on socialization outcomes (Filstad, 2011). These tactics are referred to as social aspects based on Jones (1986) three-component classification scheme. Serial and investiture tactics occur when “experienced organizational members act as role models for new recruits, and newcomers receive positive social support” (Jones, 1986, as cited by Cable & Parsons, 2001, p. 7). According to Cable and Parsons (2001), “an example of a tactic that would be high on the Interpersonal factor is a mentor program where experienced job holders help newcomers adjust, thus allowing the experienced

individual to provide social support to the newcomer while acting as a role model in terms of how they handle certain situations” (p. 7).

Serial tactics refer to the “degree to which socialization processes offer grooming by experienced organizational members” (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979, p. 64). Thus, serial tactics conceptually relate to mentoring, and researchers have linked mentoring with socialization learning outcomes (Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004). Allen et al. (1999) found psychosocial mentoring and career-related mentoring were significantly related to an overall measure of socialization. Further, they found psychosocial mentoring related to the Chao et al. (1994) domains of politics and performance proficiency, and career-related mentoring had a positive significant relationship with the people domain.

There is limited research on the role of the organizational socialization learning domain “future prospects” in organizational socialization research (Taormina, 1999). Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006) propose the need for further study on this aspect of socialization outcomes. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2006) note “Taormina’s (2004) future prospects learning domain is also relevant for organizational stability although it has not been tested as a predictor of absenteeism or leaving” (p. 504). Based on previously cited literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and the four domains of socialization learning – a) training, b) understanding, c) coworker support, and d) future prospects.

2.5 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is a widely-studied topic among organizational behavior and human resources scholars (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Buchanan, 1974; Chao et al., 1994; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Gruman et al., 2006; Kazlauskaite, Buciuniene, & Turauskas, 2006; Mercurio, 2015; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Solinger, vanOlfen, & Roe, 2008). According to Buchanan (1974), employee commitment can be “viewed as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one’s role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth” (p. 533). He proposed three mechanisms of organizational commitment including identification, involvement, and loyalty. Employees may express higher levels of commitment through additional effort, willingness to work extra hours, and increased involvement in the workplace (Chao, 1988).

Existing literature provides two well-established measurement scales for organizational commitment: the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1979) and the three-component model of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) originated by Mowday et al. (1979) measures affective commitment, and Allen and Meyer (1990) introduced a three-component model of organizational commitment based on three themes in attitudinal commitment. These include affective, continuance and normative types of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1987). The researchers explain that “employees with strong affective commitment remain because they *want* to, those with strong continuance commitment because they *need* to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they *ought* to do so” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3).

The following briefly expands the description for affective, continuance and normative commitment types. Affective commitment can be “characterized by positive feelings of identification with, attachment to, and involvement in, the work organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1984, p. 375). Continuance commitment refers to an intention to stay reflecting the direct costs and benefits associated with continuing the relationship (Bendapudi & Berry, 1997). This supports findings that turnover increases as job opportunities become more abundant (Price, 1977). Finally, normative commitment describes the amount of pressure employees feel to adhere to social expectations (Kazlauskaite et al., 2006).

Affective commitment has been proposed as the central core of organizational commitment (Mercurio, 2015; Solinger et al., 2008). Affective commitment reflects an emotional attachment to the goals and values of the organization, while normative and continuance commitments relate to attitudes toward the specific behaviors of leaving or staying with the organization (Simo, Enache, Sallan, & Fernandez, 2014; Solinger et al., 2008). Affective commitment has also been found to most strongly relate to job attitudes (Mercurio, 2015; Yang, 2008; Yang, 2010).

Significant research has examined both antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1982). Mowday et al. (1982) identified four categories related to antecedents of affective commitment: personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics. The categories and their related variables are outlined in Figure 7 on the following page.

| Categories of influence | Related variables |
|----------------------------|--|
| Personal characteristics | Age, tenure, education level, gender, race, and personality factors (achievement motivation, sense of competence, higher-order needs) |
| Job characteristics | Job scope, role conflict, role ambiguity |
| Structural characteristics | Organization size, union presence, span of control, centralization of authority, formalization, functional dependence, decentralization |
| Work experience | Organizational dependability, expectations, personal importance to the organization, positive attitudes toward the organization, perceived pay equity, group norms regarding hard work |

Figure 7 Categories of influence on organizational commitment (Mowday et al., 1982)

Outcomes related to organizational commitment includes job satisfaction, job involvement, occupational commitment, turnover, organizational citizenship behavior, attendance, job performance, and employee well-being (Meyer et al., 2002).

Allen and Meyer (1993) examined the relationship between three conceptualizations of career stages and organizational commitment. The purpose of their study was to examine how the various conceptualizations – employee age, organizational tenure, and positional tenure – influenced commitment levels. They found “affective and normative commitment increase across employee age, while continuance commitment increases as organizational and positional tenure increase” (p. 60).

2.5.1 Organizational Commitment in Hospitality

The nature of the hospitality industry increases the importance of organizational commitment, as employee commitment levels have been found to positively influence service quality (Dhar, 2015).

Existing studies have examined antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment in the hospitality context. Education levels, perceived supervisor support, communication,

influence, and job satisfaction have all been found to positively impact organizational commitment among hospitality employees (Brien, Thomas, & Hussein, 2015; Gonzalez, Sanchez, & Guzman, 2016; Kang, Gatling, & Kim, 2015; Yang, 2008; Yang, 2010). In their study of Spanish hotel employees, Gonzalez et al. (2016) found level of education was inversely related to employee commitment meaning that employees with lower levels of education had higher levels of commitment. Kang et al. (2015) found perceived supervisor support positively influenced organizational commitment in hospitality frontline employees. They also found that affective commitment fully mediated the relationship between perceived supervisor support and turnover intentions. This means that hospitality frontline employees with higher levels of perceived supervisor support were more committed to their organizations, and less likely to express a willfulness to leave their jobs. Brien et al. (2015) explored the influence of organizational social capital on employee commitment in the hotel industry and found communication and influence positively impacted employee commitment.

Yang (2008) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment among employees in globally branded Taiwanese tourist hotels. They noted that job satisfaction had a strong correlation with affective commitment, as well as a weaker relationship with continuance commitment. Further, affective commitment was significantly and negatively related to employee intentions to leave the hotel and the industry. In a similar study, Yang (2010) corroborated their previous finding that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and continuance commitment among employees in globally branded Taiwanese tourist hotels, including a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment. They also supported their finding from the previous study that affective commitment was significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions.

2.5.2 Organizational Socialization and Organizational Commitment

Organizational socialization processes include mechanisms that have been found to positively influence organizational commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986). Taormina (2004) suggests that organizational socialization can be a “comprehensive human resource concern” (p. 90) because of its influence on an employee’s organizational commitment. According to Mercurio (2015), organizations can offer an environment to bolster employee commitment through provision of a purposeful socialization program that spells out organizational standards, reduces uncertainty, clarifies job roles, and provides positive role models. Previous research showed employees who experienced socialization tactics perceived as more institutionalized had higher levels of employee commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986).

Various studies linking organizational socialization and organizational commitment have focused on affective commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gruman et al., 2006; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Taormina & Bauer, 2000; Taormina, 2004). Unlike other studies, Allen and Shanock (2013) did not find a direct path between organizational socialization tactics and affective commitment but discovered socialization tactics were positively related to commitment through perceived organizational support. Additionally, they found employee commitment mediated negative relationships between perceived organizational support and turnover, and embeddedness and turnover. Klein and Weaver (2000) observed a connection between orientation program attendance and affective organizational commitment. This connection was mediated by goals/values and history socialization domains.

While previous studies examined organizational socialization tactics as a single factor, other research showed direct and indirect relationships between socialization tactics and organizational commitment using multi-factorial models of organizational socialization tactics (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004). Using the three-factor model, Allen and Shanock (2013) found embeddedness mediated the relationship between the content and social aspects factors and organizational commitment. Using the six-factor framework, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) identified serial and investing tactics were directly and positively associated with organizational commitment. Mentoring programs designed to provide role models can be considered a serial tactic or part of social aspects, and mentoring was positively related to organizational commitment (Baranik, Roling, & Eby, 2010)

Organizational commitment has been widely studied in hospitality research (Brien et al., 2015; Kang et al., 2015; Yang, 2008; Yang, 2010). However, there is limited study that examines the impact of organizational socialization and organizational commitment in the hospitality context. Tang et al. (2014) conducted a study of retail employees. This can be related to hospitality, as the retail industry shares service-oriented characteristics of the hospitality industry. The study focused on individual differences in learning orientation, performance orientation, and proactive personality were related to proactive behaviors including inquiry, observation, and networking. Subsequently, inquiry and observation had a positive influence on role clarity, and observation and networking related positively to attitudes toward a retail career. Role clarity positively impacted organizational commitment, which suggests that employees have higher commitment levels when they more clearly understand job tasks, work methods and priorities. Additionally, positive attitudes toward a career in the retail industry were also associated with higher employee commitment. While the study is relevant due to the

shared characteristics of the retail and hospitality industries, it focuses on individual differences and behaviors without consideration of the organizational-driven socialization processes that influences socialization outcomes. Therefore, further study is need on organizational socialization and employee commitment in the hospitality context.

Consistent with social exchange theory, investment in employee socialization leads to desirable outcomes including organizational commitment. Existing study on social exchange theory supports the relationship between organizational support and organizational commitment (Kang et al., 2015). The researchers noted that “when employees recognize that they are being paid the level of support needed from their supervisors, they feel more obliged to meet expectations for work performance, which in turn increases organizational commitment” (Kang et al., 2015, p. 71). Considering these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – a) training, b) understanding, c) coworker support, and d) future prospects – and organizational commitment.

2.6 Turnover

Turnover refers to “the termination of an individual’s employment with a given company” (Tett & Meyer, 1998, p. 262). Distinctions have been made between voluntary and involuntary turnover. Voluntary turnover refers to “an employee’s voluntary withdrawal from an organization” (Aquino, Griffeth, Allen, & Hom, 1997) or an “individual’s decision to leave the organization” (Wanous, 1980, p. 47). Stalcup (1997) identified four reasons for involuntary turnover: “violations of company rules, refusal to follow instruction, lower paid replacement, and poor performance” and three reasons for voluntary turnover: “dissatisfaction with employer,

dissatisfaction with the industry, and advancement opportunities” (as cited by Madanoglu, Moreo, & Leong, 2004, pp. 24-25).

Studies have examined the impact of employee expectations on turnover. This relates to the expectancy theory proposed by Vroom (1964), as well as the anticipatory stage of the organizational socialization process. According to Porter and Steers (1973), “most employees place a fairly high valence on the attainment of their expectations in certain areas, such as pay, promotion, supervisory relations, and peer group interactions” (p. 170) and subsequently, “the decision to participate or withdraw may be looked upon as a process of balancing received or potential rewards with desired expectations” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 171).

2.6.1 Turnover in Hospitality

Turnover has been widely identified as a key human resource challenge in the hospitality industry (Iverson & Deery, 1997). Iverson and Deery (1997) found “the industry has created a turnover culture, where there is a normative belief among workers that relatively high turnover is quite acceptable” (p. 79). Job characteristics such as work hours outside traditional business hours, shift work, irregular vacation days, physical demands, heavy workloads, and low wages can be contributing factors that lead to actual turnover and turnover intentions (Chiang & Liu, 2017; Iverson & Deery, 1997; Lee et al., 2012; Richardson, 2010; Shani et al., 2014). The hospitality industry has accepted high turnover rates as characteristic of the industry citing reasons such as “seasonal adjustments, youthful employees, new competitors opening up” (Woods & Macaulay, 1989, p. 79).

Front-of-the-house employees face challenges of emotional labor in suppressing emotions to handle customer needs and concerns face-to-face (Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Xu, Martinez, and Lv (2017) found a connection between emotional alignment and turnover

intentions in frontline hotel employees. Surface acting or “displaying behavioral cues that represent the emotions required of the job without feeling that emotion internally” (Hochschild, 1983, as cited by Xu et al., 2017, p. 289) was positively associated with turnover intentions. Alternately, deep acting or “aligning one’s inner emotions with those required of the job without feeling that emotion internally” (Hochschild, 1983, as cited by Xu et al., 2017, p. 289) was negatively associated with turnover intentions.

Back-of-the-house employees, such as hotel room attendants, deal with repetitive, manual labor tasks (Chiang & Liu, 2017). Chiang and Liu (2017) studied job stress and job burnout of hotel room attendants. They found job stress positively influenced job burnout, and job burnout positively impacted turnover intentions. They also noted that internal marketing significantly moderates the impact of job stress on job burnout. Whereas organizational socialization tactics can be considered a form of internal marketing, organizations can use socialization tactics to alleviate job stress, and subsequently impact the related outcomes of job burnout and turnover intentions.

Thomas et al. (2017) investigated potential differences in turnover intentions between front-of-the-house and back-of-the-house non-management employees in a casino management company. While the results did not identify a difference in intent to leave the company between front-of-house and back-of-house employees, a significantly greater number of back-of-house employees reported intentions to leave their current supervisor than front-of-house employees.

Kim et al. (2015) examined the role of mentoring on job stress, job satisfaction, employee commitment and turnover intentions among employees of “super deluxe” South Korean hotels. They found three functions of mentoring – career development, psychosocial support and role modeling – negatively impacted role conflict and turnover intentions, and positively impact job

satisfaction and organizational commitment. Psychosocial support was the only mentoring function found to have a negative impact on role ambiguity. Role conflict was found to increase turnover intentions.

Existing research has also found a negative relationship between commitment and turnover intentions (Kim et al., 2015; Yang, 2008; Yang, 2010). In addition to their findings on the relationship between mentoring and turnover intentions, Kim et al. (2015) also found a significant negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Similarly, Yang (2008) found affective commitment negatively impacted an employee's intention to leave the industry and the hotel. Yang (2010) also found affective commitment to be significantly and negatively related to turnover intentions. These studies were conducted among employees of globally branded Taiwanese tourist hotels.

Past research has also examined the role of employee demographics on turnover intentions in the hospitality industry. Iverson and Deery (1997) found "younger employees have a higher propensity to leave than older employees, and male employee were less likely to stay than females" (p. 75). Surprisingly, their research found no difference in turnover intentions between permanent workers and casual/part-time workers.

2.6.2 Organizational Socialization Tactics and Turnover

There is limited understanding of how organizational socialization tactics impact turnover intentions (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013). Studies have found institutionalized socialization tactics negatively impacted quit intentions (Ashforth & Saks, 1996) and actual turnover (Allen, 2006). Ashforth and Saks (1996) found socialization tactics that were more collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investing were negatively related to quit intentions. Allen (2006) examined the impact of organizational socialization tactics on actual

turnover collected one year following survey administration and found socialization tactics that were serial and investing had a significant negative correlation with turnover. Serial tactics consider the degree to which employees learn from organizational role models, and investing tactics concern the degree of identity confirmation. Jones (1986) referred to the serial and investing tactics as social aspects in his widely studied classification scheme.

Research also found indirect relationships between organizational socialization tactics and turnover intentions (Allen, 2006; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Allen (2006) observed on-the-job embeddedness mediated the negative relationship between investiture socialization tactics and turnover. While Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) confirmed institutionalized organizational tactics were positively related with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, they did not find a significant direct relationship between tactics and turnover intentions. Cable and Parsons (2001) found sequential, fixed, serial and investing organizational tactics had positive relationship with person-organization fit and values congruence, and that person-organization fit and values congruence were negatively associated with turnover.

Perceived supervisor support can be related to serial and investing organizational socialization tactics, as well as the coworker support learning domain of Taormina's organizational socialization inventory. Kang et al. (2015) found "supervisory support had a significant and negative indirect effect on employees' turnover intention via their organizational commitment" (p. 82). Kang et al. (2015) also found that "affective organizational commitment fully mediated the relationship between supervisor support and employees' turnover intentions" (p. 82). Based on the above findings, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: There is a significant negative relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and turnover intentions.

2.6.3 Socialization Learning and Turnover Intentions

The preceding discussion provided a rationale for examining the influence of organizational socialization tactics on turnover intentions. The following discusses the relationship between socialization learning domains and turnover. As previously outlined, organizational socialization tactics provide a classification scheme for organizational-driven socialization processes. In contrast, socialization learning represents outcomes of both organizational- and individual-driven processes and factors. According to Louis (1980), socialization learning relates to role and culture. Ashforth, Sluss and Harrison (2007) outlined six categories of socialization learning content: task/job, role, social/group, organization, sources, and adjustment.

Maertz and Griffeth (2004) developed a theoretical framework to categorize eight motivational forces of voluntary turnover, and two of these motivation forces can be considered in the context of organizational socialization learning domains. These eight forces include affective, calculative, contractual, behavioral, alternative, normative, moral/ethical and constituent. The future prospects socialization content learning domain directly relates to the calculative forces category which the researchers described as “a cognitive evaluation of one’s future prospects of membership in the organization” (p. 670). Additionally, the coworker support learning domain directly relates to the constituent forces category, which “involve an employee’s relationship with individuals or groups within the organization” (p. 674).

Previous studies have examined the relationship between socialization learning domains and turnover intentions (Bigliardi et al., 2005; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Bigliardi et al. (2005) found that perceived levels of socialization learning domains had a significant and negative impact on turnover intentions. Similarly, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) observed that social, role, interpersonal resources, and organization learning domains were negatively associated with turnover intentions. They proposed a mediating effect of newcomer learning domains on the relationship between tactics and turnover intentions but did not find a significant effect. In a related study of frontline hotel employees, Xu et al. (2017) examined in-depth communication – an assessment of social resources and social support – on turnover intentions. The researchers found in-depth communication reduced turnover intentions for those employees who did not engage in deep acting or genuinely express their emotions. Toward further exploration of the relationship between socialization learning and turnover intentions, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: There is a significant negative relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – a) training, b) understanding, c) coworker support, and d) future prospects – and turnover intentions.

2.7 Influences on organizational socialization outcomes

In recent years, Generation Z has joined three other generations represented in the current workforce (Lu & Gursay, 2016). Generations, or generational cohorts, are grouped by their birth years. Generations are thought to have shared values based on their collective memories of historical, cultural and societal experiences during formative years (King et al., 2017; Zopiatis, Krambia-Kapardis, & Varnavas, 2012). While generational classifications typically consist of

15-20 years (Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Lu & Gursoy, 2016; Sepannen & Gualtieri, 2012; Zopiatis et al., 2012), there is disagreement regarding the exact birth years associated with each cohort. A report on millennials identified as many as 21 different birth spans among various sources (Sepannen & Gualtieri, 2012). Cohort names for Baby Boomers and Generation X have been consistent (Fry, 2018). However, the cohort to follow Generation X is referred to both as Generation Y and Millennials despite referring to similar birth year groupings. This study adopts the birth year groupings and cohort names from Pew Research Center including Baby Boomers (1946-1964); Generation X (1965-1980); Millennials (1981-1996); and Generation Z (born 1997 and after) (Fry, 2018). The Pew Research Center is a nonpartisan organization in the United States whose activities include “public opinion polling, demographic research, content analysis and other data-driven social science research” (Pew Research Center, 2018).

In addition to personal values, generational cohorts are expected to share similar work values influenced by their collective experience (Chen & Choi, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013). Generational differences may influence an individual’s expectation of their work, work environment, and personal approaches to fulfilling their expectations (Gursoy et al., 2008). Shared work values and expectations also contribute to work attitudes such as engagement, turnover intentions, and commitment (Lub et al., 2012; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Solnet et al., 2012).

King et al. (2017) considered the impact of generational values on internal brand management. The researchers encourage organizations to appeal to the different cohorts based on the values pertaining to their generation. They found members of Millennials were interested in social rewards including “a chance to make friends” and a role that “permits contact with a lot of people” (p. 99). According to their findings, Generation X value altruistic rewards which

include helpfulness and contribution to society. Finally, Baby Boomers seek intrinsic rewards and want their work to be interesting. They also want their work to provide opportunities for new learning, and value learning “where the skills you learn will not go out of date” (p. 99). According to the study, these values have a significant impact on brand fit, which gives companies the opportunity to build brand champions through emphasis on the values associated with each generation.

Employees and managers may have different perceptions of generational cohorts that can impact the work environment (Chi, Maier, & Gursoy, 2013). Thomas et al. (2017) note that “managing the team cohesion of a workforce can be difficult, particularly in an era where Baby Boomers, Generation X, and Generation Y are continuously working together in a highly stressful environment” (p. 80). Despite the importance of gaining a better understanding of generations in the hospitality workforce, King et al. (2017) suggest current research regarding generations is lacking.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of organizational socialization tactics on the domains of socialization learning and on organizational commitment in the hotel industry. Additionally, the study investigated the influence of socialization tactics and learning on turnover intentions.

3.1 Research Design

A mixed methods approach was utilized to gain deeper insight into socialization tactics and learning. The method was chosen based on a pragmatic worldview. Four characteristics of pragmatic worldview include consequences of actions, problem centered, pluralistic, and real-world practice oriented (Creswell & Clark, 2011). This study looks at the consequences, or results, of organizational-driven socialization tactics to address challenges of employee commitment and turnover intentions in the hospitality context. The mixed methods approach utilized in this study examines multiple perspectives by augmenting survey data with qualitative interviews.

A convergent parallel mixed methods design was used. In this type of design, quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently, analyzed separately, and merged during the interpretation of results (Creswell & Clark, 2011). According to Creswell and Clark (2011), the purpose of convergent parallel design is “synthesizing complementary quantitative and qualitative results to develop a more complete understanding of a phenomenon” (p. 77).

The quantitative strand utilized surveys based on a comprehensive literature review. Surveys instruments were adapted from validated scales. The surveys asked hotel employees for their perceptions of their organization’s socialization processes, assessed employee learning,

examined organizational commitment levels, and asked employees about their turnover intentions. The data was analyzed with the objective of generalizing from the sample to a larger population of hotel employees.

In the qualitative strand, semi-structured interviews were used to ascertain richer details about the content, context, and social factors related to organizational socialization tactics experienced by employees. The interview guide asked employees about discontinuous events that impacted learning about their job role and culture, as well as open-ended questions based on VanMaanen and Schein's (1979) six organizational socialization tactics and Jones' (1986) three-factor framework.

3.2 Quantitative Procedure

3.2.1 Quantitative Participants

The sample included 14 hotels from 5 major hotel management companies. These hotels are a convenience sample from a population of upscale and upper midscale hotels. Thirteen of the hotels in the sample were major international brands, and one of the hotels was an independent property whose competitive set consisted of upscale and upper midscale hotels. All were managed by a major hotel management company. The hotels were all located in a Midwestern region with one large metropolitan area and several small- to medium-sized cities. Participants were 18 years or older, were either full-time or part-time employees, held hourly line-level or supervisory positions, and were representative of the study's intended population.

After obtaining approval from the Purdue University Institutional Review board, the researcher gained support from four major hotel management companies with hotel operations in

the region. Contact information for individual hotels was gained through an executive at that company, and general managers of the individual hotels were contacted to ask for participation. Permission was requested to conduct surveys on hotel property and during the employees' work hours. During this process, the purpose of the study was explained. Additionally, a copy of the survey was provided to the general managers of hotels considering participation. Fourteen hotels agreed to participate. Visits were scheduled for surveys to be administered in person.

3.2.2 Quantitative Data Collection

The researcher visited hotels in person at various shift times. The researcher was given access to request employee participation at pre-shift, daily huddle meetings, and throughout the property. Employees were assured that their participation was voluntary. Participants were required to be at least 18 years of age to participate in the survey. Paper surveys were administered as many hotel employees do not have at-work computer access. Attempts were made to keep the survey as short as possible to encourage completion while still meeting research objectives. A cover letter was included with the survey describing the purpose of the study. The letter explained that participation was voluntary and assured participants that their responses were confidential. Researchers' names and contact information were also provided in the letter. The letter and survey were available in English and Spanish to allow participants to choose the language with which to complete the survey. The letter and survey were translated by a Spanish instructor and validated by two native Spanish speakers that were not involved in the research design or data collection. Participants were instructed not to include their name on any part of the survey to ensure participants' confidentiality. There was no identifiable information requested on the survey.

3.2.3 Instrument Development and Measurements

The survey instrument included four sections: organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning domains, organizational commitment / turnover intentions, and demographic and job characteristics. The following sections outline measurement items used in each area.

3.2.3.1 Organizational Socialization Tactics

Section 1 of the survey evaluated organizational socialization tactics. Organizational socialization tactics are a classification scheme of organizational-driven methods to facilitate the socialization process (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979). VanMaanen and Schein (1979) proposed six organizational tactics measured on a bi-polar continuum. These tactics include formal, collective, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture. Jones (1986) proposed a three-factor model based on the original six factors from VanMaanen and Schein (1979). The three-factor model considers formal and collective tactics as context, sequential and fixed as content, and serial and investiture as social aspects. Jones (1986) also proposed tactics could be considered as institutionalized versus individualized.

Previous studies have tested and supported use for the six-factor model (Allen, 2006), the three-factor model (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Cable & Parsons, 2001), and a single-factor model (Gruman et al., 2006; Song et al., 2015). Using confirmatory factor analysis, Gruman et al. (2006) found the single factor was a better fit than either the six- or three-factor model. Alternately, Allen (2006) found six factors fit better than either one or three factors.

The original 30-item measurement scale from Jones (1986) has been reduced in previous studies to address concerns regarding survey length (Allen, 2006; Allen & Shanock, 2013; Cable & Parsons, 2001). The survey instrument for this study used a 12-item scale developed by Cable

and Parsons (2001) as a reduction from Jones (1986). Adapted from Jones (1986), the measurement scale consisted of “two items from each of the six socialization tactics that loaded the highest on Jones’ proposed socialization factors” (Cable & Parsons, 2001, p. 12). In this study, three scale items were updated to remove wording that was limited to new hires. The terminology was also adapted from “organization” to company to encourage less formal wording. Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Average scores for the single-factor of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics were calculated.

3.2.3.2 Organizational Socialization Learning Domains

Section 2 assessed employee perceptions of socialization learning outcomes. Socialization learning is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge and content (Ashforth, Sluss & Saks, 2006). Employee learning about the organizational role and culture is considered a proximal outcomes of socialization processes, and learning has been found to impact employee attitudes such as job satisfaction (Chao et al., 1994). There are multiple measurement scales that assess socialization learning. The socialization learning domains developed by Chao et al. (1994) and Taormina (1994) consider learning content focused on knowledge and information. This differs from conceptual models with learning domains based on organizational levels which measure learning content by task/role, group, and organization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005; Haueter et al., 2003; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

This study utilizes the Organizational Socialization Inventory (OSI) framework from Taormina (1994). This measurement scale was used for the study because it is the only scale for socialization learning that assesses training and future prospects as outcomes of socialization processes. Like Chao et al.’s (1994) content areas of socialization (CAS), the OSI also measures

the content of what an employee should learn through socialization rather than viewing each organizational level as a learning domain. However, in a comparison study, Taormina (2004) found Chao et al.'s (1994) six content areas of socialization (CAS) fit into the three of the four OSI domains. The study found variance on the OSI's training variable explained variance on the performance proficiency variable of the CAS. The research also found that "understanding on the OSI explained most of the variance for all four of the theoretically related CAS subscales of goals and values, history, language and politics" and "co-worker support on the OSI explained most of the variance for people on the CAS" (p. 89). Finally, the OSI includes a future prospects domain that is not included in the CAS.

The OSI scale measures four learning domains including training, understanding, coworker support, and future prospects. Taormina (1994) described the four dimensions as "the employee's perceptions of: (1) the training received from the organization; (2) his or her understanding of organization operations; (3) the support (or lack thereof) received from coworkers; and (4) his or her prospects for the future in the organization" (p. 136). The original scale from Taormina (1994) had Cronbach alpha scores of .76 for training, 0.79 for understanding, 0.81 for coworker support, and 0.76 for future prospects (Taormina, 1994). Scale items were adapted to remove wording that was limited to new hires. The terminology was also adapted from "organization" to company to encourage less formal wording. Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

3.2.3.3 Organizational Commitment

Section 3 measured organizational commitment using the eight-item affective commitment scale from Allen & Meyer (1990). Organizational commitment is generally understood to be an employee's emotional attachment to the goals and values of the organization

(Buchanan, 1974), and the affective commitment scale measures an employee's emotional bond with their organization (Simo et al., 2014; Solinger et al., 2008). Affective commitment is part of Allen and Meyer's (1990) three-component scale which also includes continuance commitment and normative commitment. In contrast with affective commitment, continuance and normative commitments measure attitudes toward the behaviors of leaving or staying (Simo et al., 2014; Solinger et al., 2008). Previous research examining organizational commitment as a socialization outcome has focused on affective commitment (Allen & Shanock, 2013; Gruman et al., 2006; Klein & Weaver, 2000; Taormina, 2004), and multiple studies related to organizational socialization have isolated Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale as a measure of organizational commitment (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Dhar, 2015; Filstad, 2011; Gruman et al., 2006; Taormina, 2004). This study sought to examine the influence of socialization learning on an employee's attachment with the organization. Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The alpha score for the original affective commitment measure was 0.87.

3.2.3.4 Turnover Intentions

Section 3 also evaluated turnover intentions. Turnover intentions were measured using two items adapted from Colarelli (1984): "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months" and "If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization one year from now." Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. During the analysis, it was determined that the Cronbach alpha score for the two items did not meet the acceptable cutoff. Therefore, one of the items was dropped. The single item "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months" was used in hypothesis testing and further analysis as an assessment of turnover intentions.

3.2.3.5 Personal and Organizational Characteristics

Section 4 consisted of questions regarding demographic information and employment characteristics. The demographic section included gender, age, marital status, and highest level of education completed. Participants were asked to check male or female for gender. Participants were asked to write their age at the time of the survey. Age was transformed into four generational groups: Generation Z, Millennials, Generation X, and Baby Boomers. Marital status responses were married or not married. Finally, response choices for highest level of education included less than high school, high school graduate, some college (certificate/diploma), undergraduate degree (BS/BA), or graduate degree.

Employment characteristics concerned company tenure, hotel tenure, positional tenure, and amount of time working for their current supervisor. Participants were asked to note the number of years worked in the hotel industry and the number of years worked at their specific hotels. They were asked to note the number of years worked in their current position and how long they have worked for their immediate supervisor. Regarding employment status, participants were asked if they were full-time or part-time employees. Participants were asked if they had high, low or no guest contact. They were also asked in which department they worked: front office, housekeeping, accounting, human resources, sales & marketing, food & beverage – servers, food & beverage – culinary, food & beverage – stewarding, maintenance and other. A blank was provided for respondents to note a response for other. Finally, participants were asked to write their job position.

3.3. Qualitative Procedure

The previous section described the quantitative data collection and analysis procedures used as the primary research method for this study. This section discusses the qualitative

interviews used as the secondary research method. Qualitative interviews were included in the research design to gain additional context on organizational socialization tactics, as well as events experienced by organizational members that supported a need for re-socialization. In-person interviews were conducted with hotel employees.

3.3.1 Qualitative Participants

Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured interviews with hotel employees. Permission to conduct one-on-one interviews with hotel employees were obtained after permission had been granted to visit the hotels to administer surveys. Interviews were conducted at six of the fourteen hotels in the sample. At four hotels, interviews were conducted on the same day as surveys were collected. At two hotels, follow-up visits were scheduled for a separate day. This study adopted convenience and purposeful sampling techniques to select participants. A convenience sample was based on the availability and willingness of participants to be interviewed (Robinson, 2014), and purposeful sampling is when “researchers intentionally select (or recruit) participants who have experienced the central phenomenon, or the key concept being explored” (Creswell & Clark, 2011, 173). The inclusion criteria for interview participants was hotel employees who had also completed the quantitative survey. Using the same individuals is appropriate in a convergent parallel design when the intent is to compare quantitative and qualitative data sets (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Participants were selected on a first-come, first-served basis of willingness to participate and ability to participate during available interview times.

3.3.2 Qualitative Data Collection

Interviews were conducted after the majority of surveys had been collected to ensure privacy of the participants. The researcher was given a meeting room or established a quiet space to conduct interviews, and arrangements were made for interviewees to visit that location. Participants were required to be at least 18 years of age to participate in the survey. All interviews were conducted face-to-face by the researcher at the participants' workplaces during work hours. At the beginning of each interview, participants were briefed about the purpose of the study and assured of confidentiality. The researcher then asked for permission to digitally record the interviews. All participants agreed to be recorded.

3.3.3 Qualitative Interview Guide

The interview guide consisted of three sections: 1) background information, 2) discontinuous events, and 3) organizational socialization tactics. A limited amount of background information was sought. This background information focused on the study content rather than the demographic information of participants. Participants were asked about the number of years in the following work situations: working in the hotel industry, employed at their current hotel, working in their current position, and working for their current supervision. They were also asked for their birth year. The discontinuous events asked participants about major changes that have occurred at their hotel and how those events impacted their learning about their job role or organizational culture. The organizational socialization tactics section included seven questions, and asked participants to describe learning experiences based on the Jones' (1986) three-factor model of organizational socialization. There were 11 total questions on discontinuous events and organizational socialization tactics.

The discontinuous events section was adapted from an interview guide from Akessen and Skalen (2011). Their interview questions sought employee perceptions of organizational processes intended to establish a service-dominant professional identity. Their questions included the following: “What has changed during the last couple of years (work tasks, customer meetings, etc.)? How has the change been manifested? How has the change affected you in your work situation? Are there any new skills or knowledge that you have been forced to obtain?” (p. 27). These questions were adapted for the hotel setting, and included the following:

- What major changes have happened at your hotel since you have been working here? (GM, changed management company, etc.)?
- How has the change affected your work situation?
- Are there any new skills or knowledge that you have had to obtain?

The questions related to the organizational socialization tactics were adapted from descriptions of the six organizational socialization tactics originated by VanMaanen and Schein (1979) and the three-factor model of the six tactics outlined by Jones (1986). Two questions related to the context factor of organizational socialization, which includes collective and formal tactics.

- Have most of your learning experiences typically been set up to include other coworkers or have been they been more individual? Describe the types of experiences you’ve had.
- Has most of your learning been separate from your job or has it taken place on the job? Describe the types of experiences you’ve had.

Two questions related to the content factor, which include sequential and fixed tactics.

- Describe how the sequence of learning activities or experiences for learning about your job and company have been communicated to you? (or has that been unclear).

- Have you been made aware or are you currently aware of a timetable or stages for your progress with your job or within the hotel?

Three factors related to the social aspects factor which include social and learning tactics.

- How have your coworkers helped you learn about your job, the hotel, and the company?
Tell me about anyone you would describe as a role model.
- How have hotel leaders such as supervisors, managers, and company executives, been helpful in your learning?
- What types of support have you received from experienced organizational members that has helped you learn about your job and the company?

An additional question was added to the social aspects section pertaining to the role of hotel guests as socialization agents. While socialization agents are typically organizational insiders, Wang et al. (2015) proposed that customers be included as socialization agents in their taxonomy of context, socialization, and newcomer learning. According to the authors, customers could be considered socialization agents because they provide feedback regarding tangible products and service delivery that contributes to an employee's learning about their job roles and organizational culture. Therefore, a question was added to ascertain how customers help an individual acquire the social knowledge and skills necessary to perform an organizational role. The question follows:

- How have hotel guests helped you learn about your job and your company?

3.4 Data Analysis

The following section outlines data analysis procedures for the quantitative and qualitative strands of the study. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), data analysis follows similar general procedures for both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. They outlined six steps including “preparing the data for analysis, exploring the data, analyzing the data, representing the analysis, interpreting the analysis, and validating the data and interpretations” (p. 204). Table 1 shows the six steps and the corresponding analysis procedures for quantitative and qualitative data. Following the table, study procedures are discussed first for quantitative data analysis, and followed by procedures used for qualitative data analysis.

Table 1 Recommended Data Analysis Procedures for Mixed Methods Studies

Source: Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 204

| Rigorous quantitative data analysis procedures | General | Persuasive qualitative data analysis procedures |
|--|----------------------------------|---|
| Code data by assigning numeric values. Prepare the data for analysis. Clean the database. Recode and compute new variables for computer analysis. (SPSS) Establish codebook. | Preparing the data for analysis. | Organize documents. Transcribe text. Prepare the data for analysis with a computer program (NVivo 12). |
| Visually inspect data. Conduct descriptive analyses. Check for trends and distributions. | Exploring the data. | Read through the data. Write memos. Develop qualitative codebook. |
| Choose an appropriate statistical test. Analyze the data to answer the research questions or test hypotheses. Report inferential tests, effect sizes, and confidence intervals. Use quantitative statistical software programs. | Analyzing the data. | Code the data. Assign labels to codes. Group codes into themes (or categories). Interrelate themes (or categories) or abstract to smaller set of themes. Use qualitative data analysis software programs. |
| Represent results in statement of results. Provide results in tables and figures. | Representing the data analysis. | Represent findings in discussion of themes or categories. Present visual models, figures and/or tables. |
| Explain how the results address the research questions or hypotheses. Compare the results with past literature, theories, or prior explanations. | Interpreting the results. | Assess how the research questions were answered. Compare the findings with the literature. Reflect on the personal meaning of the findings. State new questions based on the findings. |
| Use external standards. Validate and check the reliability scores from past instrument use. Establish validity and reliability of the current data. Assess the internal and external validity of results. | Validating the data and results. | Use researcher, participant, and reviewer standards. Use validation strategies, such as member checking, triangulation, disconfirming evidence, and external reviewers. Check for the accuracy of the account. Employ limited procedures for checking reliability. |

3.4.1 Descriptive Data Background

Descriptive statistics summarize data to convey meaning (Purdue University Online Writing Lab, 2019). In 1662, a Londoner named John Graunt had an idea that the Bills of Mortality – parish records of births and deaths – could be summarized and mined for useful knowledge (Sutherland, 1963). Graunt is credited as a pioneer of demography and epidemiology for his identification of time-trends among population characteristics and causes of death (Rothman, 1996; Sutherland, 1963). According to Sutherland (1963), most developments in descriptive statistics can be attributed to Graunt’s fundamental concepts. He states “certainly in the descriptive field we can claim little more than numerical refinement, more accurate nomenclature and enumeration, population censuses, standard deviation, and correlation coefficients have merely given numerical form to concepts he grasped without their assistance” (p. 554).

As in Graunt’s usage, descriptive statistics were historically important for understanding characteristics of population groups. A background of descriptive statistics in human subjects follows the evolution of statistical study itself from census-type data such as life tables to anthropometric measures to psychometric measures. First, the foundations of descriptive statistics will be discussed including measures of distribution, central tendency, and distribution.

Distribution, central tendency, and dispersion are the three measures used to summarize data. Distribution refers to “a summary of the frequency of individual values or ranges of values for a variable” (Trochim, 2006). Range is the numeric representation of the difference between the maximum and minimum observed values (Greenfield et al., 1997). While numeric representations of frequency and range are useful, the shape of the distribution as it relates to central tendency and dispersion in a range of values also conveys meaning about a group of

observations. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), data exploration in quantitative analysis “involves visually inspecting the data and conducting a descriptive analysis (the mean, the standard deviation [SD], and variance of responses to each item on instruments or checklists) to determine the general trends in the data” (p. 206). The mean, along with the median and mode, are measures of central tendency. Such measures offer a numerical score for a sample that “demonstrate where data in the sample are located or are ‘centered’ along a continuum of possible values” (Greenfield et al., 1997, p. 722). This type of measure “indicates what the members of the group tended to do, provides a means of communicating and even comparing groups to each other” (Black, 2001). The mean is calculated by adding numeric values of all observations divided by the total number of observations (Black, 2001).

Variance and standard deviation are measures of dispersion which reflect spread in the values of a sample (Greenfield et al., 1997). Variance is “the average of the squared residuals” (Bakeman & Robinson, 2005) with the squared residuals reflecting the squared difference between observed values and the sample mean. Standard deviation is the square root of variance and is the most commonly reported measure of dispersion reflected in descriptive statistical summaries (Greenfield et al., 1997). A higher value for standard deviation indicates greater dispersion.

Graphical displays that include central tendency and dispersion show the shape of a distribution of values. “The width of the curve indicates by how much scores for a trait vary around the mean, and the area under the total curve gives the number of persons being measured” (Black, 2001). As a measure of central tendency, means are sensitive to outliers which is why researchers measure skew and kurtosis indices.

Discussion follows of two historical presentations of demographic characteristics. First, Fletcher (1849) summarized moral and educational statistics for England and Wales, and observed correlations that crime was lower in regions with higher education levels but crime figures tended to be higher with increased population density. An article by Yule (1896) may have been published in a greater attempt to support Pearson's (1895) development of techniques related to shape of frequency distribution. The article represented frequency distribution both mathematically and graphically. The data was observed counts of British unions, presumably geographic or political areas, whose percentages of pauperism fell between percentage categories identified of .5 percent. The measure of pauperism was based on the percentage of each union's population that received welfare benefits. The graphical displays show both median and mode as measures of central tendency. As the distribution skewed left, the mode was smaller than the mean. Review of data from four decades showed a decrease in pauperism rates as a decrease in both central tendency measures, as well as a reduction in standard deviation which meant the counts of unions in percentage categories were closer to the central tendency. An example of another study around this time that sought to tabulate economic data was Bourne (1883). The researcher endeavored to summarize statistics on world-wide food distribution to identify issues and opportunities to solve those problems.

While physical measures like height and skull size can be objectively measured, attitudes or cognitions represented by psychometric variables cannot be directly observed. For this reason, researchers developed methods to operationalize latent variables. "Operationalizations refer to all the ways we quantify our variables and include psychological scales and tests" (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 11). "A construct is an abstract characteristic or attribute that a measure is believed to be assessing" (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 38). "Because we cannot observe

these constructs, we need measures to be concrete and operational indicators” (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 38). The structure of early psychometric measures underlies the multi-item constructs that are used to measure factors in organizational psychology including the main variables in the present study. Studies such as the present one use “self-report questionnaires with multiple items per element” (Vancouver, 2002, p. 192). The individual items within each construct also have meaning but are aggregated together to represent latent variables. The measurement of variables in this study were previously discussed in the instrument development section.

3.4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 was used for data analysis. Data was screened prior to the principle analysis. List-wise deletion was used for observations with missing data on key variables. The remaining data was further screened for any potential problems. Organizational socialization tactics, the four socialization learning domains, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions were assessed for normalcy through QQ plot, histograms, skewness, and kurtosis. Plots and histograms appeared normal. Skew indices (SI) and kurtosis indices (KI) were well below acceptable cut-off levels (Kline, 2011). The same variables were checked for multicollinearity by measuring tolerance levels and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). A tolerance level of less than .1 or a VIF value higher than 10 indicate redundancy of variables (Kline, 2011). Tolerance levels ranged from .273 to .811, and VIF value ranged from 1.233 to 3.666. Therefore, there was no indication of multicollinearity.

The data was then checked for univariate and multivariate outliers. Univariate outliers are outliers on a single variable and were identified by looking at z-scores that were outside of 3.29 standard deviations from the mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The socialization learning domain of coworker support had two outliers, the training domain had one outlier, and the

understanding domain had one outlier. The two observations that included these outliers were dropped from analysis. Next, the data was checked for multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis distance test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Multivariate outliers are outliers of a combination of variables. Three multivariate outliers were found which were also dropped from the analysis.

Correlations were conducted to explore relationships between variables (Welkowitz, Cohen, & Lea, 2012). Correlations can indicate that there is a relationship, but do not prove causation. Positive correlations were found between organizational socialization tactics and the four socialization learning domains indicating a positive relationship. Organizational socialization tactics positively correlated with organizational commitment and negatively correlated with turnover intentions. Similar relationships were found between the socialization learning domains with positive correlations to organizational commitment and negative correlations to turnover intentions.

Scale reliabilities were checked using Cronbach's alpha (α). Scales with an alpha score about .70 are considered reliable measures (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The alpha scores for organizational socialization tactics, the four socialization learning domains, and organizational commitment were all above the acceptable levels. The alpha score for organizational socialization tactics was .820, socialization learning – training was .900, socialization learning understanding was .841, socialization learning – coworker support was .853, socialization learning – future prospects was .735, and organizational commitment was .727. However, the internal reliability for turnover intentions was not acceptable with an alpha score of .190. The reverse coded item was dropped, and the single remaining item "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months" from the Colarelli (1984) scale was used for hypothesis testing and further analysis.

To test the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and the socialization learning domains, ANOVAs were performed on each of the learning domains. Regression was used to test the impact of the socialization learning domains on organizational commitment. Also, regression was used to test the relationship between organizational socialization tactics and turnover intentions, and then similarly, regression was used to test the impact of the socialization learning domains on turnover intentions.

3.4.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

All the interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed into Microsoft Word documents. The researcher read through transcriptions as recommended by Creswell and Clark (2011) to gain an overview of the interview data. The Word documents were imported into the NVIVO 12 Pro for Windows. NVivo Pro was used for data analysis.

During the data exploration step, an initial codebook was developed. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), “a codebook is a statement of the codes for a database” and “is generated during a project and may rely on codes from past literature, as well as code that emerge during an analysis” (p. 207). Six codes were created based on the organizational socialization tactics from VanMaanen and Schein (1979), and additional codes were developed based on themes that began emerging from interview data.

The qualitative strand of this study had an overarching purpose to explore the context, content and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics utilized by hotels to facilitate employee learning. There were two sub-goals. The first was to identify discontinuous events that impact organizational roles and explore resocialization around those events and the second was to further examine organizational socialization tactics utilized by hotel companies. The transcriptions of participant interviews were coded, and several themes and sub-themes emerged.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of organizational socialization tactics and socialization learning on organizational commitment and turnover intentions in the hotel industry. A mixed approach of quantitative and qualitative research methods was employed to investigate the research objectives. This chapter presents the results from quantitative survey data and provides analysis of qualitative interviews. First, the relationships between organizational socialization tactics and socialization learning, socialization learning and organizational commitment, and socialization learning and turnover intentions were examined. Additional analysis was performed to determine if there were differences in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, organizational commitment and turnover intentions based on the demographic and organizational characteristics of the participants. Descriptive statistics, reliabilities, correlations, results of the hypotheses, and findings of the additional analysis are presented. Second, the themes from qualitative interviews discuss resocialization events and further explore the content, context, and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics from an employee perspective.

4.1 Quantitative Analysis

4.1.1 Respondents' Profile

As illustrated in Table 2, the majority of the respondents were female (70.1%). Participants were asked to indicate their current age, and the average was 36.7 years. When grouped by generational cohort, four generations were represented with approximately half of the respondents (45.3%) can be described as Millennials, born between 1981 and 1996. Baby

Boomers (1946-1964), Generation X (1965-1980), and Generation Z (born 1997 and later) were also represented with 12.9%, 30.3%, and 11.9% of respondents respectively. One-third of the respondents were married (36.3%). Regarding education, participants who had completed high school were the largest group (38.9%), followed by some college (29.9%). Most employees were considered full-time employees (88.9%). Employees were primarily from housekeeping (44.0%), front office (22.5%), and food and beverage (21.5%). A higher proportion of respondents indicated high guest contact (73.1%). Most respondents have worked in the hotel industry for 10 years or less (79.3%), have worked at their hotel for 5 years or less (77.2%), worked in their current position for 5 years or less (75.7%) and have worked for their current supervisor for 5 years or less (80.2%). The full respondents' profile is displayed in Table 2.

Table 2 Respondents' Profile

| Variable | Category | Frequency | % | N (223) |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|-----------|-------|---------|
| Gender | Male | 66 | 29.9% | 221 |
| | Female | 155 | 70.1% | |
| Generation | Generation Z | 24 | 11.9% | 201 |
| | Millennial | 91 | 45.3% | |
| | Generation X | 61 | 30.3% | |
| | Baby Boomers | 25 | 12.4% | |
| Marital Status | Married | 77 | 36.3% | 212 |
| | Not married | 135 | 63.7% | |
| Education | Less than high school | 24 | 11.4% | 211 |
| | High school graduate or equivalent | 82 | 38.9% | |
| | Some college | 63 | 29.9% | |
| | Bachelor's degree | 29 | 13.7% | |
| | Master's degree | 13 | 6.2% | |
| Employment Status | Full-time | 193 | 88.9% | 217 |
| | Part-time | 24 | 11.1% | |
| Department | Front Office | 49 | 22.5% | 218 |
| | Housekeeping | 96 | 44.0% | |
| | Food & Beverage | 48 | 21.5% | |
| | Maintenance/Other | 25 | 11.2% | |
| Guest Contact | High contact | 160 | 73.1% | 219 |
| | Low/no contact | 59 | 26.9% | |
| Industry Years | Less than 1 | 41 | 18.9% | 217 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 84 | 38.7% | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 47 | 21.7% | |
| | 11 years and above | 45 | 20.7% | |
| Hotel Years | Less than 1 | 78 | 35.6% | 219 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 91 | 41.6% | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 25 | 11.4% | |
| | 11 years and above | 25 | 11.4% | |
| Position Years | Less than 1 | 52 | 24.3% | 214 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 110 | 51.4% | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 27 | 12.6% | |
| | 11 years and above | 25 | 11.7% | |
| Supervisor Years | Less than 1 | 57 | 26.9% | 212 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 113 | 53.3% | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 27 | 12.7% | |
| | 11 years and above | 15 | 7.1% | |

Note: Differences in sample size reflect missing item responses

4.1.2 Means of Scales

Organizational socialization tactics were measured using an instrument adapted from Cable and Parsons (2001). Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The scale included twelve items. One item was negatively worded and was reverse coded. Scale responses were averaged, and scores are shown in Table 2. Scores closer to 5 indicate higher perceived levels of institutionalized socialization tactics. The compiled scores ranged from 2 to 5 and had a mean of 3.67 and a standard deviation of .587. Respondents perceived institutionalized organizational tactics at an above average level.

Socialization learning outcomes were measured using the Taormina's (1994) Organizational Socialization Inventory (OSI). Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The scale included twenty items with five items each for the four domains of training, understanding, coworker support and future prospects. Mean scores were compiled for the four domains and are shown in Table 2. Scores closer to 5 convey higher perceptions of the learning domains. The mean of the training score was 3.90 with a standard deviation of .802 with scores ranging from 1 to 5, the mean of understanding was 4.04 with a standard deviation of .662 with scores ranging from 2 to 5, the mean of coworker support was 4.11 with a standard deviation of .665 with scores ranging from 2 to 5, and the mean of future prospects was 3.75 with a standard deviation of .766 with scores ranging from 1 to 5. These scores suggest most respondents perceive their learning as slightly above average in these areas.

Organizational commitment was measured using the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) from Allen and Meyer (1990). The scale contained 8 items measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Four negatively worded items were

reverse coded. A mean score was compiled and is shown in Table 3. Scores closer to 5 represent higher commitment levels. The sample's mean score was 3.52 with a standard deviation of .612. This indicates that respondents reported slightly above average levels of organizational commitment.

Table 3 Means of Scales

| Scale | N | Min | Max | Mean | Std. Dev |
|---|-----|-----|-----|------|----------|
| Organizational Socialization Tactics | 223 | 2 | 5 | 3.67 | 0.587 |
| Socialization Learning – Training | 223 | 1 | 5 | 3.90 | 0.802 |
| Socialization Learning – Understanding | 223 | 2 | 5 | 4.04 | 0.662 |
| Socialization Learning – Coworker Support | 223 | 2 | 5 | 4.11 | 0.665 |
| Socialization Learning – Future Prospects | 223 | 1 | 5 | 3.75 | 0.766 |
| Organizational Commitment | 223 | 1 | 5 | 3.52 | 0.612 |

4.1.3 Means of Organizational Socialization Tactic Items

Table 4 shows the twelve measurement items of organizational socialization tactics ranked by lowest to highest means. Categorization of each item is based on VanMaanen's (1979) six-tactic framework and Jones's (1986) three-factor model of organizational socialization tactics. While hypothesis testing was based on the single-factor continuum of institutionalized to individualized tactics, the three-factor and six-tactic models provide context for discussion. The lowest mean score was the item "I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job" (M=3.22, SD=1.216) which is considered as social aspects and investing tactics. The second lowest item was "I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods" (M=3.32, SD=1.123), part of context factors and formal tactics. The third and fourth lowest items are both considered content factors and fixed tactics. The mean for "My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly

communicated to me” was 3.39 and the standard deviation was 1.071; and “I can predict my future career path by observing other people’s experiences” had a mean of 3.54 and a standard deviation of 1.068. The fifth lowest item is also considered a content factor and is classified as a sequential tactic: “The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified” (M=3.59; SD=0.958). Two of the most highly rated items are classified as social factors and serial tactics. The items indicate that co-workers have supported employees (M=4.02; SD=0.958) and helped them adjust to their role (M=3.93; SD=0.959). These findings are shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Employees’ Ratings of Organizational Socialization Tactics

| Item | Three-factor | Six-tactic | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|----------------|------------|------|----------------|
| I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job. | Social Aspects | Investing | 3.22 | 1.216 |
| I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods. | Context | Formal | 3.32 | 1.123 |
| My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me. | Content | Fixed | 3.39 | 1.071 |
| I can predict my future career path by observing other people’s experiences. | Content | Fixed | 3.54 | 1.068 |
| The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified. | Content | Sequential | 3.59 | 0.958 |
| My company puts all associates through the same set of learning experiences. | Context | Collective | 3.67 | 1.060 |
| There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another, or one job assignment leads to another. | Content | Sequential | 3.70 | 0.951 |
| I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing my senior colleagues. | Social Aspects | Investing | 3.85 | 0.977 |
| I was put through a set of training experiences that are specifically designed to give associates a thorough knowledge of job-related skills. | Context | Formal | 3.92 | 0.944 |
| My co-workers have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this company. | Social Aspects | Serial | 3.93 | 0.959 |
| I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities. | Context | Collective | 3.96 | 0.974 |
| Almost all of my co-workers have been supportive of me personally. | Social Aspects | Serial | 4.02 | 0.958 |

4.2 Reliability Analysis and Correlations

The organizational socialization tactics scale showed acceptable reliability with a Cronbach Alpha of 0.810, which is above the accepted cut-off rate of 0.70. Cronbach alpha scores for the four organizational socialization learning domains were all above the accepted cut-off of 0.70 with scores of .899 for training, .839 for understanding, .853 for coworker support, and .830 for future prospects. The organizational commitment scale had a Cronbach Alpha score of .727, which is also above the accepted cut-off level of 0.70. Therefore, the scales for organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning, and organizational commitment are considered reliable. As previously discussed in the quantitative data section, the alpha score for turnover intentions was below the accepted value. Turnover intentions were analyzed using the single item: “I am planning to search for a new job within the next 12 months.” Reliability estimates for other study variables are shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Reliability Coefficients

| Scale | Reliability Coefficients (α) |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| Organizational socialization tactics | .810 |
| Socialization learning – Training | .899 |
| Socialization learning – Understanding | .839 |
| Socialization learning – Coworker support | .853 |
| Socialization learning – Future prospects | .830 |
| Organizational commitment | .727 |

Scale analysis is considered reliable when alpha scores for reliability coefficients are above 0.70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994)

Correlation coefficients were conducted to examine the strength and direction of the relationships between variables (Welkowitz et al., 2012). According to Taylor (1990), coefficient values equal or less than 0.35 are considered low or weak, ranging between 0.36 to 0.67 are modest or moderate, and 0.68 to 1.00 indicate strong or high associations between

variables. Additionally, coefficients greater than or equal to 0.90 are deemed very high. Correlations in this study ranged from weak (lowest = -.167) to strong (highest = .790).

The correlations between organizational socialization tactics and the four socialization learning domains were positive and either moderate or strong including training ($r = .770$), understanding ($r = .689$), coworker support ($r = .668$), and future prospects ($r = .731$). The correlation between organizational socialization tactics and organizational commitment was positive and moderate ($r = .503$), and turnover intentions were negatively correlated with organizational socialization tactics ($r = -.237$). The socialization learning domains had positive and moderate associations with organizational commitment including training ($r = .533$), understanding ($r = .492$), coworker support ($r = .492$), and future prospects ($r = .645$), and negative and weak correlations with turnover intentions with the following coefficients: training ($r = -.333$), understanding ($r = -.329$), and coworker support ($r = -.165$). The correlation between turnover intentions and future prospects was moderate and negative ($r = -.393$). Table 6 displays the means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations among the variables.

Table 6 Correlation Table

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--|------|-------|---------|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| 1 Organizational socialization tactics | 3.67 | 0.587 | | | | | | |
| 2 OSI - Training | 3.90 | 0.802 | .770** | | | | | |
| 3 OSI - Understanding | 4.04 | 0.662 | .689** | .790** | | | | |
| 4 OSI - Coworker support | 4.11 | 0.665 | .668** | .633** | .600** | | | |
| 5 OSI - Future prospects | 3.75 | 0.766 | .731** | .782** | .750** | .578** | | |
| 6 Organizational commitment | 3.52 | 0.612 | .503** | .533** | .535** | .492** | .645** | |
| 7 Turnover Intention | 2.26 | 1.156 | -.237** | -.333** | -.329** | -.165* | -.393** | -.569** |

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

4.3 Hypothesis Testing

4.3.1 Hypothesis 1 Organizational Socialization Tactics on Socialization Learning

Hypothesis 1 stated there is a significant positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and the four domains of socialization learning – (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects.

Organizational socialization tactics were measured using a scale from Cable and Parsons (2001). The mean score for organizational socialization tactics was 3.67 with a standard deviation of .587. This indicates that on a continuum of individualized to institutionalized socialization tactics, respondents reported their companies employed tactics that were more institutionalized in nature. The socialization learning domains were measured using Taormina's (1994) Organizational Socialization Inventory scale. Means of the scale were previously shown in Table 8. Respondents exhibited above average learning outcomes.

To test Hypothesis 1 and determine if a significant relationship exists, univariate analysis of variance was performed using organizational socialization tactics as a covariate or independent variable (IV) and each of the socialization learning domains as a dependent variable (DV). Analysis of variance for the four learning domains of (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects was conducted separately. Fixed factors were also used in the model to control for gender, generation group, marital status, education levels, years working at current hotel, guest contact level, and department. The results indicated a significant positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and each of the four learning domains: (a) training ($F=211.781, p<.001$), (b) understanding ($F=121.931, p<.001$), (c) coworker support ($F=117.488, p<.001$), and (d) future prospects ($F=175.859, p<.001$). Based on these results, H1a, H1b, H1c, and H1d were all supported. This means employees who reported a

higher degree of institutionalized socialization tactics have higher level of perception of the training received from their organization, higher level of understanding of their job role and their organization culture, perceived coworker support, and greater expectations of a rewarding career with that organization. Table 7 presents the results of analysis of variance for H1a, H1b, H1c, and H1d.

Table 7 Direct Effect of Socialization Tactics on Learning Domains

| Fixed Factors | Training | | Understanding | | Coworker Support | | Future Prospects | |
|--------------------------------------|----------|--------|---------------|--------|------------------|--------|------------------|--------|
| | F | Sig. | F | Sig. | F | Sig. | F | Sig. |
| Gender | 1.526 | .218 | .379 | .539 | .014 | .906 | 1.214 | .272 |
| Generation | .388 | .761 | .537 | .657 | .893 | .446 | .233 | .873 |
| Marital Status | .644 | .423 | 1.758 | 1.87 | .098 | .754 | .081 | .776 |
| Education | 3.316 | .012* | 1.757 | .140 | .959 | .431 | .561 | .691 |
| Hotel years | .228 | .877 | 1.538 | .207 | .776 | .509 | .385 | .764 |
| Guest contact | .063 | .803 | .121 | .729 | 1.431 | .233 | .377 | .540 |
| Department | .076 | .973 | .606 | .612 | 4.785 | .003** | .528 | .664 |
| <u>Covariate</u> | | | | | | | | |
| Organizational Socialization Tactics | 21.781 | .000** | 121.931 | .000** | 117.48 | .000** | 175.854 | .000** |

4.3.2 Hypothesis 2 Socialization Learning on Commitment

Hypothesis 2 stated there is a significant positive relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – a) training, b) understanding, c) coworker support, and d) future prospects – and organizational commitment.

The socialization learning domains were measured using Taormina's (1994) Organizational Socialization Inventory scale. The mean of the training domain was 3.96 with a standard deviation of .787. The mean of the understanding domain was 4.11 with a standard deviation of 0.624. The mean of coworker support was 4.19 with a standard deviation of .632. The mean of future prospects was 3.82 with a standard deviation of .766. This indicates that respondents exhibit above average learning outcomes. Organizational commitment was

measured using the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) from Allen and Meyer (1990). The mean score of organizational commitment was 3.59 with a standard deviation of .625.

To test Hypothesis 2, a multiple regression was run to predict organizational commitment from the organizational learning domains of (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects. In the first step, organizational commitment was regressed on the control variables, which were: gender, generation, marital status, education, years working at current hotel, guest contact, and department. In the second step of the regression, the four learning domains of (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects were entered in the regression equation.

The results indicated a significant positive relationship between the overall model of socialization learning and organizational commitment ($F = 15.780$, $p = .000$). Two of four learning domains had significant impact on the dependent variable of organizational commitment. The first was (c) coworker support ($\beta=0.189$, $t=2.666$, $p<.01$), and the second was (d) future prospects ($\beta=0.422$, $t=4.556$, $p<.001$). The socialization learning domains of (a) training ($\beta=-.030$, $t=-.299$, $p=.765$) and (b) understanding ($\beta=.166$, $t=1.823$, $p=.070$) did not have a significant result. Therefore, the findings indicate support for H2c and H2d, whereas H2a and H2b were not supported. This means that respondents who exhibit higher levels of coworker support, as well as those with more positive acceptance of their organization, have higher levels of organizational commitment. Results of the regression analyses for H2a, H2b, H2c, and H2d are shown in Table 8. In both the first and second steps, the control variable of generation group was significant.

Table 8 Direct Effect of Socialization Learning Domains on Organizational Commitment

| Independent Variables | | Dependent variable and standardized coefficients | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--|--------|----------|---------|
| | | Step 1 | T | Step 2 | T |
| (1) | Control Variables | | | | |
| | Gender | 0.123 | 1.658 | 0.109 | 1.944 |
| | Generation | 0.191 | 2.311* | 0.184 | 2.963** |
| | Marital Status | -0.097 | -1.279 | -0.039 | -0.689 |
| | Education | 0.059 | 0.769 | 0.006 | 0.101 |
| | Hotel Years | -0.032 | -0.404 | -0.037 | -0.616 |
| | Guest Contact | -0.053 | -0.703 | -0.041 | -0.708 |
| | Department | 0.020 | 0.267 | -0.017 | -0.309 |
| (2) | Training | | | -0.030 | -0.299 |
| | Understanding | | | 0.166 | 1.823 |
| | Coworker support | | | 0.189 | 2.666** |
| | Future prospects | | | 0.422 | 4.556** |
| F | | 2.001 | | 15.780** | |
| R ² | | 0.073 | | 0.498 | |
| ΔR^2 | | | | 0.425 | |
| Adj R ² for each step | | 0.036 | | 0.466 | |
| Δ Adj R ² | | | | 0.430 | |

*p<.05 **p<.01

4.3.3 Hypothesis 3 Organizational Socialization Tactics on Turnover Intentions

Hypothesis 3 stated there is a significant negative relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and turnover intentions.

Turnover intentions were measured using a single item from Colarelli's (1984) scale. Responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. The mean was 2.19 with a standard deviation of 1.134 which indicates that most respondents have lower intentions of leaving their job. In the first step, turnover intentions were first regressed on the control variables of gender, generation, marital status, education, department, years working at current hotel, guest contact, and department, and in the second step organizational socialization tactics were entered into the regression equation. The results showed a significant negative relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and turnover intentions ($\beta=-0.253$, $t=-3.661$, $p<.000$), which supports Hypothesis 3. This means that employees who indicated a higher degree of institutionalized socialization tactics have a lower

intention of leaving their job. Gender and generation showed a significant negative relationship both before and after socialization tactics were added to the equation. Results are shown in

Table 9.

| Table 9 Direct Effect of Socialization Tactics on Turnover Intentions | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|--|---------|---------|----------|
| Independent Variables | | Dependent variable and standardized coefficients | | | |
| | | Step 1 | t | Step 2 | t |
| (1) | Control Variables | | | | |
| | Gender | -0.170 | -2.334* | -0.173 | -2.458* |
| | Generation | -0.204 | -2.509* | -0.198 | -2.516* |
| | Marital Status | 0.067 | 0.893 | 0.054 | 0.748 |
| | Education | 1.084 | 0.280 | 0.088 | 1.212 |
| | Hotel Years | 0.003 | 0.034 | -0.012 | -0.153 |
| | Guest Contact | -0.041 | -0.554 | -0.033 | -0.451 |
| | Department | 0.010 | 0.133 | 0.028 | 0.394 |
| (2) | Socialization tactics | | | -0.253 | -3.661** |
| F | | 2.849** | | 4.341** | |
| R ² | | 0.100 | | 0.163 | |
| Δ R ² | | | | 0.063 | |
| Adj R ² for each step | | 0.065 | | 0.126 | |
| *p<.05 **p<.01 | | | | | |

*p<.05 **p<.01

4.3.4 Hypothesis 4 Socialization Learning on Turnover Intentions

Hypothesis 4 stated there is a significant negative relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects – and turnover intentions.

Multiple regression was used to test the relationships. In the first step, turnover intention was regressed on the control variables, which were: gender, generation, marital status, education, years working at current hotel, guest contact and department. The four learning domains were entered in the second step of the regression equation.

First turnover intentions were regressed against the control variables, and then the four socialization learning domains were entered in the regression equation. Results of the regression analyses for H4a, H4b, H4c, and H4d are shown in Table 10. The socialization learning domain

of (d) future prospects was the only socialization learning domain to have a significant negative impact on turnover intentions ($\beta=-.359$, $t=-3.194$, $p=.002$). Results were not significant for (a) training ($\beta=-.032$, $t=-.262$, $p=.794$), (b) understanding ($\beta=-.068$, $t=-.620$, $p=.536$) and (c) coworker support ($\beta=.059$, $t=.685$, $p=.494$). Based on these results, H4d was supported. This indicates higher perceptions of an employee's expectations for their future with an organization reduces their intention to leave their job. H4a, H4b, and H4c were not supported.

Table 10 Direct Effect of Socialization Learning on Turnover Intentions

| Independent Variables | | Dependent variable and standardized coefficients | | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|--|---------|---------|----------|
| | | Step 1 | t | Step 2 | t |
| (1) | Control Variables | | | | |
| | Gender | -0.170 | -2.334* | -0.143 | -2.099* |
| | Generation | -0.204 | -2.509* | -0.190 | -2.517* |
| | Marital Status | 0.067 | 0.893 | 0.029 | 0.427 |
| | Education | 1.084 | 0.280 | 0.106 | 1.527 |
| | Hotel Years | 0.003 | 0.034 | 0.018 | 0.242 |
| | Guest Contact | -0.041 | -0.554 | -0.025 | -0.362 |
| | Department | 0.010 | 0.133 | 0.033 | 0.475 |
| (2) | Training | | | -0.032 | -0.262 |
| | Understanding | | | -0.068 | -0.620 |
| | Coworker support | | | 0.059 | 0.685 |
| | Future prospects | | | -0.359 | -3.194** |
| F | | 2.849* | | 5.622** | |
| R ² | | 0.100 | | 0.261 | |
| ΔR^2 | | | | 0.161 | |
| Adj R ² for each step | | 0.065 | | 0.215 | |

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

Table 11 Hypotheses Results

| | |
|---|---------------|
| H1a: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics the socialization learning domain of training. | Supported |
| H1b: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics the socialization learning domain of understanding. | Supported |
| H1c: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics the socialization learning domain of coworker support. | Supported |
| H1d: There is a positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics the socialization learning domain of future prospects. | Supported |
| H2a: There is a positive relationship between the socialization learning domain of training and organizational commitment. | Not supported |
| H2b: There is a positive relationship between the socialization learning domain of understanding and organizational commitment. | Not supported |
| H2c: There is a positive relationship between the socialization learning domain of coworker support and organizational commitment. | Supported |
| H2d: There is a positive relationship between the socialization learning domain of future prospects and organizational commitment. | Supported |
| H3: There is a negative relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and turnover intentions. | Supported |
| H4a: There is a significant, negative relationship between the socialization learning domain of training and turnover intentions. | Not supported |
| H4b: There is a significant, negative relationship between the socialization learning domain of understanding and turnover intentions. | Not supported |
| H4c: There is a significant, negative relationship between the socialization learning domain of coworker support and turnover intentions. | Not supported |
| H4d: There is a significant, negative relationship between the socialization learning domain of future prospects and turnover intentions. | Supported |

4.4 Analysis of Demographic Variables

Additional analysis was conducted on the demographic variables and organizational socialization tactics, the socialization learning domains, organizational commitment and turnover to determine if there were any differences in the groups within each variable.

4.4.1 Gender

Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable where 1 = male and 2 = female.

Independent t-tests were used to compare by gender the means of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover to examine if there were any

statistically significant differences. Overall, there was not a significant difference between males and females in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics ($t=0.801$, $p=0.424$) indicating that neither group exhibited a higher or lower degree of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics.

Independent t-tests were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for perceptual differences by gender. There were differences for one item. The mean for the question “I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities” was 4.18 for males and 3.86 for females, and was significantly different ($t=2.281$, $p<.05$). This indicates males perceived a higher level of involvement with others in job-related activities than females.

There were no significant differences detected for the four socialization learning domains: training ($t=0.836$, $p=0.404$), understanding ($t=1.009$, $p=0.314$), coworker support ($t=1.634$, $p=0.104$) and future prospects ($t=-0.508$, $p=0.612$). There was also no significant difference for organizational commitment by gender ($t=-0.925$, $p=0.356$). This means that males and females had similar levels of perceived socialization learning and organizational commitment.

There was a statistically significant difference between males and females for turnover intentions ($t=2.489$, $p<.05$). The mean for males was 2.55 with a standard deviation of 1.151, and 2.13 for females with a standard deviation of 1.132. This indicates males were more likely to leave their jobs than females.

4.4.2 Generation

Generation groups were based on respondents' reported age. Age was measured by respondents indicating their age in years at the time of the survey. Generational groups were

made of ages 18 – 21 (Generation Z), 22-37 (Millennials), 38 – 53 (Generation X), and 54 – 72 (Baby Boomers). One-way ANOVAs were used to detect differences in generational groups for the key study variables of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover intentions.

Overall, there was not a statistically significant difference between generation groups for organizational socialization tactics ($t=0.064$, $p=0.979$) indicating no significant differences in the perception of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics between generational groups. Additional one-way ANOVAs were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by generational group. There were significant differences for one item. The scale item “I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job” ($F=4.784$, $p<.01$). This was a reverse coded item and was updated for consistency with scale items. Therefore, a higher score indicates higher perceived levels of guidance from experienced company members. The total group mean was 3.23. Tukey post hoc tests showed Generation X had lower levels of perceived guidance ($\mu=2.77$) than Millennials ($\mu=3.40$) and Generation Z ($\mu=3.67$). There was no significant difference between Baby Boomers and the other generation groups.

T-tests comparing means did not identify significant differences for socialization learning domains by generation group – Training ($F=.238$, $p=.870$); Understanding ($F=.031$, $p=.993$); Coworker Support ($F=.429$; $p=.733$); and Future Prospects ($F=1.139$, $p=.335$). There were also no significant differences detected for organizational commitment by generation group ($F=2.602$, $p=0.053$). This means that employees showed similar perceptions of socialization learning and commitment levels across generation groups.

While the ANOVA showed significant results for differences in turnover intentions by generation group ($F=3.015$; $p<.05$), a Tukey post hoc test did not indicate significance between particular generation groups. Based on mean scores, Baby Boomers reported the lowest intentions to leave their organizations ($\mu=1.77$), and turnover intentions increased with subsequent generations – Generation X ($\mu=2.10$); Millennials ($\mu=2.37$); and Generation Z ($\mu=2.58$).

4.4.3 Marital Status

Marital status was measured as a dichotomous variable where 1=married and 2= not married. Independent t-tests were used to compare by marital status the means of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover to examine if there were any statistically significant differences.

Overall, there was not a statistically significant difference between married and not married respondents in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics ($t=-0.368$, $p=0.713$) indicating that neither group exhibited a higher or lower degree of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics. Independent t-tests were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by marital status. A significant difference was found between married and not married respondents for the question “I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job” ($t=-2.583$, $p<.05$). This item was reverse coded, and the stated means reflect that. Respondents that were married had near average perceived levels of guidance ($\mu=2.94$), and those participants who indicated not married perceived higher levels of guidance ($\mu=3.38$).

There were no significant differences detected for the four socialization learning domains: training ($t=0.335$, $p=0.738$), understanding ($t=0.828$, $p=0.408$), coworker support ($t=-$

0.139, $p=0.890$) and future prospects ($t=0.860$, $p=0.391$). This suggests similar levels of perceived socialization learning regardless of marital status.

There was a significant difference for organizational commitment by marital status ($t=1.996$, $p<.05$). The mean commitment for married respondents was 3.65 with a standard deviation of 0.597, and the mean commitment for not married respondents was 3.47 with a standard deviation of 0.620. This means that married respondents exhibit a higher level of commitment compared to respondents who indicated they are not married.

There was a statistically significant difference between the two marital status groups for turnover intentions ($t=-2.018$, $p<.05$). The mean for married respondents was 2.06 with a standard deviation of 1.038, and the mean for not married respondents was 2.37 with a standard deviation of 1.214. This suggests that married employees displayed less willfulness to leave their organization than those who are not married.

4.4.4 Education

Respondents were asked to indicate their highest level of education with 1=Less than High School, 2=High School graduate, 3=Some College (Certificate/Diploma), 4=Undergraduate degree (BSc/BA), and 5=Graduate degree. One-way ANOVAs were used to detect differences between education levels for the key study variables of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover intentions.

Overall, there was not a statistically significant difference between education levels for organizational socialization tactics ($F=0.715$, $p=0.583$) indicating that none of the groups exhibited a higher or lower degree of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics. Additional one-way ANOVAs were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by education levels. Based on

Tukey post-hoc tests there were between group differences for three items. First, responses for the item “I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities” were significantly higher ($F=2.592$, $p<.05$) for participants with a master’s degree ($\mu=4.54$) than those with less than high school ($\mu=3.63$). The next item with a significant difference was “My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me” ($F=2.767$, $p=0<.05$). Participants reporting an educational level of less than high school had higher perceived levels for this item with a mean score of 3.96 than those participants with some college with a mean score of 3.13. Finally, there were significant differences between groups for the item “I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job” ($F=4.471$, $p<.01$). The mean score reflects adjustment for reverse coding, and responses closer to 5 indicate high perceived levels of guidance. Participants with bachelor’s degrees perceived the highest levels of guidance ($\mu=3.90$), which was significantly higher from those with master’s degrees ($\mu=2.62$), high school graduate or equivalent ($\mu=3.10$), and those with less than high school ($\mu=2.75$).

There were significant differences detected for three of the four socialization learning domains: training ($F=3.144$, $p<.05$), understanding ($F=2.337$, $p=0.057$), and future prospects ($F=2.673$, $p<.05$). While the p-value for understanding was greater than 0.05, Tukey post-hoc results revealed a significant result between groups. Tukey results showed participants with an undergraduate degree had significantly higher mean scores for the learning domains of training ($\mu=4.22$) and understanding ($\mu=4.34$) than participants with some college – training ($\mu=3.75$) and understanding ($\mu=3.93$). The socialization learning domain of future prospects was significantly higher for participants with an undergraduate degree ($\mu=4.11$) than participants with a high

school level of education completed ($\mu=3.63$). There were not significant differences for the socialization learning domain of coworker support between education levels ($F=2.046$; $p=.089$).

There were not significant differences for organizational commitment by education level ($F=0.682$, $p=0.605$). This means that employees showed similar commitment levels across education levels.

There was a significant difference in turnover intentions by education level ($F=4.034$, $p<.01$). The sample mean was 2.24, with responses closer to 1 indicating that the employee has a lower level of willfulness to leave their organization. Those employees with less than a high school education had the lowest average turnover intentions, and those with a graduate degree had the highest.

4.5 Analysis of Organizational Variables

Additional analysis was conducted on the organizational variables and organizational socialization tactics, the socialization learning domains, organizational commitment and turnover to determine if there were any differences in the groups within each variable.

4.5.1 Employment Status

Employment status was measured as a dichotomous variable where 1=full-time and 2=part-time. Independent t-tests were used to compare the means of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover to examine if there were any statistically significant differences between full-time and part-time employees. There was not a statistically significant difference between full-time and part-time employees in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics ($t=1.215$, $p=0.226$) which means there was no significant difference in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics by employment status.

Independent t-tests were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by employment status. There were significant differences for two items. Part-time employees indicated less agreement with the statement “My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me” ($t=2.289$, $p=0.024$). Part-time employees also indicated less agreement with the statement “I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing my senior colleagues” ($t=2.139$, $p=0.034$). The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified.

There were no significant differences detected for the four socialization learning domains: training ($t=0.970$, $p=0.334$), understanding ($t=0.688$, $p=0.492$), coworker support ($t=0.470$, $p=0.639$) and future prospects ($t=-0.999$, $p=0.428$). There was also no significant difference for organizational commitment by employment status ($t=1.645$, $p=0.102$). This means that both full-time and part-time employees had similar levels of perceived socialization learning and organizational commitment.

No significant difference between turnover intentions for full-time employees and part-time employees was detected ($t=-0.845$, $p=0.400$). This indicates a similar level of willfulness to leave their organization.

4.5.2 Department

Respondents were asked to indicate the department in which they work, and these responses were coded as 1=front office, 2=housekeeping, 3=food and beverage, and 4=maintenance/other. One-way ANOVAs were used to detect differences between departments for the key study variables of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover intentions.

Overall, there was not a statistically significant difference between departments for organizational socialization tactics ($F=1.141$, $p=0.333$) indicating that none of the groups exhibited a higher or lower degree of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics. Additional one-way ANOVAs were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by department. There were significant differences for three items. First, the item “I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods” was significantly higher for housekeeping ($\mu=3.58$) than front office ($\mu=2.86$). Next, the mean score for the item “My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me” was significantly higher for food and beverage employees ($\mu=3.73$) as compared to maintenance/other employees ($\mu=3.00$). The other item with a significant difference was “My coworkers have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this company.” Food and beverage employees had a significantly higher mean score ($\mu=4.33$) than housekeeping employees ($\mu=3.81$).

There were no significant differences detected for three of the four socialization learning domains: training ($F=0.438$, $p=0.726$), understanding ($F=1.122$, $p=0.341$), and future prospects ($F=0.946$, $p=0.419$). There was a significant difference for the socialization learning domain of coworker support ($F=6.593$, $p=0.000$). The mean score for housekeeping employees ($\mu=3.92$) was significantly lower than front office ($\mu=4.35$) and food and beverage ($\mu=4.25$).

There was a significant difference for organizational commitment by department ($F=2.996$, $p=0.032$), and Tukey post-hoc tests revealed front office and food and beverage employees expressed higher levels of commitment than housekeeping employees.

There was not a significant difference in turnover intentions between departments by department ($F=1.697$, $p=0.169$). This indicates similar desire to remain with their organization.

4.5.3 Guest contact

Guest contact was measured as a dichotomous variable where 1=high guest contact and 2=low/no guest contact. Independent t-tests were used to compare the means of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, commitment, and turnover to examine if there were any statistically significant differences between employees with high guest contact and those with low guest contact. There was not a significant difference between employees with high or low guest contact in perceptions of organizational socialization tactics ($F=0.459$, $p=0.647$). This indicates that employees with high or low guest contact perceive a similar degree of institutionalized socialization tactics. Independent t-tests were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics measurement scale to test for differences by guest contact level. A significant difference was found for one item: “Almost all of my coworkers have been supportive of me personally” ($F=2.781$, $p<.01$). Based on the Tukey post-hoc test, employees with high guest contact perceived their coworkers as more personally supportive ($\mu=4.14$) than those employees who indicated low guest contact ($\mu=3.75$).

There was a significant difference for the socialization learning domain of coworker support ($F=2.686$, $p<.01$). Employees with high guest contact reported higher levels of coworker support ($\mu=4.19$) than employees with low guest contact ($\mu=3.93$). The three other socialization learning domains of training ($F=0.622$, $p=0.535$), understanding ($F=.326$, $p=0.745$), and future prospects ($F=0.405$, $p=0.686$) did not have significant differences by level of guest contact.

There was not a significant difference for organizational commitment ($F=1.906$, $p=0.059$). There was not a statistically significant difference between high and low guest contact

employees in turnover intentions ($t=-0.698$, $p=0.487$). This indicates that same willfulness to leave their organization.

4.5.4 Tenure

Respondents were asked to indicate the amount of years they have worked in the hotel industry, at their current hotel, in their current position, and for their current supervisor. The four variables were measured in the following categories: 1=Less than 1, 2=1 – 5 years, 3=6-10 years, 4=11 years and above. One-way ANOVAs were used to detect differences between tenure groups and the key study variables of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning outcomes, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

There were not significant differences between tenure groups for organizational socialization tactics: hotel industry ($F=1.279$, $p=0.283$), current hotel ($F=0.810$, $p=0.490$), position ($F=0.594$, $p=0.620$), and supervisor ($F=0.336$, $p=0.799$). Additional one-way ANOVAs were conducted on the twelve items of the organizational socialization tactics scale to test for differences between tenure groups. There were significant differences between groups for two items. “I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job” was significant for hotel industry tenure ($F=3.889$, $p=0.005$), position tenure ($F=3.666$, $p=0.013$), and supervisor tenure ($F=4.257$, $p=0.006$), and “I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing senior colleagues” was significant for hotel industry tenure ($F=3.374$, $p=0.011$), current hotel ($F=4.325$, $p=0.006$), and position tenure ($F=3.459$, $p=0.017$). In general, participants with less than 1 year for all types of tenure rated both items higher than their counterparts with additional tenure. Table 10 shows results of comparison of means of organizational socialization tactics items.

There were no differences in socialization learning domains by tenure group as shown in Table 12, nor were there differences in organizational commitment for tenure in hotel industry ($F=1.719$, $p=0.147$), at current hotel ($F=0.782$, $p=0.505$), in current position ($F=0.619$, $p=.604$), and working for current supervisor ($F=1.134$, $p=0.336$).

Table 12 Results of ANOVAs for Socialization Learning Domains by Tenure Group

| | Tenure type | F | Sig. |
|------------------|---------------|-------|-------|
| Training | Industry | .454 | .714 |
| | Current hotel | 1.140 | .334 |
| | Position | .363 | .779 |
| | Supervisor | .352 | .788 |
| Understanding | Industry | .951 | .417 |
| | Current hotel | .683 | .563 |
| | Position | .969 | .408 |
| | Supervisor | .764 | .515 |
| Coworker support | Industry | 2.694 | .047* |
| | Current hotel | 1.348 | .260 |
| | Position | 1.112 | .345 |
| | Supervisor | .209 | .890 |
| Future prospects | Industry | .595 | .619 |
| | Current hotel | .608 | .610 |
| | Position | .117 | .912 |
| | Supervisor | .590 | .622 |

There were significant differences for turnover intentions for industry years ($F=4.885$, $p=.003$) and supervisor years ($F=3.385$, $p=.019$) but not for current hotel years ($F=.935$, $p=.425$) or position years ($F=2.114$, $p=.100$). The Tukey post-hoc test revealed participants who indicated 1 – 5 years of industry tenure had higher turnover intentions than those with 11 years and above working in the industry.

Table 53 Results of T-tests and ANOVAs for Organizational Socialization Tactics

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|------|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Gender | Male | 3.73 | .585 | | 0.801 | | 0.424 |
| | Female | 3.66 | .582 | | | | |
| Generation | Generation Z | 3.75 | .529 | | | 0.064 | 0.979 |
| | Millennial | 3.70 | .576 | | | | |
| | Generation X | 3.72 | .586 | | | | |
| | Baby Boomer | 3.74 | .593 | | | | |
| Marital Status | Married | 3.67 | .636 | | | | |
| | Not Married | 3.70 | .545 | | -.368 | | 0.713 |
| Education | Less than high school | 3.74 | .615 | | | 0.715 | 0.583 |
| | High school graduate or equivalent | 3.65 | .557 | | | | |
| | Some college | 3.63 | .643 | | | | |
| | Bachelor's degree | 3.81 | .484 | | | | |
| | Master's degree | 3.78 | .440 | | | | |
| Employment Status | Full-time | 3.69 | .579 | | 1.215 | | 0.226 |
| | Part-time | 3.54 | .602 | | | | |
| Department | Front office | 3.69 | .630 | | | 1.141 | 0.333 |
| | Housekeeping | 3.64 | .538 | | | | |
| | Food & Beverage | 3.82 | .581 | | | | |
| | Maintenance/Other | 3.66 | .532 | | | | |
| Guest contact | High contact | 3.69 | .593 | | 0.459 | | 0.647 |
| | Low/no contact | 3.65 | .551 | | | | |

Table 13 cont.

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|-------------------|--------------------|------|------|-------|-------|---|-------|
| Industry tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.82 | .571 | | 1.279 | | 0.283 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.67 | .565 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.63 | .605 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.59 | .599 | | | | |
| Hotel tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.75 | .538 | | 0.810 | | 0.490 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.63 | .578 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.60 | .675 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.64 | .643 | | | | |
| Position tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.73 | .522 | | 0.594 | | 0.620 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.69 | .557 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.68 | .660 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.55 | .636 | | | | |
| Supervisor tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.74 | .557 | | 0.336 | | 0.799 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.67 | .562 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.64 | .641 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.74 | .646 | | | | |

Table 14 Socialization Learning Domains with Significant Results

| Domain | Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | F | Sig. |
|------------------|---------------|-----------------------|------|------|---------|-------|---------|
| Training | Education | Less than high school | 4.23 | .633 | | 3.144 | 0.015* |
| | | High school graduate | 3.83 | .735 | | | |
| | | Some College | 3.70 | .861 | (3)<(4) | | |
| | | Undergraduate degree | 4.11 | .739 | | | |
| | | Graduate degree | 3.74 | .755 | | | |
| Understanding | Education | Less than high school | 4.18 | .545 | | 2.337 | 0.057 |
| | | High school graduate | 4.01 | .596 | | | |
| | | Some college | 3.93 | .738 | (3)<(4) | | |
| | | Undergraduate degree | 4.34 | .578 | | | |
| | | Graduate degree | 4.05 | .578 | | | |
| Coworker Support | Department | Front Office | 4.35 | .550 | (1)>(2) | 6.593 | 0.000** |
| | | Housekeeping | 3.92 | .643 | (2)<(3) | | |
| | | Food & Beverage | 4.25 | .666 | | | |
| | | Maintenance/Other | 4.25 | .625 | | | |
| | Guest contact | High contact | 4.20 | .638 | (1)>(2) | 3.626 | 0.028* |
| | | Low contact | 3.94 | .678 | | | |
| | | No contact | 3.85 | .191 | | | |
| Future Prospects | Education | Less than high school | 3.95 | .602 | | 2.673 | 0.033* |
| | | High school graduate | 3.63 | .750 | (2)<(4) | | |
| | | Some College | 3.70 | .835 | | | |
| | | Undergraduate degree | 4.11 | .726 | | | |
| | | Graduate degree | 3.74 | .629 | | | |

Table 6 Results of T-tests and ANOVAs for Organizational Commitment

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|------|------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
| Gender | Male | 3.47 | .591 | | -0.925 | | 0.356 |
| | Female | 3.55 | .622 | | | | |
| Generation | Generation Z | 3.34 | .494 | | | 2.602 | .053 |
| | Millennial | 3.52 | .663 | | | | |
| | Generation X | 3.65 | .558 | | | | |
| | Baby Boomer | 3.77 | .612 | | | | |
| Marital Status | Married | 3.65 | .597 | | -1.996 | | 0.047* |
| | Not Married | 3.47 | .620 | | | | |
| Education | Less than high school | 3.57 | .469 | | | 0.682 | 0.605 |
| | High school graduate or equivalent | 3.47 | .635 | | | | |
| | Associate degree | 3.59 | .638 | | | | |
| | Bachelor's degree | 3.66 | .676 | | | | |
| | Master's degree | 3.48 | .489 | | | | |
| Employment Status | Full-time | 3.55 | .617 | | 1.645 | | 0.102 |
| | Part-time | 3.38 | .594 | | | | |
| Department | Front office | 3.67 | .675 | | | 2.309 | 0.059 |
| | Housekeeping | 3.40 | .547 | | | | |
| | Food & Beverage | 3.65 | .626 | | | | |
| | Maintenance/Other | 3.55 | .622 | | | | |
| Guest contact | High contact | 3.57 | .650 | | | 2.001 | 0.138 |
| | Low contact | 3.43 | .504 | | | | |
| | No guest contact | 3.09 | .237 | | | | |

Table 7 Results of T-tests and ANOVAs for Organizational Commitment

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|-------------------|--------------------|------|------|-------|---|-------|-------|
| Industry tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.70 | .668 | | | 2.203 | .089 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.45 | .603 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.44 | .565 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.68 | .618 | | | | |
| Hotel tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.57 | .638 | | | 0.782 | 0.490 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.47 | .626 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.48 | .545 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.65 | .575 | | | | |
| Position tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.57 | .596 | | | 0.619 | 0.620 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.48 | .619 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.60 | .543 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.61 | .659 | | | | |
| Supervisor tenure | Less than 1 year | 3.58 | .643 | | | 1.134 | 0.336 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.49 | .594 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.57 | .576 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.78 | .692 | | | | |

Table 8 Organizational socialization tactics – items with significant differences

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|---|-----------------------|------|-------|---------|-------|-------|--------|
| <i>I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities.</i> | | | | | | | |
| Gender | Male | 4.18 | .875 | | 2.281 | | .024* |
| | Female | 3.86 | 1.003 | | | | |
| Education | Less than high school | 3.63 | 1.209 | (1)<(4) | | 2.592 | .038* |
| | High school graduate | 3.87 | 1.075 | (2)<(4) | | | |
| | Some college | 4.08 | .829 | | | | |
| | Undergraduate degree | 4.14 | .693 | (4)<(5) | | | |
| | Graduate degree | 4.54 | .660 | | | | |
| <i>I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods.</i> | | | | | | | |
| Department | Front office | 2.86 | 1.118 | (1)<(2) | | 4.717 | .003** |
| | Housekeeping | 3.58 | 1.052 | | | | |
| | Food and Beverage | 3.35 | 1.062 | | | | |
| | Maintenance/other | 3.36 | 1.221 | | | | |
| <i>The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified</i> | | | | | | | |
| Employment Status | Part-time | 3.65 | .956 | | | 2.426 | .022* |
| | Full-time | 3.17 | .917 | | | | |
| <i>My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events that has been clearly communicated to me.</i> | | | | | | | |
| Education | Less than high school | 3.96 | .999 | (1)>(3) | | 2.767 | .028* |
| | High school graduate | 3.41 | 1.065 | | | | |
| | Some college | 3.13 | 1.055 | | | | |
| | Undergraduate degree | 3.45 | 1.121 | | | | |
| | Graduate degree | 3.38 | .870 | | | | |
| Department | Front office | 3.20 | 1.154 | | | 3.576 | .015* |
| | Housekeeping | 3.46 | .972 | | | | |
| | Food and Beverage | 3.73 | 1.086 | (3)>(4) | | | |
| | Maintenance/other | 3.00 | .866 | | | | |
| <i>Almost all of my coworkers have been supportive of me personally.</i> | | | | | | | |
| Department | Front office | 4.04 | .978 | | | 4.692 | .003** |
| | Housekeeping | 3.81 | .966 | (2)<(3) | | | |
| | Food and Beverage | 4.33 | .754 | | | | |
| | Maintenance/other | 4.36 | .810 | | | | |
| Guest contact | High guest contact | 4.14 | .955 | | .4015 | | .019* |
| | Low guest contact | 3.73 | .849 | | | | |

Table 15 cont.

| Variable | Category | Mean | SD | Tukey | t | F | Sig. |
|--|-----------------------|------|-------|---------|--------|-------|--------|
| <i>I have received little guidance from experienced organization members as to how I should perform my job</i> (scores reflect reverse coding) | | | | | | | |
| Generation | Generation Z | 3.67 | 1.239 | (1)>(3) | | 4.784 | .003** |
| | Millennials | 3.40 | 1.201 | (2)>(3) | | | |
| | Generation X | 2.77 | 1.175 | | | | |
| | Baby Boomers | 3.36 | 1.150 | | | | |
| Marital status | Married | 2.94 | 1.250 | | -2.583 | | .012* |
| | Not married | 3.38 | 1.171 | | | | |
| Education | Less than high school | 2.75 | 1.152 | (1)<(4) | | 4.471 | .002** |
| | High school graduate | 3.10 | 1.233 | (2)<(4) | | | |
| | Some college | 3.32 | 1.242 | | | | |
| | Undergraduate degree | 3.90 | .976 | (4)<(5) | | | |
| | Graduate degree | 2.62 | 1.044 | | | | |
| Industry years | Less than 1 year | 3.83 | 1.116 | | | 5.087 | .002** |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.13 | 1.230 | (1)>(2) | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 2.89 | 1.184 | (1)>(3) | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.09 | 1.184 | (1)>(4) | | | |
| Position years | Less than 1 year | 3.60 | 1.176 | (1)>(3) | | 3.666 | .013* |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.21 | 1.220 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 2.74 | 1.095 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 2.92 | 1.256 | | | | |
| Supervisor years | Less than 1 year | 3.56 | 1.195 | (1)>(4) | | 4.257 | .006 |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.24 | 1.182 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 2.63 | 1.115 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 2.87 | 1.302 | | | | |
| <i>I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing my senior colleagues.</i> | | | | | | | |
| Industry years | Less than 1 year | 4.17 | .919 | (1)>(5) | | 4.518 | .004** |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.95 | .820 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.83 | .963 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.46 | 1.098 | | | | |
| Hotel years | Less than 1 year | 4.13 | .843 | (1)>(3) | | 4.325 | .006** |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.79 | .913 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.48 | 1.159 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.59 | 1.078 | | | | |
| Position years | Less than 1 year | 4.10 | .869 | (1)>(4) | | 5.633 | .001** |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.94 | .833 | (2)>(4) | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.67 | 1.144 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.23 | 1.160 | | | | |
| Supervisor years | Less than 1 year | 4.11 | .880 | (1)>(4) | | 3.459 | .017* |
| | 1 – 5 years | 3.92 | .825 | | | | |
| | 6 – 10 years | 3.63 | 1.149 | | | | |
| | 11 years and above | 3.39 | .979 | | | | |

4.6 Qualitative

The participants in the qualitative strand of the study were purposefully selected for maximum variation of a limited number of demographic variables and organizational characteristics. Participants in the study also completed the survey. 17 hotel employees participated in in-depth interviews at the hotels where they were employed. Interviews were either conducted in-person on the same day as survey completion or on a follow-up visit. All interviews were digitally recorded and then transcribed into Microsoft Word documents. The Word documents were imported into the NVIVO 12 Pro for Windows. The interviews were conducted in October, 2018.

The qualitative strand of this study had an overarching purpose to explore the context, content and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics utilized by hotels to facilitate employee learning. There were two sub-goals. The first was to identify discontinuous events that impact organizational roles and explore resocialization around those events and the second was to further examine organizational socialization tactics utilized by hotel companies. The transcriptions of participant interviews were coded, and several themes and sub-themes emerged.

Table 9 Demographic Profiles of Participants

| Respondent | Gender | Generation | Department | Years at Current Hotel |
|------------|--------|--------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | Male | Millennial | Maintenance | 6 – 10 years |
| 2 | Female | Generation X | Front Office / Reservations | 1 – 5 years |
| 3 | Female | Baby Boomer | Food & Beverage | 1 – 5 years |
| 4 | Female | Baby Boomer | Front Office / Reservations | 1 – 5 years |
| 5 | Female | Millennial | Housekeeping / Laundry | 6 – 10 years |
| 6 | Male | Millennial | Front Office / Reservations | Less than 1 year |
| 7 | Female | Generation X | Front Office / Reservations | 11 years or more |
| 8 | Female | Baby Boomer | Housekeeping / Laundry | 11 years or more |
| 9 | Female | Baby Boomer | Front Office / Reservations | 6 – 10 years |
| 10 | Male | Baby Boomer | Maintenance | 1 – 5 years |
| 11 | Female | Generation X | Sales | 1 – 5 years |
| 12 | Female | Millennial | Housekeeping / Laundry | 1 – 5 years |
| 13 | Female | Baby Boomer | Sales | 1 – 5 years |
| 14 | Male | Millennial | Housekeeping / Laundry | Less than 1 year |
| 15 | Male | Baby Boomer | Housekeeping / Laundry | Less than 1 year |
| 16 | Male | Generation Z | Housekeeping / Laundry | Less than 1 year |
| 17 | Male | Generation X | Front Office / Reservations | 1 – 5 years |

4.6.1 Changes

The first part of the qualitative interviews explored discontinuous events that impact organizational roles and looked at resocialization around those events. Participants were asked about changes that have happened since they began working at the hotel, the impact of the change on their job or role, and any new skills or knowledge needed to adapt to the change.

These events were pertaining to individuals, and therefore changes related to an individual's job tasks and organizational role.

The most common responses pertained to changes with job tasks or procedures. Six participants noted changes in procedures to guest room cleaning and maintenance. These included a parent company adding a requirement to use black lights to preventative maintenance procedures, adding a recycling bin to the trash can, no longer putting ceramic mugs in guest rooms, new televisions in the rooms, changes to the bedding and procedures for making the beds, and different shower curtain rings. Three participants at separate hotels mentioned computer system upgrades, and two participants from different hotels discussed changes to the parent company rewards program. The nature of these changes involved acquisition of referent information, or "what is required to function on the job" (Miller & Jablin, 1991, p. 99). Related skills or knowledge needed for these types of changes were communicated verbally or demonstrated by coworkers and supervisors. The two parent companies who made changes to their rewards programs offered online training to educate employees. However, property management system upgrades required experimenting to determine changes. As one participant explained:

Sometimes we'll get an update on our (front office property management) system and we're not given formal training on it so it's trial-and-error me going in there and digging and teaching everybody else out here showing the shortcuts and stuff and things I do (Participant 7).

Participants also discussed role transitions and other personnel changes at their hotel. Eight participants experienced role transitions during their employment tenure at the hotel. Five of those changes involved a different role within the same functional area, such as housekeeping to laundry. Three transitions involved a change of department. All participants who experienced role transitions had performed job duties in their new role before the transition through cross-training or were previously shown how to perform duties by coworkers. Other personnel changes involved a leadership changes at two hotels. In one case, the general manager left, and a the newly appointed general manager was promoted from within. At another hotel, the change in general manager also coincided with a new third-party management company. Participants at that hotel reported positive changes in market competitiveness, guest room amenities, new laundry equipment, and participants' professional growth related to the new general managers' leadership.

4.6.2 Socialization Processes

This section discusses socialization processes. While the goal of this interview section was to explore organizational-driven socialization tactics, participants also responded with their proactive behaviors. First, participant responses regarding organizational socialization tactics are summarized following Jones' (1986) three-factor model. Next, proactive behaviors that emerged from the literature are identified and discussed. The final section discusses emergent themes regarding hotel guests as socialization agents.

The context factor of Jones's (1986) model includes collective and formal socialization tactics. Collective tactics refer to the degree of group compared to isolated learning, and formal tactics indicate the degree of separation from regular organization members (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979).

While previous research emphasizes the benefit of collective and formal socialization tactics, all 17 participants discussed primarily one-on-one learning experiences that occurred on-the-job. In the examples provided, learning activities including a group of ones' coworkers (collective) were generally not performed separately from the job itself (formal). An instance was being shown job tasks in a group as a small maintenance department. Further, learning activities conducted separately from the job rarely included ones' coworkers. Three participants mentioned off-site learning activities attended individually without their coworkers: participating in an off-site training course, completing a sales workshop, and attending a sales conference.

Online training from parent companies was the most frequently mentioned form of learning separate from job duties, discussed by six participants. The content of online learning programs included safety, standards, guest services, professional development, and rewards program changes. Employees who lack computer access may have more opportunities for tactics that are both collective and formal. According to one participant, employees with computer access would perform training modules and refreshers on their work stations, while departments such as housekeeping and food and beverage would be likely to receive the same information as a group in a meeting room.

Whereas some studies have portrayed the negative characteristics of on-the-job training, four participants spoke positively about on-the-job training with repetition being a key benefit. Two of those participants identified themselves as a hands-on person. As one participant summarized:

A lot of it has been on-the-job, but we do have our training on the computers and stuff which we've all done. I mean, on-the-job training is the best...just, you're right there. You're doing it, you're repeatedly doing it. You're repetitive, and then it just gets in your head the more times you do it. (Participant 17).

On-the-job training may include performing job duties before an individual is adequately prepared, and this can occur more frequently in hospitality jobs due to high turnover and job roles with high guest contact. One participant described a sink-or-swim learning experience as a newcomer.

Well second day on the job we were super busy and I just kind of got thrown into it so.

It's kind of a sink or swim type deal but I picked up the system really fast. (Participant 6)

The second factor in Jones's model is content factors, which include sequential tactics – the degree of “discrete and identifiable steps leading to the target role” (VanMaanen & Schein, 1979, p. 51) and fixed tactics – the degree to which a rigid timetable exists. There were sequential tactics reported by the participants, but the use of timetables was limited.

There was a mix of responses pertaining to sequential tactics. Three participants felt there were clear, identifiable steps (Participant 2, Participant 14, Participant 17). Six participants indicated that information content was neither sequential nor random (Participant 1, Participant 8, Participant 9, Participant 12, Participant 15, Participant 16). Another six participants reported tactics that were more random (Participant 3, Participant 4, Participant 6, Participant 10, Participant 11, Participant 13). Responses were not obtained for the two remaining participants.

Specific steps were related to job tasks and role learning. There was not mention of steps to learn about the work group or organization. According to one participant, the sequence of learning was “show up and then get to work.” Another indicated that while there was not a sequence to his/her knowledge, they felt there was clarity for what was expected. For the front office participants, steps included various customer service skills (Participant 2). Different shifts are utilized for training because they expose the front office trainee to different tasks and customer needs.

When I first started, I started out on the second shift. I was doing check-ins, reservations, making the reservation and learning how to check people in. I did that for a couple weeks and then they put me on a couple of mid-shifts for training so like maybe 10 to 6 or 9 to 5 or 9 to 4 whatever they want to work so that way I still had my checkouts and how to take the cash. (Participant 2)

Regarding fixed versus variable tactics, Table 17 summarizes participant responses regarding timetables. One response reflects awareness of a timetable. When asked to elaborate on the learning goals of the timetable, the participant reported:

The one month was like checking people in, checking people out; three months would have been reservations; six months, the six-month thing was just knowing more about the area so you could offer recommendations and that kind of thing (Participant 6).

Another participant explained a fixed timetable was not realistic because everyone learns at different speeds.

Table 10 Participant responses regarding timetables

| Department | Timetable |
|--------------|--|
| Maintenance | Every time we get a new person we work with him for about a week. |
| Housekeeping | I was put on the floor within like 3 days being by myself. |
| Housekeeping | Bathrooms for 2 weeks, then beds; By myself after 2 weeks |
| Laundry | I guess it was just expected. |
| Laundry | Up to at least month. |
| F&B | Probably three weeks. |
| Front office | Not that I'm aware of. |
| Front office | I'd give it about a month. |
| Front office | One month, three, and then six. They wanted you to have certain things picked up on and that you could do by that timeframe. |
| Front office | It was just how quick can you learn. |
| Front office | It takes you here a good six months to be comfortable. |
| Sales | Less structured. |

The third factor, social aspects, includes serial tactics in which experienced organizational members serve as role models, and investing tactics refer to “the degree to which newcomers receive positive or negative social support after entry from experienced organizational members” (Jones, 1986, p. 265). Related to serial tactics, several themes emerged regarding how participants learned through observing experienced organizational members. Regarding investing tactics, participants provided examples of supervisor concern for their wellbeing, and perceptions of how their supervisors valued their contributions including empowerment, encouragement, and feedback.

Serial tactics refer to the use of experienced organizational members as role models in the socialization process and are the first part of the social aspects factor of organizational socialization. Participants described who they considered role models and provided examples of

what they learned from these individuals. Three participants discussed observing coworkers to learn about the best ways to perform their own job tasks and to learn about other areas in the hotel, as stated by one participant:

Watching the way somebody else does something might be different from the way I do it.

And just kind of streamline everything together (Participant 17).

Whereas employees looked to the example of coworkers to obtain and improve job skills, participants learned about customer service from managers including speaking professionally and calming upset guests. Employees are also watching supervisors' examples of work ethic. On one hand, there was an example of a general manager who was observed cleaning in the lobby. On the other hand, a supervisor was perceived as not doing anything and delegating what the participant believed were that person's duties.

Personal support. As previously stated, investing tactics refer to "the degree to which newcomers receive positive or negative social support after entry from experienced organizational members" (Jones, 1986, p. 265). Participants discussed personal support received from their supervisors. Two participants reported fairness and assistance with scheduling for personal needs (Participant 12, Participant 15). One participant also expressed appreciation for supervisor support to try to get him insurance more quickly (Participant 15). Another example of concern for wellbeing was an employee who reported her supervisors helped her feel better if she were having a bad day (Participant 2). A supportive general manager was described in the following:

He's very supportive you could talk to him about any personal problems or on the job problems and he'll speak to you like a human being and not like someone that's way under him. He gives you respect. (Participant 12)

Feeling valued. There were various examples in how participants felt colleagues and supervisors valued their contributions to the organization. Participants reported meaningful ways the supervisors have directly supported them in their job tasks. Three participants discussed supervisors providing help when they are extra busy or when they are behind (Participant 4, Participant 6, Participant 16).

Employees feel supported when supervisors are fair and helpful with guest conflict escalation and coworker issues. Participants valued receiving clear responses to questions or help with issues (Participant 1, Participant 17). One participant discussed how her managers backed her up in guest situations (Participant 2). Supervisors also showed support by assisting a participant with problems with coworkers (Participant 12).

I could talk to people that will handle the situation without throwing you under the bus. Basically, like they will handle it for you. And a lot of jobs they can just brush it off. Here they don't. They take it seriously (Participant 12).

The ability to ask questions and to make mistakes were ways that participants described learning from coworkers and supervisors. Four participants discussed feeling comfortable seeking information from their coworkers and supervisors. They reported approachability and willingness to help from coworkers. One mentioned a general manager's open-door policy, and another stated he could ask questions of any hotel managers. Mistakes can be viewed as learning

opportunities in a supportive environment. One participant reported a supervisor's assurance that any mistakes could be fixed (Participant 4).

Participants felt encouraged to be their best by supervisors (Participants 1, Participant 4, Participant 7, Participant 16). They reported being given opportunities, feeling trusted, being empowered, and feeling their supervisors were preparing them for advancement. Participants also felt contributions were valued when they received feedback from supervisors (Participant 1, Participant 3).

Coworker support – family. Regarding supportive environments, the word family came up in four interviews. When employees feel like they are part of a family in a workplace, there is a sense of belonging in being part of that group, and how they relate to one another. It meant “camaraderie” and “to take care of each other regardless” for one participant (Participant 4), and “willing to jump in and help out” for another (Participant 9). Another response referred to feeling supported as a new employee.

The coworkers are more than willing to help. It's almost more like a family feel rather than just they're your coworkers. Like everybody cares about their job and really puts in an effort and even new people that come in. Everybody's just willing to just go the extra mile to help get you up to speed. (Participant 6)

One response indicated “90 percent of the people that are employed here are like family” which suggests that the remaining 10 percent may lack a sense of belonging (Participant 9). Another aspect of the family environment is a participant who was called Mama by her coworkers because she adopted a maternal role with her younger coworkers (Participant 4).

4.6.3 Guests as socialization agents

Hotel employees described several ways guests have helped them acquire knowledge about their organizational role. Themes including relationship-building with guests, enhancing interpersonal skills through guest interaction, and receiving and integrating guest feedback.

Relationship-building. Several participants described various ways they have developed relationships with guests. One participant reported getting close with returning guests stating, “you’re just like a hotel family” (Participant 2). At one hotel, three participants mentioned guests asking after them personally and even asking follow-up questions about personal information provided on a previous stay. Long-term repeat guests would discuss with them how the hotel has changed over the years. Two participants described their positive feelings regarding social interactions with guests.

Even when I come in and I don't feel good I mean you still got you know like when I went to work and I didn't feel good you know they always make me smile but I mean like when you know ‘cause we have a couple of older ones to come in I'll still make ‘em smile I mean we just do it back and forth so (Participant 2).

I like the environment most of the guests are very friendly talkative people they don't make you feel weird or you know you see in the hallway there like hey good morning how are you know they actually speak to you (Participant 12).

Sometimes guests are patient and understanding with new employees such as this example.

I mean you know when I was new they stood there like, you know we've been in your shoes before I mean they're just great they are but we have returning ones now.

(Participant 2).

Another mentioned a less gracious experience with a guest as a newcomer.

Well, when I first started, not because I hadn't completed all my training yet and I was kind of throwed out there at the front desk to work shift by myself because they were short-handed I know, I had a guest and I'll never forget it he come up and says I'm a diamond member and this is the way it's supposed to be and I said yes, sir, and then I cried like a baby because he hurt my feelings but he knew I was new and he was just trying to get me to understand. Especially with him 'cause he's very particular guest and he's been coming here ever since I've been here and long before. he wants things done a certain way. but then over the years when you get familiar with your regular guests that come and go all the time, you realize and learn really quickly just by conversation what they like, what they don't like and you can aim for a perfect guest experience just by getting to know your guests so it's very helpful that you learn from your guests as well as your employees and the computer training. (Participant 9)

Feedback. Guests regularly provide feedback on their likes/dislikes, and their past experiences. The information received through these interactions provides knowledge that can be integrated into an employee's job tasks or assist with customization of hotel services. Two participants reported feedback about the physical property including what bed sizes would be preferred over the current room types. One participant incorporated a long-term guest's

preference in all the rooms she cleans, and another participant mentioned guests helping him remember if he forgets something in the room. Guests can be more knowledgeable about the way things are done or should be done, such as this example regarding a parent company's loyalty program.

They educate us. They get stuff in the mail about stuff, so yeah. It's getting everyone to know about it. (Participant 17)

Guests – interpersonal skills. Five participants reported improving interpersonal skills through interaction with hotel guests (Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 7, Participant 8, Participant 17). Two participants explained that they have become more outgoing as the result of guest interactions (Participant 2, Participant 8).

Some of them are snotty, you just got to still be kind. I mean they've helped me a lot, I mean with more being a people person cuz usually I'm just work and home. (Participant 2)

Just being in like customer service for a few years you know how to talk to guests. You know the guests basically are always right you know and that's what you are. You're customer service. You're there to make their stay as pleasant as possible and I just would always use my common sense my upbringing you know all that kind of stuff cuz I did work in the lighting studio for 10 years. Customer service, so I was always with guests. Customers guests customers and just the customer service part of it and I like people. (Participant 4)

The hotel guests have helped me to be more and empathetic person because they do have things going on in their life that we're not aware of. Just like my personal life and my business life work I've are two totally separate things they may be having a bad day you know they may come in here crying they may be coming in here upset and you don't know what the reasons are it could be their family it could be something totally different so a lot of times you have to be empathetic listener and get to the root of the problem make him happy. (Participant 7)

Several participants discussed learning to read people.

I can pretty much handle anybody whether if there pro or con in a way I've dealt with all sorts of people over the years and every time there's some times where I get surprised and I did not expect that from that guy then there's times where people are obvious I can tell you know if they're going to be a nice person in order going to be unpleasant to deal with you know you can read people easier once you been with enough people in a way... you know I could tell basically if I have a nice chit chat with you for like 10 minutes I can tell that if you're going to give me a hard time on how I how I do my job. Or you're going to have to tell me this is what happened I don't know what to do can you fix it that's why I know you're going to be that be that kind of guy like give me information I need what happen right then and there other than this guy is going to go like I don't know what happened I don't know what to do what you going to do to fix it you know going to get a little aggressive about it and being unreasonable you know it's just I don't want to be I don't want to sound like that guy but you know there's going to be people that you're always going to have disagreements with and there's always going to be people that can

agree with you sure you just got to learn to you know handle it in a professional way regardless. (Participant 1)

They've taught me that don't put anything past anyone. They will do anything like they are not scared. You have to learn when to say no and understand when they're scamming you and when is the appropriate time to be on a more friendlier basis, and when you probably need to call the police. (Participant 11)

Participants have learned when its appropriate to joke or be chatty with a guest, and when guests want to keep things straight to the point.

We've learned that there is still good people in the world. So you do learn that you can build a relationship with some of these people because they are. There are there are good people. They are sometimes hard to find. They taught me when it's okay to be very serious, some guests they just want to check in and go to their room. That's all they want to do. They don't want to hear about your day and you've gotta distinguish that it cuz I used to just be that person that was Hi how are you doing. But you learn... okay this person. You learn the difference between about people. That's mainly what they did they taught me. There's a time and a place. There's a time and a place for bubbly. There's a time and a place for straight and to the point there's a time and place for humor.

(Participant 11)

Like if I know they're jokester and sometimes I got to feel them out first before I joke around with them. If I feel that their jokes jokester I would mention something that they said or done do something that they said or things like that. Sometimes it could be a

good thing and sometimes I can be a bad. I never though had it happen to me where it's been a bad thing. (Participant 8)

And you can read people who is a certain way, you can read people, ones you know have a sense of humor and who don't have a sense of humor. Ones you can say stuff to, and ones you can't say stuff too. (Participant 4)

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This study was conducted to examine the impact of organizational socialization tactics and the outcomes of socialization learning, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. There is limited study on organizational socialization processes and outcomes in the hospitality context. Organizational socialization was found to increase socialization learning outcomes, to positively impact organizational commitment, and to decrease turnover intentions. Thus, organizational investment in socialization programs should be expected to have positive outcomes for hotel companies.

5.1 Discussion of Research Objectives

5.1.1 Relationship between socialization tactics and socialization learning

The first research objective was to analyze how employee perceptions of organizational socialization tactics influence socialization learning. This objective was achieved by testing Hypothesis 1, which stated *there is a positive relationship between institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and the four domains of socialization learning: a) training, b) understanding, c) coworker support, and d) future prospects*. Institutionalized organizational socialization tactics were significantly and positively related to all four domains of socialization learning, meaning that participants who perceived that tactics provided by their companies were more institutionalized in nature had higher levels of socialization learning. This finding is similar to Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) who found socialization tactics positively predicted socialization learning using a different framework for learning domains. The learning domains in the study included social, interpersonal resources, organization and role. They found

“tactics were stronger predictors of more directly work-related information areas (role and organization)” (p. 429).

5.1.2 Relationship between socialization learning and organizational commitment

The second research objective was to evaluate how perceived levels of socialization learning impact organizational commitment. This objective was completed by testing Hypothesis 2, which stated *there is a significant positive relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, (d) future prospects – and organizational commitment*. The two domains of coworker support and future prospects were positively associated with organizational commitment. However, the learning domains of training and understanding did not have significant impact. This finding indicates that employees with higher levels of coworker support and greater acceptance of their organization are more emotionally attached to their employers. These results partially align with Taormina and Bauer (2000) who found all four learning domains of training, understanding, coworker support, and future prospects were all significantly and positively related to affective commitment. A later study by Taormina (2004) found that future prospects explained most of the variance. Both of the previous studies included participants with diverse occupations across multiple industries, whereas the present study is focused on the select service hotel industry, which is likely to have less formalized training. Variation in on-the-job training and the prevalence of sink-or-swim experiences may explain the lack of a significant finding. Training in the hotel industry, especially in smaller hotels without human resources department, is frequently one-on-one with an experienced coworker who is proficient in their job duties but may not have extensive knowledge or experience as a trainer. Frequently staffing challenges may require an employee to perform job duties or cover shifts before they feel adequately

prepared. While employee socialization is intended to reduce role stressors, informal training can contribute to emotional exhaustion and burnout for both trainee and trainer and subsequently may explain a lack of the expected impact of training and understanding on employee commitment levels.

While the present study did not find a significant relationship between the socialization learning domain of training and organizational commitment, two multi-dimensional studies found training factors did have a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment (Bulut & Culha, 2010; Dhar, 2015). In one study, four factors of training – training motivation, access to training, benefits from training, and support for training – had a significant, positive influence on organizational commitment (Bulut & Culha, 2010). Dhar (2015) found three of those four factors excluding training motivation were significantly related to organizational commitment. While the socialization learning domain of training measures an employee's perceptions of how well the company prepared them to perform their job duties, the multi-dimensional training models examine multiple factors that could be considered to enhance the organizational socialization tactics that influence socialization learning.

5.1.3 Organizational Socialization Tactics and Turnover Intentions

The third research objective was to investigate the effect of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics on turnover intentions. This objective was accomplished by testing Hypothesis 3, which stated *there is a significant negative relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and turnover intentions*. This hypothesis was supported. Employees who reported a higher degree of institutionalized socialization tactics have a lower intention of leaving their jobs. This finding is the same as Ashforth, Sluss, and Saks (2007) and Jones (1986) who found that institutionalized organizational tactics were negatively associated

with intentions to quit. Similarly, Bauer et al. (2007) found organizational socialization tactics were positively associated with intentions to remain. In contrast to those studies and the present research, Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) found institutionalized organizational socialization tactics were not significantly related to intentions to quit. Allen (2006) found partial support for the impact of institutionalized organizational socialization tactics on turnover intentions. Using the six-tactic framework, serial and investing tactics were the only two of six tactics that had a significant negative relationship with turnover intentions.

5.1.4 Socialization Learning and Turnover Intentions

The fourth research objective was to examine the relationship between socialization learning and turnover intentions. This was done by assessing Hypothesis 4 which states that *there is a significant negative relationship between the four domains of socialization learning – (a) training, (b) understanding, (c) coworker support, and (d) future prospects - and turnover intentions*. H4a, H4b, and H4c were not significant, but H4d was supported. This indicates that employees who reported higher levels of future prospects had a lower intention of leaving their jobs. This is consistent with similar findings. Qiu, Ben, Hung and Yan (2015) found promotional / advancement opportunities can reduce turnover intentions of employees in the hotel industry. Taormina and Kuok (2009) identified the learning domain of future prospects as “the strongest negative predictor of turnover intention, stressing the need for management to recognize the importance of future prospects for retaining employees” (p.290).

The lack of expected results for the relationship between training, understanding, and coworker support on turnover intentions may be explained by Herzberg’s two-factor theory which considers employee needs as either motivation or hygiene factors (Heery & Noon, 2008). The absence of hygiene factors, such as fair pay, lead to job dissatisfaction but do not tend to

increase satisfaction levels. Alternately, motivation factors can increase job satisfaction, and job satisfaction has been found to reduce turnover intentions (Yang, 2008). Average levels for training, understanding, and coworker support were relatively high. This may indicate that employees felt those needs were met, but positive assessments did not lead to a significant decrease in turnover intentions. Employees may have basic expectations that they will achieve desired levels of training, understanding, and coworker support through the socialization processes, which therefore limits the influence these variables have on job attitudes including turnover reduction. Similarly, Hypothesis 2a and 2b were not significant in this study, meaning training and understanding did not increase organizational commitment levels. Hypothesis 2c was supported, indicating levels of perceived coworker support increased organizational commitment, but lack of support for Hypothesis 4c showed levels of coworker support did not reduce turnover intentions. While coworker support may increase an employee's emotional bond with their organization, it may be a basic expectation which would prevent an employee from leaving their company if they were attracted to a different job with higher pay or better benefits.

5.1.5 Context, Content, and Social Aspects of Organizational Socialization Tactics

The fifth and final research objective was to further explore the context, content, and social aspects of organizational socialization tactics. This was accomplished through qualitative interviews. Qualitative results enriched survey data by illuminating organizational socialization tactics in the hotel industry context. For example, it may be less likely that new employees in select service hotels start with a cohort as suggested by collective socialization tactics. Participants in the study discussed socialization tactics that were primarily individual and informal such as one-on-one, on-the-job learning with coworkers. Online training was the most

commonly mentioned type of training conducted separate from the job, however participants indicated a preference for hands-on learning or at least acknowledgement that they need to experience practice and repetition. Content factors of socialization tactics related to identifiable steps and the existence of timetables. Interview participants had mixed perceptions of whether clear steps had been identified, and either limited awareness of timetables or timetables with limited milestones.

Interview results related to social aspects of organizational socialization tactics provided the most examples of tactics that were considered institutionalized. Social aspects include serial tactics meaning the use of experienced organizational members as role models and investing tactics which refers to the degree of support provided by an organization. Participants discussed observing their coworkers for job and task learning and observing their supervisors as exemplars of effective interpersonal relations. These qualitative findings are consistent with Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) who found that “newcomers gathered information from appropriate role models (supervisors, coworkers), but actual learning or knowledge took place through the observation and experimentation strategies” (p. 869). Participants felt supported both personally and professionally by coworkers and supervisors and provided examples of how their supervisors valued their contributions through empowerment, encouragement, and feedback. Baum (2015) points out “alongside this trend (of fewer managerial and supervisory layers) has been recognition of the value of an engaged and committed workforce, empowered to make and take decisions at the front-line without reference to the supervisory and managerial hierarchy” (p. 209).

The qualitative study explored the role of guests as socialization agents in addition to the social aspects included in the quantitative study. A key theme of how participants learned from

guests was improving interpersonal skills through guest interaction. Several participants discussed learning to read people and being able to gauge when chattiness or humor were appropriate. Interviewees also learned referent information for their job tasks through guest feedback.

5.2 Discussion of Demographic and Organizational Variables by Study Variable

Additional analysis was conducted on the demographic variables and organizational socialization tactics, and the following discussion summarizes significant results related to the key study variables of organizational socialization tactics, socialization learning domains, organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Organizational Socialization Tactics. There were no differences found in the overall measure of organizational socialization tactics by demographic or organizational variables. However, analysis of the individual items showed several differences which are discussed in relation to Jones' (1986) three-factor model and VanMaanen and Schein's (1979) six-tactic framework.

Context. The context factor includes collective and formal organizational socialization tactics. The item: "I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities" had significant differences by gender and education. Males in the study perceived a higher level of involvement with others in job-related activities than females. Related to the finding here, a previous study by Burbock et al. (2016) observed "female students prefer the institutionalized context socialization tactics significantly more than male students" (p. 39). It is possible females in the study desired a greater level of group activities than they received.

Regarding formal socialization tactics, there was a difference for the item “I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods” by department. Specifically, this item was higher for housekeeping than front office, which means that front office employees were more likely to feel they had performed job duties before they had a complete understanding of their job role. This is supported by comments from the qualitative interviews in this study where two front office employees mentioned being “thrown out there” because of staffing needs. This has also been called sink or swim, which Ashforth (2012) points out “undermines psychological safety” (p. 175). While it is likely other hotel departments may also perform job duties before feeling thoroughly familiar, front office may experience the most stress in this type of situation because customer interaction offers immediate feedback.

Content. Content factors include sequential and fixed tactics. Significant differences were found by department and education level for the fixed tactic item “My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events that has been clearly communicated to me” by department and education level. Food and beverage employees were higher than the maintenance/other group. Those with less than high school rated their organizations higher than those with some college. It could be that those with some college had higher expectations of their organization to provide a structured plan.

Social Aspects. The social aspects domain divides into serial and investing tactics. One item categorized as serial tactics had significant differences by guest contact: “Almost all of my coworkers have been supportive of me personally.” Employees who indicated high guest contact had higher levels of agreement with the statement. Also, food and beverage employees rated this item significantly higher than housekeeping employees.

Two of the items considered investing tactics had differences between tenure groups. First, there were significant differences between groups for “I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job” by marital status, generation, education, and the tenure variables of years working in the hotel industry, years working in current position, and years working for current supervisor. Married employees had lower perceived levels of guidance than those who indicated not married, and the tenure variables were inversely rated to perceptions of guidance. Those with the least tenure perceived the highest levels of guidance from experienced coworkers. Regarding generational differences, the older generation, Generation X, had lower perceived levels of guidance from experienced company members than either of the two younger cohorts. This could be attributed to a finding the millennials place a greater value on social rewards than other generations (King et al., 2017).

However, the differences for this item, as well as differences for “I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing my senior colleagues” by all four of the tenure variables could be attributed to career stage theory. According to Allen and Meyer (1993), career stage theory has two applications: “changes in attitudes across stages and the relations between work experience and attitudes at different stages” (p. 49). Klein and Heuser (2008) pointed out that “employees may reach varying levels of socialization on each of the content areas at different points in their tenure with the organizations” (p. 296). In the present finding, older generations, higher tenure levels, and married employees were all associated with lower levels of guidance. Cross tabulations indicate the distribution of married participants skews to older generation groups and higher tenure levels. On one hand, older generations or more tenured employees may indicate lower levels of guidance or observation of senior colleagues

because they feel less need for guidance or role models at their current career stage or also because they themselves are the experienced organization members or role models.

Socialization Learning. There were few significant differences with demographic or organizational groups for the four socialization learning domains. Those with undergraduate degrees reported higher perceived levels of training and understanding than those with some college. Participants with undergraduate degrees also had higher levels of future prospects than high school graduates.

There were differences between guest contact and department groups for the coworker support learning domain. Employees who indicated high guest contact had a higher level for the socialization learning domain of coworker support than those who stated low guest contact. Employees with high guest contact may feel more supported because they are more likely to work in teams to serve guests, where employees with lower guest contact tend to work more individually. Front office employees are also likely to have more regular contact with supervisors or managers. According to Tracey (2014), managerial support may be more important in hospitality settings, possibly “because of the close working relationships between managers and front-line staff that are evident in many operational settings” (p. 691). By department, housekeeping reported lower levels of coworker support than front office or food and beverage employees. In their study of room attendants, Chiang and Liu (2017) discovered higher stress leads to increased burnout, and increased burnout leads to higher turnover intentions.

Organizational commitment. Married study participants exhibited higher organizational commitment levels than study counterparts who indicated they were not married. There were no significant differences for organizational commitment found between education levels, which

differs from the finding by Gonzalez et al. (2016) that found lower education levels were associated with higher organizational commitment levels among hotel employees.

Turnover Intentions. There were significant differences in turnover intentions by gender, marital status, and generation. Males and participants indicating not married had higher levels of turnover intentions than their categorical counterparts. The order of generation group levels was inversely related with turnover intentions. Baby Boomers were least likely to leave their organization, followed by Generation X, Millennials, and Generation Z respectively. These findings are consistent with Iverson and Deery (1997), who found male employees had a higher intent to leave their organizations than females in the study and that younger employees had higher intentions to leave their organizations. Lu and Gursoy (2016) also found that younger employees had higher intentions to leave their organizations. Additionally, their study revealed Millennials had significantly higher turnover intentions than Baby Boomers when employees are emotionally exhausted. There was also a significant difference for turnover intentions by education level. Those with graduate degrees indicated a significantly greater intent to leave their organizations than participants with less than high school, high school graduates or those with undergraduate degrees. An informal conversation revealed a participant with a graduate degree was working in her current position while seeking employment in their career-related field. Higher turnover intentions for younger employees with higher education levels suggest hotel industry can be a stepping stone for their careers.

5.3 Major Conclusions

Survey data was enhanced by qualitative findings. In addition to further knowledge of organizational socialization tactics and their impact in the hotel industry, findings discuss employee's individual behaviors.

- Employees who perceive organizational socialization tactics as more institutionalized have higher levels for all four socialization learning domains: training, understanding, coworker support, and future prospects.
- When organizational socialization tactics are more institutionalized, employees had lower turnover intentions.
- Findings indicate socialization tactics in hotels may be either collective or formal, rather than both - learning with a cohort (collective) was likely to include one's job duties (informal) and learning conducted separately from job duties (formal) is likely to more individualized.
- Hotel employees are likely to have directly experienced job duties in their new roles before they officially change positions.
- Employees may prefer on-the-job training because of repetition or a desire for hands-on learning.
- Awareness of employer efforts to use sequential or fixed tactics was limited.
- Hotel employees engage in observational learning from socialization agents with two key themes: 1) learning to perform job tasks through coworker examples, and 2) watching supervisors and managers as role models for guest service skills
- Employees are gaining interpersonal skills through interaction with guests: receiving and integrating feedback, learning to read people, and increased confidence
- Employees with guest contact perceived higher levels of coworker support
- Higher levels of two of the four socialization learning domains of coworker support and future prospects positively impact organizational commitment.

- Employees with higher levels of just one domain, future prospects, had lower turnover intentions.

5.4 Practical Implications

The study focused on organizational socialization tactics and learning within upper midscale and upscale hotels in the United States. The following discusses ways that employers can improve organizational socialization tactics. Efforts should be tailored to two key timeframes in an employee's tenure in order to improve socialization learning and employee adjustment: 1) Entry to six months and 2) After six months. For the following discussion, employees at organizational entry through six months will be referred to as newcomers and employees who have been with the organization for more than six months will be referred to as socialization agents. Socialization agents are individuals who influence newcomers' and coworkers' learning about job role and culture. Practitioners in the hotel industry can use this research in the following ways:

Improving newcomer socialization. Study findings support the benefits of group socialization learning rather than activities that are more isolated. Onboarding groups form a bond that reduces uncertainty through their shared experience. Employees from different departments can learn about the hotels and its organizational culture together which can improve the consistency of the information provided. In newly built hotels, it is natural for companies to provide group training and socialization activities during pre-opening. However, employees in established hotels are less likely to be part of a training cohort. It is recommended that hotel employers align hiring and start dates when possible so newcomer onboarding can be provided in groups. Employers can offer formal socialization tactics by conducting training activities in meeting rooms or off-site to allow training to be separate from job duties.

Several findings suggest that organizational newcomers should be offered a structured training and development plan. This plan should relate to fixed and sequential socialization tactics by providing clear steps and a specific timetable for becoming a proficient organizational member. Small tokens like tchotchkes with the hotel logo can be tied to training milestones. A tangible object provides a symbol for the milestone that new hires can share with their families and can further promote organizational goals and values. Training and development plans can also outline opportunities for future growth and advancement within the hotel and management company. Employees should be provided with links to job openings throughout the management company so they can be aware of opportunities throughout the organization. Even when employees are new to a company, they may browse job openings to gain an awareness of career opportunities and company locations. This may help them see their future within the organization.

Select service hotels have fewer supervisory and management layers, and therefore fewer opportunities for vertical advancement. However, employers can offer additional training opportunities and cross-training after employees have been in their position for a certain duration of time and/or have achieved competency in their position. Participants in this study who changed positions at their hotel had already experienced job duties in their new role, so this is one way organizations can prepare employees for future promotion or other opportunities within the organization. Considering the four domains of socialization learning, cross-training enhances 1) training by increasing employee skills and abilities, develops 2) understanding by exposing hotel employees to a broader perspective of organizational goals and values, boosts 3) coworker support through increased awareness of coworkers' roles and responsibilities, and enhances 4) future prospects by contributing to employees' expectations for a rewarding career.

Employers may emphasize training for job skills and overlook the social aspects of newcomer onboarding. There are several ways companies can promote relationship-building for new hires. The first is to pair newcomers with a buddy who serves as a main contact person. In this context, a buddy is an experienced coworker that can serve as an informal mentor for newcomers. Companies can ensure this individual is knowledgeable about the company and employee benefits. This individual can proactively provide information about fun fringe benefits, like how to participate in employee room discount programs.

New employee welcome meetings or lunches should be held to provide opportunities for newcomers to meet existing employees. This is not a new idea in the hotel industry, but it deserves mention in the context of employee onboarding. Hotels get caught up in day-to-day operations and may forget the benefit of connecting new employees with coworkers. Often lunches are pitch-ins or potlucks where employees bring food to share. This is a traditional way that hotels provide opportunities to celebrate employee multi-culturalism. This aspect has additional meaning in the context of employee socialization, as such events can promote the collective identity of the hotel while also supporting the unique identities of its individual employees (Hurst, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Livingston, 2012).

Providing role models and mentoring opportunities is another opportunity for employers to enhance the social aspects of newcomer socialization. New hires can benefit from traditional mentoring programs where they can learn from veteran employees' industry knowledge and accumulated wisdom, but companies can consider other factors in connecting employees and mentors. The financial services company Baird has implemented a millennial reverse mentoring program (Bush & Tkaczyk, 2019). Millennials have digital skills that can assist older workers with technical knowledge. While millennials may be able to help older employees navigate

online communication, older workers can also help millennials with their in real life (IRL) people skills.

Practitioners can also encourage connections through improvement of employee areas. In the present study, back-of-the-house employees indicated lower levels of coworker support. Back-of-the-house are those who indicated low guest contact. These employees work in roles where direct interaction with guests is incidental to performing job duties, rather than an integral part of their core responsibilities. By contrast, front-of-the-house employees perform customer-facing roles. Front-of-the-house and back-of-the-house also refer to hotel areas. Front-of-the-house areas are those designed for the provision of customer service such as the front desk and lobby areas, and food and beverage dining areas. Alternately, back-of-the-house hotel areas include kitchens, laundry facilities, and storage areas. Employee entrances and break rooms are also part of back-of-the-house areas. One reason back-of-the-house employees may feel less supported is because these employee areas have been neglected in some hotels and also are not designed to facilitate interaction between departments. Hotel companies can enhance socialization by providing employee areas that encourage employee interaction which can lead to relationship-building and coworker support. Employers' care in providing a comfortable break area also shows organizational support. Operating budgets for employee food and beverage programs can consider improved socialization among the benefits of such financial investments.

Enhancing skills for socialization agents. Socialization agents are organizational insiders who influence newcomers' and coworkers' learning about job role and culture. Within a select service hotel, socialization agents may include a general manager, assistant manager or any other department manager who are in clear leadership roles. Depending on the organizational structure of the hotel, there may be direct supervisors in individual departments who are socialization

agents, such as a housekeeping or front desk supervisor. Finally, newcomers may have the most interaction with coworkers as socialization agents. Coworkers may be involved in newcomer training, but coworkers also informally help newcomers “learn the ropes” or help them understand how things get done around here. The majority of select service hotels lack on-site human resource personnel, and employee training in the hotel industry is frequently conducted by hourly employees who are proficient at their job duties. However, these individuals may lack experience and knowledge about effective training. One way hotels can improve organizational socialization is to ensure socialization agents complete train the trainer programs such as those offered by parent companies or the trainer development program created by the American Hotel and Lodging Education Institute. (AHLEI). Topics covered include adult learning, preparation for training, one-on-one and group training, and follow up (AHLEI, 2019). Management companies can designate an individual within their organization that can serve as a trainer for multiple hotels and hold an off-site training. Community colleges also work closely with industry to train employees in needed skills areas. These institutions may offer noncredit training for specific industrial employment and are also a source for college credit and degree programs that can building employees qualifications to improve advancement opportunities. When an employee does participate in an off-site training program, their new knowledge and skills can be reinforced by asking them to share or present key lessons to other socialization agents. This can provide a refresher or update when others have taken the same course.

Socializing newcomers increases the workload for organizational insiders (Feldman, 2012), which can subsequently contribute to stress and overload for the insider. Practitioners can improve socialization efforts by preventing burnout related to the additional workload of socialization agents. One way employers can help prevent burnout for socialization agents is to

provide extra day-to-day flexibility, such as longer breaks, or allowing employees to start later or leave early with pay. Offering additional time off can help socialization agents restore their energy levels. Employers must also show socialization agents that their contributions are valued in a way that is meaningful for that employee. That may include recognition programs within the hotel, industry recognition programs such as Stars of the Industry, a Starbucks gift card, or verbal encouragement. Employers should gauge what types of recognition convey appreciation to employees with training responsibilities. Verbal encouragement may be more important to some socialization agents than public recognition or tangible rewards.

Employers can distribute socialization tasks aligned with the strengths of individual socialization agents. An employee with strong organization skills may enjoy ensuring all equipment is arranged, could assist managers with preparing printed materials, and can verify that access to key programs has been set up in advance. This may not be the same person who is comfortable providing one-on-one training throughout an eight-hour shift. As mentioned in improving newcomer socialization, newcomers can be paired with a socialization agent or a buddy that can be trained to provide assistance to employees with organizational knowledge and company benefits. While a general manager or assistant management may be required to formally enroll employees in computer systems or benefit programs, new hires may feel more comfortable approaching a well-trained peer with their questions and concerns. This buddy can answer questions and liaise appropriately with management. Employers and designated buddies should ensure that the new hire knows all contact methods. A buddy should also minimize an employee's psychological costs of raising a question or concern by checking in with new employees regularly and reiterating their willingness to help. Finally, employers should ensure

that socialization agents are well-trained in the norms, values, and behaviors so that communication is consistent between multiple socialization agents.

Improve on-the-job learning. In addition to providing organizational newcomers with institutionalized socialization tactics, industry practitioners should cultivate an environment that enhances on-the-job learning. The present study shows the importance of formal socialization tactics, but also the prevalence of on-the-job learning. Select service hotels often do not have the resources – personnel, time, or space – to train front office employees away from the front desk. Hands-on learning experiences are part of on-the-job learning and are a necessary part of developing employee skills in a hotel environment. Several qualitative participants indicated a preference for hands-on learning because they need to perform and repeat tasks before they can remember the steps involved. However, there is pressure for new hires to perform regular job duties in order to handle customer demands. Analysis of socialization tactic items showed frontline employees were performing job duties before they were completely prepared. This is contradictory to formal socialization tactics whereby employee learning is conducted separately from the job.

Managers must avoid putting employees in sink-or-swim type of experiences whenever possible. However, they should follow-up mindfully when these situations inevitably occur. Follow-ups should include a manager's acknowledgement that the situation was difficult in a way that the employee does not internalize the challenges as personal deficiencies. Managers can help employees untangle any mistakes that may have been made and talk through resolving issues and options for service recovery. Together, employees and managers can assess any skills deficiencies that were identified as part of the experience such as basic tasks like a customer demanding a printed invoice when a new guest service agent does not know where to find it.

Employees and managers can discuss options to address situations without inconveniencing guests. Using the invoice as an example, employees may forget they could offer to email or mail the invoice or assure a printed copy would be placed in a guest room. This basic example is also intended as an illustration that newcomers may forget so-called obvious solutions when faced with role stress or anxiety. Managers should be aware that lack of support and encouragement can inhibit communication, which can prevent effective socialization.

The qualitative strand of this study examined the role of hotel guests in employee socialization and found that employees improve their interpersonal skills through guest interaction. Employees learned to read people, and also to receive and integrate feedback into their organizational roles. Practitioners can enhance insiders' learning by offering workshops to improve interpersonal skills. This type of workshop could accelerate employee learning by adding structure and context to the experiential learning discussed by interview participants. The interpersonal intelligence dimension of the Hospitality Intelligence framework outlined by Bharwani and Jauhari (2013) suggests useful constructs for interpersonal skills development: empathy, effective communication, influencing skills, seeking and assimilating feedback, anticipating guest needs, responsiveness, flexibility, conflict resolution skills, and team playing.

Socialization Barrier Agencies. Companies and managers must also identify potential obstacles that inhibit effective socialization. This can occur at all socialization stages. Employability obstacles also represent barriers that inhibit successful employee socialization. Newcomers may have difficulty decoding information from their employers and coworkers (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Skills gaps such as adult literacy impact an employee's adjustment to a company and their future prospects within the organization. Language barriers are one example. Employers use outside translators or frequently rely on employees who speak multiple languages

to convey information. One way employers can improve socialization is to connect employees lacking verbal and written English language skills with language learning opportunities such as an English as a Second Language (ESL) courses. Improved language skills increase employee confidence and ability to communicate with both coworkers and guests. Given the prevalence of on-line training and technology in the workplace, digital literacy is another area that can prevent an organizational newcomer from fully learning about their job role and the organizational culture. Horrigan (2016) notes digital literacy concerns now involve “the degree to which people success or struggle when they use technology to try to navigate their environment, solve problems, and make decisions.” Two interview participants mentioned lack of keyboarding skills. Employees may have all other skills for front desk employment but may be uncomfortable using a computer because they are unable to touch type. Workers are embarrassed to be “hunters and peckers” which means searching the keyboard and typing each letter one-by-one, and this affects their confidence communicating with guests. Becoming proficient with keyboarding skills helps employees integrate into their new jobs by increasing their confidence levels and also improving their ability to communicate electronically. They can feel more competent in their current jobs, and also gain access to additional job opportunities. The ability to type faster and more accurately can help employees search and apply for new positions within the company. The scope of available opportunities expands when employees gain confidence and improve their written communication skills. Employers and individuals overlook the opportunity to improve skills in this area.

Practitioners can also support skills upgrading and lessen socialization barriers through active involvement with workforce development agencies. In the past decade, efforts have been made by the United States Department of Labor to streamline and improve access to workforce

development resources (Oates, 2012). The Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act of 2014 provides support for one-stop centers, branded as American Job Centers, that connect job-seekers and incumbent workers to employment resources and social services. Workforce development organizations provide assessment and training, such as “adult education and literacy activities of English language acquisition and integrated education and training programs” (Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act of 2014, p. 1529). While not all areas or workforce development agencies provides each service, WIOA supports “provision of information, in formats that are usable by and understandable to one-stop customers, relating to the availability of supportive services and assistance, including child care, child support, medical or child health assistance...and other supportive services and transportation provided through funds made available under such part, available in the local area; and referral to the services or assistance described” (Workforce Innovation and Opportunity Act of 2014, p. 1526). One way practitioners can ease barriers preventing effective socialization is by becoming knowledgeable about available services and making appropriate connections to aid employees who can benefit from assistance.

The American Hotel and Lodging Association (AH&LA) has an educational arm that is actively engaged in workforce development (AHLEI, 2019). AHLEI provides industry-specific resources to workforce development organizations to prepare workers for entry-level employment in the hotel industry (AHLEI, 2019). This can help industry employers by increasing the numbers of qualified applicants and enhancing their skills. Workforce development programs and AHLEI can also help incumbent workers improve skills to improve their career opportunities within the hotel industry.

5.5 Theoretical Implications

This study contributes to organizational socialization theory and general human resources literature. The following discusses the contributions of this study related to organizational socialization processes, individual socialization behaviors, relational cohesion theory, and hospitality research.

Organizational socialization processes. This study adds to literature on organizational socialization research, and specifically organization-driven tactics. Past research has examined the impact of organizational socialization tactics as a process model (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007). These models outline how socialization tactics lead to the proximal outcomes of learning or adjustment, and subsequently impact the distal outcomes of job attitudes. Similarly, the quantitative strand of this study analyzes the influence of organizational socialization tactics on the proximal outcome of socialization learning and the distal outcomes of organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Fewer studies have researched the impact of organizational socialization tactics on socialization learning as compared to the more widely studied association between organizational socialization and employee adjustment (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007; Wang et al., 2015). This may be related to greater consensus on three key adjustment constructs including task mastery, role clarity and social integration. However, adjustment constructs do not incorporate organizational culture. Insight is needed to identify what should be learned during the socialization process as a measure of its effectiveness. This study adds to existing literature on the socialization learning outcomes of organizational socialization tactics.

Individual socialization behaviors. Responses from qualitative interviews enhanced survey data regarding organizational socialization tactics with discussion of individual behaviors.

Questions related to serial tactics, investing tactics, and guests as socialization agents elicited responses that aligned with existing literature on individual socialization behaviors. Previous research discusses two overarching categories of individual-driven socialization processes including information-seeking and relationship-building (Ashforth & Black, 1996; Miller & Jablin, 1991). Study findings add context to the employee information-seeking tactics of observation and inquiry. Observation related to what employees learned from coworkers and supervisors. Regarding inquiry, participants discussed how they felt comfortable and encouraged to seek information from coworkers and managers.

Findings also provide a unique contribution to relationship-building between employees and guests as socialization agents. Previous socialization studies examined relationship-building between organizational newcomers and traditional socialization agents such as coworkers and supervisors. Common measures of individual relationship-building behaviors in the socialization context are general socializing, networking, and building relationships with one's boss (Ashford & Black, 1996). Relationship-building in this study described informal relationships with returning guests and exchange of emotional support between employee and guest. These relationships were more incidental compared to ways marketing efforts would build formal customer relationships to enhance satisfaction and increase revenue. This finding may offer insight into why front office employees indicate higher levels of support.

Relational cohesion theory. The findings of this study support relational cohesion theory, which “focuses on individual-to-collective attachment and suggests that groups or organizations provide members with three types of capital through ongoing social exchanges: human capital based on knowledge, skills, and experiences; social capital based on relationships; and cultural capital based on a shared understanding of norms, history, and culture” (Yoon & Lawler, 2006,

as cited by Allen & Shanock, 2013, p. 353). The underlying theory of “social exchange theory implies that if an organization offers support and reciprocity to facilitate employees’ job domain or their well-being, the likelihood employees will leave the organization declines” (Kim, Choi, & Li, 2016, p. 2). Consistent with social exchange theory, an organization’s investment in socialization programs should results in decreased turnover intentions.

Hospitality. This study also extends research from general human resources (HR) academic literature to hospitality-focused human resources studies. The application of organizational socialization study from general human resources literature to the hospitality context contributes to knowledge about human resources in hospitality. The mixed methods approach utilized in this study also adds unique contributions. To the author’s knowledge, this is the first study to mix qualitative and quantitative methods to better understand how hotel companies provide socialization resources to their employees. There is little known about specific socialization activities initiated by hotel industry employers as previous studies used quantitative approaches without further exploring situational and contextual differences.

This research also adds to scant literature related to select-service hotels. Prior to this study, organizational socialization had not been studied in the context of select service hotels. As select service hotels represent the majority of planned openings for the United States hotel industry in the next two years, it is important to increase knowledge about strategic human resource management in this segment. Lack of on-site human resources, lean supervisory and management layers, and fewer overall team members are unique factors that underly the importance of further study of select-service hotels.

5.6 Limitations

This study does have limitations. First, the study sample only includes employees for upper midscale and upscale hotels. While the study provides useful and important information, caution should be exercised if generalizing to other hotel segments as there may be differences based on hotel types and sizes. While hotels from four management companies were included in the study, there may also be differences based corporate company, management company, ownership company and/or structure, and franchise company. Finally, the study was conducted in a Midwest region and there may be differences in comparison to other geographical areas.

Another limitation was the use of cross-sectional research design. Differences at the time of data collection could impact the study results. For example, a hotel employee may have had a positive or negative interaction with their supervisor that would influence their response to certain questions. Particularly in organizational socialization research, longitudinal study can provide robust results in terms of changes to learning outcomes and employee attitudes.

The use of a self-reported survey presents limitations. The surveys were conducted in the employee's workplace. Participants may not have felt comfortable providing responses that could be perceived as negative. This concern could be due to perceived risk of social status or reputation, or it could also be related to social desirability bias. While safeguards were in place to protect employee privacy and maintain confidentiality, some participants may have been hesitant to express their true feelings on the survey.

5.7 Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings from this study, recommendations for future research are suggested. Further studies should examine organizational socialization in the hotel industry under different boundary conditions from the current study. Hotel employees in this sample

were from upper midscale and upscale hotels in a Midwest geographic region. Differences may exist on both ends of the spectrum. Economy hotels offer fewer amenities and services than the hotels in this study. On the other hand, luxury hotels offer a higher level of amenities and services, but at a higher price point with greater customer expectations. Also, luxury hotels tend to have more management and supervisory layers. There may also be differences based on property type and location, such as airport, downtown or resort hotels, and in different geographical regions. Therefore, future research should be conducted in other hotel segments and types, as well as additional geographical areas. As Tracey (2014) indicates the type of hotel or other boundary conditions “may influence the extent to which the HR function has a positive, value-adding influence on key performance outcomes, especially those that directly influence the employee-customer relationship” (p. 688).

This study focused on organizational-driven socialization processes and work-related factors but does not deal with individual behaviors or personal factors. Further research should examine individual-driven socialization processes, as well as employee attributes that result in differences in organizational socialization processes and outcomes. Knowledge regarding individual attributes and behaviors would be useful to industry practitioners in gaining a better understanding of how they can facilitate socialization processes for diverse groups of employees.

Further research is also recommended to identify best practices in on-the-job training and individualized socialization. While institutionalized organizational socialization tactics and formal training may be most beneficial for employee learning and adjustment, operational realities in the hotel industry mean employees are expected to perform job duties without fully comprehending their job role or the hotel’s culture. Further research in integrating effective training and socialization into day-to-day operations would be practical and helpful. Companies

are aware they should invest in their human capital through comprehensive socialization programs, but “a decline in the average duration of individual-organization relationships” is a reason companies may engage in “swift socialization” (Ashforth, 2012, p. 175). As an employer of part-time and contingent workers, further knowledge on best practices in swift socialization would also aid the hotel industry.

Little is known on how strategic human resources is implemented in business units such as select service hotels that typically do not have on-site human resources departments. According to Francis & Baum (2018), “there remains a significant lack of research on the changing roles of HR professionals and widespread moves to devolve HR duties to line managers” (p. 26). This would contribute knowledge on how GMs and other operations managers can effectively accomplish human resource activities.

Research is lacking on how management companies can influence employee socialization. There may be significant opportunity and benefit for companies to infuse their organizational culture into their managed properties through internal marketing practices. As a start, hotel ownership, management companies, and hotel general managers should identify where their values align with parent companies, and ensure development and maintenance of a service culture, which can be defined as “a culture that supports customer service through policies, procedures, reward systems and actions” (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 1999).

Finally, a longitudinal study should be conducted to examine organizational socialization research over time. This type of research design would allow further understanding of how organizational socialization through various stages. Rather than examine employee’s perception at a single juncture, a longitudinal study could investigate changes in employee attitudes over

time. A longitudinal study would also allow the use of actual turnover data, rather than self-reported turnover intentions.

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APPENDIX A. SURVEY



HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

Dear Associate,

The Center for the Study of Lodging Operations at Purdue University is seeking your input for a study we are conducting. We will be gathering your perceptions of the practices and methods which your company uses to assist associates during their time with the company as well as to measure an associate's overall commitment to the organization.

Your participation is voluntary. Please do not put your name on any part of the survey. Responses will be kept confidential. The survey should take about five minutes for you to complete. You must at least 18 years old to participate.

Thank you again for your assistance with this study!

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Part 1: The following statements relate to the training practices and learning methods offered by this company. Please circle the number that you feel best fits each statement.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| I have been extensively involved with other associates in common, job-related activities. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My company puts all associates through the same set of learning experiences. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I was put through a set of training experiences that are specifically designed to give associates a thorough knowledge of job-related skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another, or one job assignment leads to another. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can predict my future career path by observing other people's experiences. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My progress in this company will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Almost all of my co-workers have been supportive of me personally. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My co-workers have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have received little guidance from experienced company members as to how I should perform my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am gaining a clear understanding of my role from observing my senior colleagues. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 2: The following statements relate to how you feel personally about the training and learning you have received. Please circle the number that you feel best fits each statement.

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| This company has provided excellent job training for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I know very well how to get things done in this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Other workers have helped me on the job in various ways. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have many chances for a good career with this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The training in this company has enabled me to do my job very well. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have a full understanding of my duties in this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| My co-workers are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am happy with the rewards offered by this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| This company offers thorough training to improve associate job skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The goals of this company have been made very explicit to me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Opportunities for advancement in this company are available to almost everyone. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Instructions given by my supervisor have been valuable in helping me do better work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I have good knowledge of the way this company operates. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My co-workers have done a great deal to help me adjust to this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I can readily anticipate my prospects for promotion in this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| The type of job training given by this company is highly effective for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| This company's objectives are understood by almost everyone who works here. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| My relationships with other workers in this company are very good. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I expect that this organization will continue to employ me for many more years. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| Part 3: The following statements relate to your attachment to your company. Please circle the number you that you feel best fits each statement. | | | | | |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
| I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I enjoy discussing my company with people outside it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I really feel as if this company's problems are my own. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I think I could easily become as attached to another company as I am to this one. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| This company has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | Strongly Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly Agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my company. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization one year from now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Part 4:

What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female

What is your age? _____

What is your marital status? ☐ Married ☐ Not Married

Please indicate your highest level of education?

- ☐ Less than High School
☐ High School graduate
☐ Some College (Certificate/Diploma)
☐ Undergraduate degree (BSc/BA)
☐ Graduate degree

How many years have you worked in the hotel industry? _____

How many years have you worked at this hotel? _____

How many years have you worked in your current position? _____

How long have you worked for your immediate supervisor? _____

What is your employment status?

- ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time

How much contact with guests do you have?

- ☐ High guest contact ☐ Low guest contact ☐ No guest contact

What department do you work in?

- ☐ Front Office ☐ Housekeeping ☐ Accounting ☐ Human Resources
☐ F&B - Servers ☐ F&B – Culinary ☐ F&B – Stewarding ☐ Sales & Marketing
☐ Security ☐ Maintenance ☐ Other _____

What is your job position? _____

Please check to make sure you have filled out all sections.

Thank you for your participation!