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VOLUNTEER ENTRY INTO HOSPITAL CULTURE: RELATIONSHIPS
AMONG SOCIALIZATION, P-O FIT, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, AND JOB SATISFACTION

By
Tricia Ann Jordan
B.A., University of Northern Iowa, 1991
M.S., Western Kentucky University, 2002
M.A., Western Kentucky University, 2006

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate School of the University of Louisville
and
Graduate Studies and Research at Western Kentucky University
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Leadership, Foundations, and Human Resources Education
University of Louisville
and
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Western Kentucky University

May 2009

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Dissertation Approved on

March 10, 2009

by the following Dissertation Committee:

Dissertation Director

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to:

My parents, Mr. and Mrs. Wayne E. Bullis, who gave me invaluable educational opportunities and encouragement.

My husband, Daron E. Jordan, for his patience, love, and encouragement throughout this journey.

My grandparents, Mr. and Mrs. Albert F. Jennings, helping me attain my educational goals.

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ABSTRACT

VOLUNTEER ENTRY INTO HOSPITAL CULTURE: RELATIONSHIPS AMONG SOCIALIZATION, P-O FIT, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, AND JOB SATISFACTION

Tricia Ann Jordan

March 10, 2009

This dissertation examines the entry of volunteers into the culture of hospitals paying particular attention to the relationships among organizational socialization tactics and the outcomes of person-organization fit (P-O fit), organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Using a correlation study design, the researcher collected data from hospital volunteers in Western Kentucky. The survey was distributed to 230 volunteers at six different hospitals in Western Kentucky. Of the 230 volunteers who received the survey at various volunteer meetings, the researcher collected 180 useable surveys, yielding a 78.2% return rate. The investigation's survey used items selected from three different scales measuring organization socialization tactics (Jones, 1986), organization commitment (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), and volunteer satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). Items measuring perceived P-O fit were modeled after the works of others (Cable & De Rue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996).

The research question framing the investigation was the following was the following: What impact do organization socialization activities have on volunteer (i.e.,

unpaid) organization member perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction. An examination of research findings suggest when the hospitals in this investigation used collective, formal, investiture, sequential, and serial socialization tactics, a positive relationship existed between these institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction. Hence, when these organizations provided socialization experiences in which new volunteers experienced common learning experiences, were separated from other organization members while learning their new role, confirmed volunteer values and characteristics, provided identifiable phases of learning, and allowed experienced volunteers to act as role models, these socialization tactics positively related to volunteer perceptions of value congruence (i.e., P-O fit), organization commitment, and job satisfaction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Volunteers fulfill vital organizational roles within the human service sector contributing, in hours worked, “The equivalent of 10.5 million full-time employees” (Smith, 2001, p. 20). Over the last 20 years, researchers have examined how volunteers function within organizations. These investigations have examined (a) potential differences and/or similarities between paid and unpaid organization members focusing on job satisfaction, intention to leave, and motivation (Pearce, 1983); (b) organizational commitment and problems facing organizations (Newton, 1995); (c) organizational commitment, satisfaction, and withdrawal behaviors (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999); and (d) organizational commitment and psychological contract (Liao-Troth, 2001) to name a few.

During this same period, researchers seeking to understand volunteer behavior also investigated means of volunteer motivation measurement (Clary, Synder & Ridge, 1992; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Clary, Synder, & Stukas, 1996; Clary et al., 1998). Using the measures created by these individuals, as well as measures created by others, researchers (Becker & Dhingram, 2001; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Carlo, Okun, Knight, de Guzman, 2004; Eley & Kirk, 2002; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Sherer, 2004; Nelson, Hooker, DeHart, Edwards, & Lanning, 2004; Martinez & McMullin, 2004; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) explored volunteer motivation in relation

to several other variables. From these investigations, we see that unpaid and paid organization members have both similar and dissimilar perceptions of organizational life. Pearce (1983) found differences in motivation with unpaid organization members reporting greater intrinsic, social, and service motivations to work. Others found conflicting assessments of commitment perceptions between the paid and volunteer organization members. Newton (1995) found similarities between unpaid and paid organization member perceptions of commitment while Laczko and Hanisch (1995) found slight differences in the pairing commitment perceptions.

In terms of motivation to volunteer, Gerstein, Wilkeson, and Anderson (2004) found gender differences in volunteer motivation as research findings suggest females emphasized values, career, understanding, and enhancement motives while their male counterparts emphasized social, values, career, and understanding motives. Clary et al. (1996) found links among volunteer motivation, volunteer behavior, type of volunteer activity, and demographic variables (i.e., age and gender). Others examined the motivation of young volunteers (Eley & Kirk, 2002) as well as motivation associated with specific types of volunteer work (Strigas & Jackson, 2003) or involvement with specific organizations (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Martinez & McMullin, 2004). Still others examined relationships between motivation and organizational outcomes (Gidron, 1984; Nelson et al., 2004).

Concurrently, organizational behavior researchers investigated the socialization of paid organization members focusing on the potential beneficial outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction) associated with different socialization tactics. These investigators proposed and examined means of organization socialization

(Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) as well as associations between socialization tactic employed and organizational outcome (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Black, 1992; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, Anderson, 2004). From this avenue of research, we find different organization socialization tactics have different associations with newcomer perceptions of role orientation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. For instance, researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986) found institutionalized socialization tactics produced custodial role orientations, greater satisfaction, greater commitment, and reduced organization member intention to quit. On the other hand, individualized socialization tactics produced innovative role orientations, greater role conflict, and greater ambiguity. In addition, different socialization tactics produce different outcomes dependent on population of organization members engaged in the socialization process. Namely, Black (1992) found collective tactics that produced custodial role orientations in Jones' (1986), as well as Allen and Meyer's (1990a), investigation sampling of MBA graduates produced innovative role orientations when he sampled American expatriates. Black's investigation findings also suggest the ability of these tactics to produce innovative role orientations depends on length of organization tenure. Finally, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) found socialization played an important role in person-organization fit (P-O fit).

While one group of researchers focused on the role of the organization in socialization of newcomers, another group focused on how the individual's actions influence organization socialization processes. These investigations focused on information seeking behaviors (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Comer, 1991; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993; Morrison, 2002; Ostroff &

Kozolowski, 1992; Teboul, 1995). From these investigations, we learn both content of information sought as well as information source plays an important role in organization socialization. For instance, Comer (1991) found newcomers seek both social and technical information. Similarly, Ostroff and Kozolowski (1992) found task, role, group, and organization information represented important content areas with observation, supervisor, and co-workers functioning as important sources of information. Morrison (1993) found information-seeking behaviors related positively to satisfaction, performance, and decreased intention to leave. Teboul (1995) found social costs associated with information seeking behaviors influenced tactics utilized to gain information.

A final group of organizational behavior investigators (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995) examined both the role of the organization and the individual in organization socialization. From these research projects, we see links among socialization tactics utilized by the organization, individual information seeking behaviors, and role orientation. For instance, Mignerey et al. (1995) found institutionalized socialization tactics increased information-seeking behaviors and feedback behaviors that in turn increased role orientation, commitment, and communication satisfaction. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) found positive relationships between institutionalized socialization tactics utilized in military training and recruit knowledge in social, interpersonal, organization, and role content areas. These tactics also positively related to increased job satisfaction and commitment within the group sampled. Finally, Kim et al. (2005) found

institutionalized socialization tactics positively associated with P-O fit, job satisfaction, commitment, and decreased intention to leave directly.

A closer look at research focusing on P-O fit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction suggests other researchers have found links among these variables and organizational socialization. Chatman (1991) found P-O fit positively associated with increases in newcomer job satisfaction and decreases in intention to leave. O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) and Cable and Judge (1996) also found P-O fit positively related to greater job satisfaction, greater commitment, and decreased intention to leave. In terms of socialization tactics that enhanced P-O fit, Cable and Parsons (2001) found sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture socialization tactics enhanced fit. Caldwell, Chatman, and O'Reilly (1990) found when organization socialization practices emphasized organization values, member commitment based on internalization and organizational identification increased. Finegan (2000) found organization emphasis of different values during socialization resulted in organization members developing different types of organizational commitment. For instance, when organizations stressed values characterized as humanity (i.e., fairness, courtesy) and vision (i.e., initiative, creativity) organization members perceived higher levels of affective commitment (i.e., commitment based on organizational attachment). However, when organizations emphasized values characterized as bottom-line values (i.e., logic or economy) organization members reported increases in continuance commitment (Finegan, 2000).

The importance of organizational commitment stems from its association with valuable organization outcomes such as service length. For instance, Cuskelly, McIntyre, and Boag (1998) found a relationship between perceptions of committee function and

organization commitment. Namely, a volunteer's positive perceptions of committee function also associated with increased organization commitment. In a different investigation, Cuskelly and Boag (2001) found unpaid sports administrators who continued with the organization were more committed than those who left. Preston and Brown (2004) found positive relationships between board member performance and affective commitment (i.e., commitment based on organizational attachment). Hence, as commitment increased, one would expect performance also potentially increases.

Job satisfaction also has important relationships with organizational commitment, P-O fit, and organizational socialization. Trombetta and Rogers (1988) suggest job satisfaction and organizational commitment represent related but separate variables. Taormina (1999) found organizational socialization functioned as a better predictor of job satisfaction and commitment. While Testa (2001) found that job satisfaction preceded organizational commitment, which in turn would facilitate extra work effort. Verplanken (2003) concluded that "Organizational values play an important role in employees' job satisfaction" (p. 603).

Research presented thus far demonstrates the idea that organizational values underlie many important relationships with valued organization outcomes through congruence between organization and individual values (i.e., P-O fit). Collectively this demonstrates the importance of organizational culture as researchers (Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Hofstede, 2001) describe values as the foundation of organizational culture. To this end, researchers (Davies, Mannion, Jacobs, Powell, & Marshall, 2007; Shockely-Zalabah & Ellis, 2000; Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995; Weese, 1996) have examined the

relationships among organizational culture, job satisfaction, leader behaviors, program effectiveness, and job performance.

Statement of Problem

Interestingly, many of the investigations examining organization socialization (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen & Anderson, 2004; Jones, 1986) have predominately utilized samples composed of recent college graduates, college students, or paid organizational newcomers. Black (1992) expanded this sampling pool to include American expatriates. Cooper-Thomas et al. (2002) also expanded our knowledge of organization entry examining the organization socialization of British Army recruits. Volunteers have not been a prominent sample in studies examining organization socialization. An examination of the samples utilized in research projects focusing on newcomer-organizational value congruence or P-O fit (Cable & De Rue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2005; O'Reilley et al., 1991; Westerman & Cyr, 2004) reveals a similar sampling pattern. Kim et al., (2005) extends both P-O fit and organizational socialization research selecting a sample composed of South Korean organization newcomers. Additionally, investigations examining volunteer behavior have focused on (a) differences between paid and unpaid organization members and their perceptions of various elements of organizational life (Gerstein et al., 2004; Laczko & Hanisch, 1999; Liao-Troth, 2001; Newton, 1995; Pearce, 1983), and (b) volunteer motivation (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1996; Clary et al., 1998; Eley & Kirk, 2002; Finkelstein et al., 2005), but have not examined the socialization of unpaid organization members into the cultures of the organization.

Purpose of the Study

This investigation sought to understand the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of hospitals. The following is the overarching research question framing this investigation:

What impact do organization socialization activities have on volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction?

Stemming from our understanding of the relationships established among organization socialization, P-O fit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction derived from investigations utilizing samples composed of paid organization members and recent college graduates, the researcher proposes the following research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Hypothesis 2: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

This investigation attempted to garner information potentially useful to hospital human resource directors, volunteer coordinators, and chief administrative officers as they make decisions regarding resource allocation for the purpose of socializing hospital volunteers.

Significance of the Study

Knowledge gained from this investigation can benefit hospital human resource directors and other individuals involved in the socialization and retention of hospital volunteers as they examine current socialization tactics employed by their organization and develop/implement new socialization programs to help volunteers enter the organization's culture. Additionally, chief administrative officers can benefit from knowledge gained as part of this investigation as they make decisions regarding the allocation of organizational resources for the purposes of volunteer socialization into the hospital's culture. The study contributed to the growing body of knowledge focusing on organizational socialization, person-organization fit (P-O fit), organizational commitment, and job satisfaction by extending the current research focus to include a sample composed of volunteers.

General Methodology

The proposed quantitative investigation utilizes survey research to collect data from hospital volunteers. The researcher explored the relationship among organization socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organizational commitment, and satisfaction. Research hypotheses proposed relationships between socialization tactics utilized by the hospital and the volunteer's perceptions of P-O fit, organizational commitment, and satisfaction. Therefore, the researcher selected correlation analysis as a means to examine the relationships among study variables. Chapter III provides further details pertaining to the investigation's overall methodology.

Definitions

The following list includes definitions of terms derived from existing research. The inclusion of each term ensures clarity, understanding, and continuity throughout the investigation.

1. Volunteering: Wilson (2000) describes the act of volunteers as "Any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group or organization" (p. 215). Wilson carefully distinguished volunteering from one time endeavors in response to single events suggesting volunteering represents a proactive endeavor in which the individual exerts time and effort.
2. Organizational Socialization: Van Maanen (1978) describes organization socialization as "The manner in which the experiences of people learning the ropes of a new organization position, status, or role are structured for them by others within the organization" (p. 19).

3. **Individualized Socialization Tactics:** Jones (1986) expanded on the work of Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) to classify organizational socialization tactics into two categories: individualized tactics and institutionalized tactics. Individualized tactics include the Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) tactics of individual, informal, random, variable, and divestiture tactics. These tactics provide unique experiences for each organizational newcomer. The overall learning process is more ambiguous, provides less structure, and common information. In addition, through socialization activities the organization attempts to strip away or change certain characteristics of the newcomer.
4. **Institutionalized Socialization Tactics:** Jones (1986) expanded on the work of Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) to classify organizational socialization tactics into two categories: individualized tactics and institutionalized tactics. Institutionalized socialization tactics include Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schien (1979) socialization tactics of collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture. These tactics provide common, organized, experiences for organizational newcomers in environments that separate newcomers from current organization members during the learning process and provide experiences to confirm the newcomers existing values.
5. **Affective Organization Commitment:** Meyer and Allen (1991) describe affective organization commitment as feelings of attachment, involvement, and identification with the organization.

6. Person Organization Fit (P-O fit): Chatman (1989) describes P-O fit as a form of value congruence between the values of the organization and the values of the organizational member.

Assumptions

1. All participants will answer each question truthfully.
2. All participants will understand each question.
3. The measures taken in the pilot study were sufficient to sample the investigation's instrument responses and refine the survey.
4. Participant incentives will be sufficient to encourage participation and help increase response rates.
5. SSPS is a reliable and valid desktop program for correlation analysis.
6. The survey's format will satisfactorily collect data from the selected population of volunteers.

Delimitations and Limitations

1. For the purposes of this investigation only, volunteers of each hospital were selected to complete the survey.
2. Hospitals selected to participate in the investigation met the following criteria (a) all hospitals were located within 200 miles of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association data each hospital reported their number of beds between 140 and 450 total beds, (c) each hospital has an active volunteer program, (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture.

3. Selecting only to survey hospital volunteers limits the generalizability of the investigation's findings.
4. Selecting to only sample hospital volunteers rather than a cross section of volunteers from several organizations further limits the generalizability of the investigation's findings.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I outlines the investigation's background, statement of the problem, purpose of the investigation, research question, and hypotheses; defines pertinent terms; briefly describes methodology; and details the significance of the investigation. Chapter II presents an examination of pertinent literature and related research providing the underpinning of the investigation. Chapter III presents procedures and methodologies utilized by the investigator to gather data. Chapter IV presents the investigation's findings while Chapter V provides a summary of the study's findings and the researcher's conclusions and recommendations stemming from the data presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter contains a review of literature relevant to the socialization of volunteers into the culture of non-profit organizations. The first section focuses on the relationship between volunteer motivations and organizational outcomes. Subsequent sections examine organization socialization tactics and related organizational outcomes including person-organization (P-O) fit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The chapter concludes with an examination of pertinent research focusing on the topic of organizational culture.

Volunteerism

Wilson (2000) defines volunteering as “Any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group or organization,” (p. 215) suggesting this definition does not limit the ability of individuals to derive benefits from their participation in their volunteer endeavor. The researcher continues his description of volunteering by distinguishing the act of volunteering from other spontaneous helping acts (i.e., one-time responses to isolated events) by advocating volunteer work exists as a proactive enterprise as opposed to a quick reaction to a specific event. As a proactive endeavor, the act of volunteering involves an individual’s commitment of time and effort (Wilson, 2000).

Volunteers fulfill vital organizational roles within the human service sector contributing, in hours worked, “The equivalent of 10.5 million full-time employees” (Smith, 2001, p. 20). Globally volunteers enhance the economies of Western and European nations contributing approximately \$64 billion and \$16 billion to the economies of the United Kingdom and Canada respectively (Smith, 2001).

Understanding the impetus behind individual’s motivation to engage and maintain their volunteer involvement with human service organizations becomes increasingly critical in today’s competitive economy. Existing research exploring the topic of volunteerism examines differences between paid and unpaid organization members, conceptual frameworks utilized in the investigations of volunteer motivation, as well as, volunteer motivation.

Similarities and Differences Among Paid Workers and Volunteers

The research studies presented within this section begin to answer the question of whether paid and unpaid organization members have similar or different organizational attitudes and/or behaviors. Study samples utilized as part of these investigations draw from organizations employing either unpaid or paid organization members (Pearce, 1983), samples composed of paid or unpaid organization members from the same organization (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999; Liao-Troth, 2001), and a sample composed of paid volunteers as well as volunteer college students (Gerstein, Wilkeson, & Anderson, 2004). The researcher focused on the examination of the pairing's perceptions of various attitudinal and behavioral variables such as organizational commitment, satisfaction, motivation, and withdrawal behaviors. Overall findings support hypotheses that predicted

similarities (Liao-Troth, 2001; Newton, 1995) and differences between the pairing (Gerstein et al., 2004; Laczko & Hanish, 1999; Pearce, 1983).

Pearce (1983) investigated motivational and attitudinal differences between paid and unpaid employees working in similar organizational settings. Drawing on Straw's (1976) sufficiency-of-justification hypothesis, the researchers sought to determine if unpaid employees perceive greater intrinsic motivation when completing the same tasks as paid employees, as well as, whether unpaid employees perceive more positive work attitudes (i.e., satisfaction, job praiseworthiness, and intention to leave) than their paid counterparts. The sufficiency-of-justification hypothesis insinuates that individuals employ different tactics to justify their work when intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are present and/or absent within the organization. For example, if both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards are available, individuals will experience "overjustification" (Pearce, 1983). Attempting to reduce conflict created by their "overjustification" individuals begin to devalue intrinsic rewards. However, if individuals work in environments in which they perceive few rewards, they will experience "insufficient justification" leading to an increase in their emphasis on intrinsic rewards (Pearce, 1983).

Collecting data from a sample of matched-pairs of paid and unpaid employees completing similar tasks within similar organizations, Pearce utilized a sample composed of four distinctly different organizations currently utilizing either a staff composed of all unpaid or paid members. The investigation's sample included staff members from (a) a newspaper (unpaid $N = 6$, paid $N = 8$), (b) a family planning clinic (unpaid $N = 10$, paid clinic $N = 16$), (c) a municipal fire department (unpaid $N = 11$, paid $N = 31$), and (d) a poverty relief organization (unpaid $N = 11$, paid $N = 13$). Data collection began with an

interview of randomly selected organization members and concluded with a questionnaire distributed to all organization members.

A review of the results focusing on work motivation (i.e., intrinsic, social, and service) reveals that unpaid employees report slightly higher intrinsic work motivations than their compensated counterparts. In addition, unpaid employees also indicated slightly more social motivation to work than their paid peers. The greatest mean differences occurred in paid and unpaid organization member emphasis on service motivation. Namely, the service motivation means for paid organization members ranged from 4.42 to 5.58 while service motivation means for unpaid employees ranged from 5.90 to 6.20 (Pearce, 1983).

Differences between paid and unpaid employee attitudes were slightly more striking as mean scores for unpaid organization member job satisfaction, intention to leave, and job praiseworthiness ranged from 5.60 to 6.50, 2.03 to 3.06, and 5.60 to 6.33, respectively. The same mean ranges for paid organization members range from 4.37 to 5.94, 3.98 to 4.92, and 4.56 to 5.75 for job satisfaction, intention to leave, and job praiseworthiness, respectively. The differences in the mean ranges between unpaid and paid organization members indicated that unpaid organization members completing similar tasks as paid organization members reported greater job satisfaction, and greater job praiseworthiness, than their paid counterparts. Paid organization members indicated greater intention to leave (Pearce, 1983) than their unpaid peers. Table 1 summarizes Pearce's findings.

Table 1

Pearce's (1983) Findings

Findings	Paid	Unpaid
Higher intrinsic motivation		X
More social motivation to work		X
Higher service motivation		X
Greater job satisfaction		X
Greater intention to leave	X	
Greater job praiseworthiness		X

Expanding our understanding of potential differences or similarities between paid and unpaid organization members, Newton (1995) investigated similarities between paid and unpaid organization member perceptions of organizational commitment, satisfaction with supervisor, and assessments of problems facing the nonprofit organization. Posing three research questions, Newton sought to identify if unpaid organization members perceived they were adequately supervised and utilized to their fullest potential. The researcher also examined (a) differences in perceptions of organizational commitment between unpaid and paid employees, and (b) differences in paid and unpaid organization member perceptions of organizational problems seeking to determine if both groups perceived and ranked similar problems.

The sample included paid ($n = 69$) and unpaid ($n = 189$) staff members from nonprofit organizations ($n = 31$) in the southeastern United States. The researcher selected these nonprofit organizations utilizing a list obtained from a local Community Information Line. Of the total number of nonprofit organizations ($N = 81$) listed, 22 organizations did not utilize volunteers and 28 did not currently utilize volunteers. Research measures assessed perceptions of organizational commitment, satisfaction, nonprofit problems, and demographic data. In addition, the researcher collected information related to tenure, source of recruitment, and type of supervisor (i.e., paid or volunteer) from all volunteers participating in the investigation.

While Pearce (1983) found differences between unpaid and paid organization members' level of self-reported satisfaction, intention to leave, and praiseworthiness, Newton's (1995) investigation reveals areas of similarities between the attitudes of paid and unpaid organization members. Specifically, Newton's findings suggest both paid and unpaid organization members report high levels of organizational commitment. Two-tailed t -tests comparing the levels of organizational commitment of unpaid and paid staff members revealed no statistical difference between paid and unpaid staff member perceptions of organizational commitment. Concerning similarities or differences in each group's understanding of problems facing the organization, paid and unpaid organization members significantly agreed on areas of concern facing the organization. In terms of determining factors (organization tenure, type of supervision paid or volunteer, source of recruitment, and type of organization) that predicted unpaid employee commitment, regression analysis suggests that satisfaction with supervisors and tenure represented

significant predictors of organizational commitment. The only significant predictor of satisfaction with supervisors was organizational commitment (Newton, 1995).

Newton (1995) concluded unpaid and paid staff members of the nonprofit organizations expressed similar levels of organizational commitment. As scales measuring organizational commitment included items relating to identification with the organization's purpose and organizational loyalty, the researcher linked both group's (i.e., paid and unpaid) high perception of organizational commitment to the altruistic needs fulfilled by their involvement with nonprofit organizations. In addition, the researcher concluded the role of tenure as a predictor of organizational commitment potentially results from developing a greater understanding of the organization's purpose, goals, and objectives as the volunteers sustain their involvement with the organization. As such, one would expect sustained organizational involvement would equate to increased organizational commitment. On the other hand Newton, (1995) states an alternative reason behind the association between tenure and organizational commitment might stem from tenure acting as a function of commitment. As part of this explanation, one would expect those organization members with higher levels of organizational commitment to continue their involvement with the organization longer than their less committed peers.

Addressing two potential limitations found in other organizational behavior research, focusing on organizational withdrawal and differences between paid and unpaid organization members, Laczko and Hanisch's (1999) study investigated attitudinal and behavior similarities and/or differences between the two groups. The researchers suggested that previous organizational withdrawal research focused on single behaviors

rather than multiple responses to stimuli and individualized situations. Thus, the researchers suggest a need to examine withdrawal as a general construct. Similarly, research focusing on differences/similarities between paid and unpaid organization members drew samples from similar organizations employing one type of organization member (i.e., paid or unpaid), thus the need to sample both types of organization member within the same organization.

Using a sample of unpaid ($N = 150$) and paid ($N = 100$) employees of a Midwest historical organization, the researchers sought to determine if unpaid and paid organization members differed in organizational commitment and satisfaction. In addition, the investigators also sought to determine if different variables contribute to the organization withdrawal of paid and unpaid organization members. Investigator predictions included (a) unpaid organization members would report higher levels of organizational commitment, (b) paid and unpaid organization members would not report differences in job satisfaction, (c) unpaid organization members would report lower levels of job and work withdrawal than their paid counterparts, (d) organizational outcomes (commitment, satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, co-workers satisfaction, and co-worker perceptions) would be negatively associated with job and work withdrawal, and (e) organizational commitment and satisfaction would positively correlate.

Utilizing a direct mail questionnaire composed of measures assessing organizational commitment, satisfaction, and organizational withdrawal, the researchers collected their data. After mailing a reminder postcard, the paid employee response rate equaled 66%. The unpaid employee response rate equaled 73%. The total questionnaire response rate equaled 70%. Final analysis of data occurred utilizing data collected from

96 unpaid and 60 paid employee questionnaires. Questionnaires returned with less than one-third of the items completed within a subscale were deleted.

Contradicting Newton's (1995) finding that unpaid and paid organization member each report similar levels organizational commitment, Laczó and Hanisch (1999) did not find a statistically significant difference between unpaid and paid organization member perceptions of organizational commitment. Nonetheless, the researchers concluded a small, but practical difference occurred between the two groups (i.e., unpaid and paid organization member) perception of organizational commitment (unpaid commitment $M = 55.32$, paid commitment $M = 53.45$, Cohen's $d = .30$) with unpaid organization members reporting slightly higher levels of organizational commitment. Findings also did not support differences in paid and unpaid employee perceptions of work satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction. Differences were, however, found in organizational withdrawal behaviors as unpaid organization members reported lower levels of job and work withdrawal than their paid co-workers. Differences between the two were also found in terms of satisfaction with co-workers. Comparing across co-worker status (i.e., unpaid to paid and vice versa), unpaid organization members were more satisfied with their unpaid co-workers than paid co-workers while paid organization members did not report differences in satisfaction with either paid or unpaid peers.

The investigation's findings also support the following variable relationships: (a) organizational commitment and job satisfaction positively related, (b) job withdrawal and work withdrawal positively related, (c) job withdrawal behaviors negatively related to organizational commitment, and (d) work withdrawal negatively related to organizational commitment and intra-group co-worker satisfaction. Hierarchical regression analysis

revealed that variables associated with paid employee job withdrawal included being younger, lower levels of work and supervisor satisfaction, and lower levels of inter-group perceptions. Variables associated with employee work withdrawal include being paid and being younger (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999).

Continuing to examine differences in organizational member attitude between paid and unpaid organization members by utilizing a sample drawn from the same organization, Liao-Troth (2001) surveyed 300 staff member of a medical organization. Extending this line of research beyond the identification of differences in job satisfaction, organization commitment, or withdrawal behaviors, the researchers included two additional variables of possible variance between the pairing. These variables included psychological contract and organizational justice. Liao-Troth also assessed differences in organizational commitment between the pairing. Research hypotheses put forward (a) the pairing (i.e., unpaid and paid employees) do not differ in job attitude when interacting with each other, functioning in a similar organization, and completing equivalent work, and (b) under the same conditions the pairing will differ in job attitude when job attitude correlates with economic relationships between the pairing and the organization.

All participants completed a self-report survey composed of four measures assessing organizational commitment (i.e., affective and continuance), organizational justice (i.e., formal procedures, interactional justice, and distributive justice), and psychological contract. Survey distribution occurred during a semimonthly staff meeting. Liao-Troth requested that each volunteer complete a survey and give a survey to a paid employee performing a similar job task within the organization.

Similar to Newton (1995) and contradicting the findings of Laczko and Hanisch (1999), Liao-Troth (2001) did not find significant differences in the pair's self-reported level of organizational commitment (affective or continuance). Results also indicated that paid and unpaid organization members did not significantly differ in their perceptions of organizational justice (distributive, interactional, or procedural) perceptions. Paid and unpaid organization members did significantly differ within the psychological contract category promise of benefits. Specifically, research results indicated that promise of benefits significantly related to paid organization status. Liao-Troth concluded the study's findings suggested that organization employees (i.e., paid or unpaid) share similar perceptions of organizational commitment, organizational justice, and several psychological contract similarities.

Expanding difference research to include compensated versus uncompensated volunteers, Gerstein et al. (2004) used a sample composed of compensated AmeriCorps volunteers ($N = 143$) and uncompensated college student volunteers ($N = 127$) performing similar tasks (i.e., tutoring, mentoring, assistance with literacy issues). The researchers sought to determine if the pairing differed in service motive (i.e., social, values, career, understanding, protective, and enhancement). Gerstein et al. expected the pairing (i.e., paid and unpaid volunteers) would differ in motivation for service as well as experience gender related service motivations. All participants completed a questionnaire composed of items collecting demographic data. The questionnaire also included items from the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). Data analysis included Pearson correlation, multivariate analysis, and univariate analysis.

While Pearce (1983) found different levels of social and service motivation between paid and unpaid workers performing similar tasks, Gerstein et al. (2004) add another perspective related to such differences. Specifically the researchers explored motivational differences associated with compensation, as well as, the potential relationship between gender and service motive. Research findings indicate collectively males and females significantly differed in volunteer motivation. Namely, female volunteers scored motives that emphasized deep beliefs in helping others (i.e., *values*), learning career related skills (i.e., *career*), developing an understanding of those served (i.e., *understanding*), and fulfilling a desire to be needed (i.e., *enhancement*) higher than their male counterparts.

Paid and unpaid female volunteers differed in only their emphasis of *values* motivation (deep belief in helping others) as paid female volunteers reported higher levels of *values* motive than unpaid female volunteers. However, paid and unpaid male volunteers differ in reported levels of five volunteer motivations. Paid male volunteers reported higher levels of *social* (i.e., need for social interaction), *values* (i.e., deep belief in helping others), *career* (i.e., career related skill enhancement), *understanding* (i.e., developing an understanding of those served), and *enhancement* (i.e., desire to be needed) motives higher than their uncompensated counterparts (Gerstein et al., 2004). Table 2 summarizes the Gerstein et al. findings.

Table 2

Gerstein et al. Findings

Findings	<u>Gender</u>		<u>Compensation</u>	
	Male	Female	Paid	Unpaid
Greater emphasis values, career, understanding, enhancement motive		X		
Higher levels values motive		X	X	
Higher social, values, career, enhancement motive	X		X	

The researchers concluded individual motivations to volunteer vary because of individual characteristics (i.e., emphasis placed on type of motivation). An individual's motive to volunteer may also be influenced by situational characteristics (i.e., compensated or uncompensated). Gerstein et al. suggest future research might explore

additional individual, environmental, or situational factors affecting the volunteer-organization relationships.

In sum, the five studies presented within this section identified areas of difference and similarity between paid and unpaid organization members. While Pearce (1983) found paid and unpaid organization members differ slightly in their level of social, intrinsic, and service motivation, differences between the pair are significantly more apparent in terms of perceptions of job satisfaction and praiseworthiness. Where Pearce found differences between the two groups, Newton (1995) found similar perceptions of organizational commitment and perceptions of organizational problems. Newton also put forward two possible reasons behind the association between tenure and organizational commitment. The first explanation suggests tenure acts as a function of commitment while the second links tenure to commitment via the organizational member's increased knowledge of the organization's purpose, values, or mission.

Though Laczó and Hanisch (1999) did not find a statistically significant difference between unpaid and paid organization members' level of organizational commitment, they did conclude a small but practical difference occurred between the two groups. Namely, unpaid organization members reported slightly higher levels of organizational commitment. In addition, Laczó and Hanisch found two additional areas of perceived difference between paid and unpaid organization members. These areas included differences in organizational withdrawal behaviors and satisfaction with co-workers across compensations status. Liao-Troth (2001) confirm Newton's (1995) findings of similar self-report perceptions of organizational commitment while contradicting Laczó and Hanisch (1999) findings of differences in the pairs level of

organizational commitment. In addition, Liao-Troth suggests paid and unpaid organization members report similar perceptions of organizational justice. Finally, Gerstein et al. (2004) take the line of research in a slightly different direction examining the differences between paid and unpaid volunteers. Specifically, the researchers found the two groups (i.e., paid AmeriCorp volunteers and unpaid college student volunteers) differ in terms of motivation along gender lines and levels of compensation. Table 3 presents a summary of the research findings contained within this section.

Table 3

Differences/Similarities between Paid and Unpaid Organization Members

Researchers	Analysis	Sample	Findings
Pearce (1983)	2 x 4 ANOVA	38 unpaid / 68 paid	Unpaid greater social service motive, greater satisfaction and praiseworthiness
Newton (1995)	Two-tailed <i>t</i> test Regression and correlation	69 paid / 189 unpaid	Similar commitment and problem perception, tenure predicts commitment

Table 3 (continued)

Researchers	Analysis	Sample	Findings
Laczo & Hanisch (1999)	Regression	100 paid 150 unpaid	Practical commitment differences, unpaid lower withdrawal behaviors
Liao-Troth (2001)	Regression	67 volunteers 41 paid	Similar commitment and justice
Gerstein et al. (2004)	Correlation	127 unpaid 143 paid	Gender related and compensation related service motives

Volunteer Motivation Measurement

As researchers continued their investigation of volunteer motivation, a group of researchers began to question what constituted the best measure of volunteer motivation. These researchers proposed volunteer motivation could be captured using a unidimensional scale (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) or multiple factor scales (Clary,

Synder, & Ridge, 1992; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). This subsection presents research focusing on these perspectives of volunteer motivation assessment and the research findings associated with each investigation.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) investigated an individual's motivation to volunteer (MTV) attempting to determine if MTV could be measured using a one, two, three, or multidimensional measure. Using a sample composed of volunteers ($N = 258$) and non-volunteers ($N = 104$) from the Northern part of the United States the researchers also sought to determine what motivates the habitual volunteer. Thus, they purposefully sampled individuals who contributed at least one hour of direct service every other week. To gather data from the non-volunteers, the researchers selected volunteers ($n = 104$) to identify a non-volunteer friend of the same age and gender. Data collection techniques included a questionnaire and participant interviews.

As part of the investigation sought to determine the appropriateness of assessing volunteerism as one dimensional phenomenon, Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) designed a volunteer motivation measure utilizing 28 motives derived from a content analysis of existing research. Assessing initial volunteer motivation only, respondents rated each motive's influence in their decision-making process using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*not important at all*) to 5 (*very important*). Members of the volunteer sample assessed the motive's influence on their decision to initially volunteer. Members of the non-volunteer sample assessed each motive's influence on their decision to volunteer in the future. Interviews were conducted in two phases, the first interview phase included volunteers ($n = 141$). The second interview phase included non-

volunteers ($n = 104$). Trained graduate students conducted all interviews (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991).

Research findings suggest that having an opportunity to do something worthwhile (i.e., altruistic motives) and participating in an activity that makes individuals feel better about themselves (i.e., egoistic motives) were the top two motives influencing the study participants' decision to volunteer. The investigation's participants ranked loneliness (i.e., social motives) as the lowest motive influencing their decision to volunteer. The confirmatory factorial analysis revealed that the motives utilized as part of this investigation did not fit the two-category or three-category model of volunteer motivation previously suggested in existing literature (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991). In addition, the researchers found that 22 of the 28 motives utilized in the investigation loaded together on one factor (Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). Three motives loaded within the second factor (Cronbach's $\alpha = .47$). Based on the single factor loading, of the 22 motives and Cronbach's alpha analysis, the researchers concluded volunteer motivation was a one-dimensional phenomenon.

As a final analysis of their suggested volunteer motivation model, the researchers examined the measure's pragmatic validity by positing that if volunteer motivation were one-dimensional (a) "The total MTV score to be correlated with commitment to volunteer services" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 281). The researchers also suggested that "The sum of ranking to be significantly higher among the volunteers than among the non-volunteers" (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991, p. 281). Data supporting these postulates included a relationship between monthly volunteer hours contributed and organizational

commitment, as well as the fact that volunteers scored higher than non-volunteers on the scale's 22 identified volunteer motives.

Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) suggest the one-dimensional MTV model's practical application rests in the measure's utilization by practitioners as a tool to assist in the recruitment process. The researchers suggest when an organization uses such an instrument to assess volunteer motivation, they may be better equipped to discuss the volunteer's expectation and reduce frustration related to unmet expectations. Perhaps even more importantly, the researchers concluded that volunteers do not distinguish between different motives; they merely act on each motive.

Pursuing a slightly different approach to understanding volunteerism, Clary, accompanied by many colleagues (Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998; Clary, Snyder, & Stukas, 1996), began to advance a functional perspective as a viable means toward developing an understanding of volunteerism. Clary et al. (1992) proposed the key to this perspective lies in understanding the needs that individuals seek to fulfill through volunteerism. Clary et al. (1992) suggest the following:

The logic of the functional approach to volunteerism is to identify the motives that are satisfied, the needs that are met and the goals that are reached when a person gets involved in volunteerism. Critical to the logic of the functional strategy is the assertion that persons can hold the same attitude or perform the same behavior for very different reasons. Acts of volunteerism that appear to be the same on the surface can actually reflect different underlying motivational processes. To the extent that these motivations can be identified, we can better understand what people are looking for what they think about volunteering and how we might help them satisfy their needs. (p. 335)

The six functional motivations posited, as part of the volunteer functions inventory (VFI), classified volunteer motives into categories including perspectives emphasizing (a) *values* or opportunity to express "A deeply held belief about the

importance of helping others” (Clary et al., 1992, p. 337), (b) *understanding* or seeking to understand the organization and/or its cliental, (c) *social* or volunteering “To satisfy a social function....a reflection of the normative influences of friends, family, or a social group” (Clary et al., 1992, p. 338), (d) *career* or opportunities to enhance an individual’s career through learning new skills and/or networking, (e) *protective* or opportunities to reduce feelings of guilt, and (f) *esteem* (Clary et al., 1992) or volunteering to develop or enhance self-esteem and positive self regard. As noted in subsequent research the *esteem* function label changed to *enhancement* (Clary et al., 1996; Clary et al., 1998). These motivational classifications are assessed utilizing 30-items. Volunteers and non-volunteers rank the importance of and accuracy with which the 30 items reflect their motivation to volunteer utilizing a 7-point scale. High or low scores for each value thus reflect the importance of each value to the individual.

Two ensuing research investigations (Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996) conducted by Clary and colleagues provide support for the use of the VFI. Conducting a series of six studies, Clary et al. (1998) examined the VFI’s validity, internal consistency, stability, and utility in predicting satisfaction and commitment. Sample compositions for the first three investigations included (a) volunteers from five Minneapolis/St. Paul organizations ($N = 465$), (b) for the first two University of Minnesota studies, students ($N = 534$), and (c) for the third students ($N = 65$).

Results from these investigations indicated volunteers, self-reported assessments of their motivation to participate in volunteer activities, group as predicted by the researchers’ conceptualization of six functional volunteer motivations (i.e., *values*, *understanding*, *career*, *protective*, *enhancement*, and *social*). In addition, the six

functional volunteer motivations were found to be similar when examined using a sample of individuals with previous volunteer experience and a sample of individuals without previous volunteer experience. Finally, test-retest correlations over a four-week period indicate that five of the six functional motivations (i.e., *understanding*, *enhancement*, *social*, *career*, and *protective*) are stable over time. Clary et al. (1998) concluded that their functional conceptualization of volunteer motivations, and the resulting VFI, represents a sound psychometric measure of functional volunteer motivations.

The three final investigations served a three-fold purpose assessing the importance of congruence between a volunteer's motives and volunteer opportunities; the relationship among fulfilling desired functional motives, opportunity congruence, and satisfaction; and the influence of attained functional motives and intention to continue voluntary activities and commitment. The samples for these investigations included (a) University of Minnesota undergraduate students ($N = 59$), (b) hospital volunteers ($N = 61$), and (c) University of St. Thomas undergraduate students ($N = 369$). Clary et al. (1998) used the VFI as the primary measure for the three final studies.

Research results indicated that volunteers judged volunteer opportunities based on perceptions of congruence between perceived functional motivational goal and opportunity provided by the organizations. In addition, volunteers were more satisfied with their experience if their functional motivational goal matched the experience provided. Likewise, volunteers who perceived congruence between functional motivation to volunteer and opportunity provided by the organization were more likely to continue their involvement with the organization. Clary et al. (1998) suggest the investigation's practical implications include providing organizations with a measure to assess the

motivations of potential volunteers enabling the organization to better match and recruit volunteers. The findings also imply that continued volunteer motivational and opportunity fit contribute to increased volunteer satisfaction and continuation.

Moving beyond the use of convenience samples consisting of college students or active volunteers, Clary et al. (1996) used a sample ($N = 2,671$) of adults over the age of 18 participating in a national survey for the independent sector to further examine the volunteer motivation using the VFI. The investigation served a two-fold purpose acting to replicate findings of previous research, thus further supporting their six-dimension model of volunteer motivation and validating the VFI instrument. The investigation also furthered our understanding of volunteer motivation through the examination of relationships among volunteer motivation, types of activities engaged, and demographic variables. Finally, the researchers sought to investigate predictors of volunteer behavior using demographic variables (i.e., education, age, income) and VFI motivations (i.e., values, career, social, understanding, enhancement, protective).

Asking six research questions, the researchers found support for the six dimensional functional motivation model as proposed in the VFI from this diverse sample. In addition, the researchers found links between volunteer motivation and behavior, volunteer motivation and activity type, as well as demographic difference relating to emphasis placed on each of the six VFI motivations. Namely, individuals who indicated some volunteer experience versus individuals that did not indicate volunteer experience differed in their emphasis of five of the six motivations. For instance, volunteers placed greater emphasis on *values*, *enhancement*, *social* and *understanding* motivational goals. On the other hand, non-volunteers reported greater *career* motivation.

While both groups rank ordered these motivational goals similarly, the differences occurred in terms of intensity of emphasis as opposed to ranking of motivational goal.

When examined across various years of service categories (i.e., *never to five plus years of volunteer experience*) the groups also differed in emphasis of the motivational goals (Clary et al., 1996). For instance, the *values* motive remained constant with each category placing the greatest amount of emphasis on this motivational goal. However, the *social* motive received greater emphasis from volunteers that reported less than one year to three years of volunteer experience. Similarly, the *enhancement* motivational goal received the greatest emphasis from individuals that report less than one year to five years of volunteer experience and the least amount of emphasis from individuals who indicated that they never volunteered. All groups ranked protective and career motivational goals as their fifth and sixth motivational goals.

Clary et al. (1996) also found differences between motivational goal emphasis and volunteer activity preference. Explicitly, *values* motivational goals were predictors of four of 15 different activities (i.e., health, human service, environment, and informal/alone). *Understanding* motivational goals were predictors of seven activities including education, human service, environment, public benefit, arts, youth development, and informal/alone. Social motivational goals were predictive of religious, public benefit, and political volunteer activities. The researchers concluded that while *values* motivation plays an important role in an individual's overall decision to volunteer, activity choice potentially result from combinations of other motivational influences.

In relation to demographic differences in volunteer motivation emphasis, differences occurred between genders, age groups, and educational attainment levels. For

instance, overall, females placed greater emphasis on the six volunteer motivations identified by the VFI than their male counterparts (Clary et al., 1996). Both genders rank ordered the importance of each motivational goal similarly (i.e., *values*, *enhancement*, *social*, and *understanding*, respectively, from most emphasis to least emphasis). The researchers also submitted that younger participants placed more emphasis on *career*, *understanding*, and *protective* motivational goals. Overall, the various age groupings had similar motivational goal emphasis as individuals ranked *values* motivational goals as their most emphasized goal followed by *social* and *enhancement* motivational goals ranked similarly in the top three within five of the six age group divisions. Finally, different educational attainment levels also placed slightly different emphasis on the six volunteer motivational goals identified within the VFI. Namely, Clary et al. (1996) suggest individuals with lower levels of educational attainment placed greater emphasis on *career* and *protective* motivational goals than those with higher educational attainment levels.

Other researchers (Carlo et al., 2004; Eley & Kirk, 1996; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) began using the Clary et al. (1992, 1996, 1998) VFI instrument as part of their investigation of volunteer behavior. Carlo et al. (2004) utilized the VFI's values-expression scale as part of their examination of the influences of two global personality traits (i.e., agreeableness and extraversion) and prosocial values motive (i.e., desire to help others, concern, empathy) on volunteer behavior (i.e., likelihood to engage in volunteerism). As part of this correlation investigation, the researchers used a sample of 849 college students to examine possible relationships among the variables. These relationships included (a) a positive relationship among personality traits (i.e.,

agreeableness and extraversion) and volunteer behavior, (b) a mediating role for prosocial values motive between the relationship among personality traits (i.e., agreeableness and extraversion) and volunteerism, and (c) a moderating role for prosocial values motive in the relationship between extraversion and volunteering.

Research findings support a direct relationship between agreeableness and volunteer behavior (Carlo et al., 2005). Therefore, individuals who exhibit high levels of agreeableness may be more likely to volunteer. The researchers link this conclusion to initial compliance with requests to volunteer. Prosocial value motive also mediated the relationship between volunteer behavior and the personality traits of agreeableness and extraversion. In consideration of the mediating of prosocial values motive relationship, one might conclude that the desire to help others may enhance an individual's agreeableness and/or extraverted disposition to the extent that he or she has a higher desire to volunteer. Overall research findings supported a relationship between personality traits, prosocial values motive, and volunteer behavior.

While one group of researchers (Carlo et al., 2005) used one of the VFI's indices (i.e., values) in their investigation, Finkelstein et al. (2005) used the entire VFI to integrate two separate perspectives (i.e., functional and role identity) in their investigation of volunteer behavior. The investigation's overarching question focused on the ability of the combined theoretical frameworks to provide insight into volunteer behavior especially those variables that promote sustained involvement with organizations. Collecting data from a sample ($N = 302$) of hospice volunteers, study hypotheses predicted relationships between (a) volunteer motive (i.e., values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement) and volunteer behavior (i.e.,

length of service and time contributed) and (b) role identity and volunteer behavior (i.e., length of service and time contributed). Research hypotheses also predicted relationships between (a) perceived expectations and time spent engaged in volunteer activities, (b) prosocial personality (i.e., other-oriented empathy and helpfulness) and volunteer behavior (i.e., length of service and time contributed), (c) other-oriented empathy and role identity, and (d) role identity and values motives.

In relation to utilizing both functional and role identity perspectives to understand volunteer behavior, research findings only supported positive relationships between role identity and volunteer behavior (i.e., length of service and time engaged). Contradicting previous findings that volunteer experience and value motivation congruence resulted in increased volunteer involvement (Clary et al., 1998), Finkelstein et al. (2005) found only negative relationships between functional motivations to volunteer and volunteer behavior. Namely, *career* negatively related to length of volunteer service and time engaged in activity while *understanding* motive negatively related to length of volunteer service. Other motives identified as part of the VFI did not test statistically significant for relationships with either time engaged in volunteerism or length of volunteer service.

Finkelstein et al. (2005) suggest several reasons for their contradicting findings associated with functional motive and volunteer behavior. The first two explanations are associated with recall of initial volunteer motive and changing volunteer motives, as well as differences in measurement as Clary et al. (1998) measured value fulfillment. The third explanation suggests that the relationship is more complex than originally expected as functional motives (i.e., *values*, *understanding*, *career*, *protective*, and *enhancement*) related to role identity which in turn related to volunteer behaviors. In a similar fashion

several functional motives (i.e., *values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement*) related to perceived experience which in turn related to volunteer behaviors.

Finkelstein et al. (2005) posit that “What is most impressive about the relations found in this study and others israther than predicting who will volunteer and who will not, it allows us to make predictions about who will be the most active or dedicated” (p. 414). Explicitly, the prosocial measure of helpfulness and volunteer perceived expectations were significant predictors of length of volunteer service. Similarly, volunteer perceived expectations and volunteer role identity were significant predictors of time engaged in volunteer service activities.

Eley and Kirk (2002) also used the entire VFI in their investigation of young adults involved in the Millennium Volunteer (MV) program. The MV program represents the British government’s attempt to foster volunteer involvement and citizenship in young adults ages 16-24. The researchers sought to advance our understanding of the youth volunteerism suggesting the investigation’s results provide useful information to community leaders, educators, and researchers seeking additional insight into profiles of young volunteers.

Study participants included Youth Sport Trust (YST) MV participants ($N = 306$). YST MV program participants included students from schools across England interested and committed to provide 200 hours of volunteer work in sports-related activities. In addition, all YST MV program participants attended a summer leadership camp. The participants completed an initial questionnaire followed by a second questionnaire 9 months later. While the sample of participants decreased between data collection phases,

gender represented the only significant difference between phase two respondents. Thus, the researchers examined the volunteer motivation data from each phase of the investigation for changes and/or differences.

Among the participants that completed the first phase of the question, learning new skills, knowledge, or abilities (i.e., *understanding*); helping them with future careers (i.e., *career*); and altruistic/humanitarian concerns (i.e., *values*) represent the top three functional motivations for volunteerism. Nine months later, three VFI motives showed significantly higher mean scores (i.e., *social* motive 2.76 phase one / 3.10 phase two, *values* motive 3.77 phase one / 3.95 phase two, and *enhancement* 3.56 phase one / 3.75 phase two) (Eley & Kirk, 2002). The investigation also produced an interesting association between the volunteer behavior of young adults and their parents. Explicitly, a positive relationship existed between young adults in their investigation indicating previous volunteer experience and parental volunteer involvement.

The researchers garnered several conclusions from the functional motives important to the young people participating in this investigation. The importance placed on *understanding* and *career* motives suggest the youth desired both an opportunity to gain experience for future professional endeavors, as well as gain and exercise new skills. Increases in the importance of *values* motive found in the second phase of data collection suggest the initial engagement as a volunteer produced an increased concern for their fellow man. While overall socialization was not one of the top functional motivations for their volunteer involvement, the researchers concluded an increase in this motive between the first and second phase of data collection points to the “Social nature of the volunteer work” (Eley & Kirk, 2002, p. 164). Finally, the researchers suggest *protective* motives

consistently ranked low as the young people participating in this investigation were not motivated to volunteer by guilt.

Eley and Kirk's sample of young people ranked the six functional motivations slightly different from Clary et al. (1996) sample of volunteers, ages 18 to 24. Study participants in the later investigation ranked the top three motivations as *value*, *understanding*, and *social* while study participants in the former investigation ranked the top three motivations as *understanding*, *career*, and *values*. Career motivations represented the lowest ranked functional motivation in Clary et al. (1996) investigation of volunteer functional motivations. However, Clary et al. (1996) did submit that overall younger volunteers emphasized *career*, *understanding*, and *protective* motivational goals. This generalization stems from a sample composed of six different age groupings covering an age span from 18 to 65 and older. Perhaps the different motivational rankings produced by these investigations result from the investigations sampling techniques (i.e., random versus purposeful sample of students), differences in sample age, or differences in cultural perspectives.

The final investigation (Strigas & Jackson, 2003), within this section, uses a sample of 85 Capital City Marathon volunteers to assess demographic and motivational factors associated with sports event volunteerism. As part of this investigation the researchers combine items from Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen's (1991) scale and Clary et al.'s (1998) VFI with items measuring leisure motivation to create a 40-item questionnaire completed by all volunteers. To produce the 40-item scale utilized as part of the investigation, the researchers deleted and modified the language of some items from the other instruments. The impetus behind the investigation included (a) developing

an instrument capable of assessing sports event volunteer motivational factors, and (b) developing a profile of volunteer characteristics that event organizers could use in their recruitment and retention efforts.

The marathon volunteers who completed the questionnaire ranked two motivational items as their first reason for volunteering. These reasons included “Volunteering creates a better society” (Strigas & Jackson, 2003, p. 117) and “I wanted to help make the event a success” (Strigas & Jackson, 2003, p. 117). Two motivational items also tied as the lowest ranked reasons for volunteering for the event. These items related to volunteers feeling obligated to participate because of employers or school responsibilities, and complementary items associated with volunteering for the event.

The 40-item scale proposed by Strigas and Jackson yielded a five-factor subscale (alphas ranging from .73 to .91) accounting for over half the variance associated with volunteer motivation. The five-factors included *material*, *purposive*, *leisure*, *egoistic*, and *external*. Items grouped within the *material* factor focused on volunteer motivation driven by gaining experience, expectations, recognition, prestige, and complementary rewards. Items grouped within the *purposive* factor focused on volunteer motivation driven by giving back, event success, and contributing to a better society. Items within the final three factors (i.e., *leisure*, *egoistic*, and *material*) focused on volunteer motivation associated with escape from troubles, daily responsibilities or stress; gaining new abilities, skills, contacts, interests; and influences of family and significant others in volunteer motivation, respectively.

In sum, several researchers (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Clary et al., 1998; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) have focused on developing the best measure of volunteer

motivation. This focus has produced both unidimensional (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991) and multiple dimensional models (Clary et al., 1992, 1996, 1998; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) of volunteer motivation assessment. One multiple factor model, the VFI, associates volunteer motivation to functional goals the individuals seeks to fulfill (Clary et al., 1992) through their volunteer experience. Clary and colleagues posited six volunteer functional motivations including *career*, *social*, *understanding*, *values*, *enhancement*, and *protective*.

Researchers using all VFI, and subscales of the VFI assessing particular motivations, have examined samples composed of volunteers, non-volunteers, students, youth, and adults 18 years of age and older. Their investigations have found (a) volunteers place greater emphasis on *values*, *enhancement*, *social*, and *understanding* motivational goals than non-volunteers (Clary et al., 1996), (b) volunteers who perceive a greater match between functional motive and experience were more satisfied and continued their involvement (Clary et al., 1998), (c) functional values motive changes slightly with years of volunteer experience (Clary et al., 1996), volunteer age (Clary et al., 1996, Eley & Kirk, 1996), and across volunteer activity (Clary et al., 1996), and (d) a complex relationship between functional volunteer motive and volunteer behavior mediated by prosocial values motive (Finkelstien et al., 2005). Table 4 presents a summary of the research findings contained within this section.

Table 4

Volunteer Motivational Measure Findings

Researcher	Measure	Sample	Findings
Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen (1991)	Unidimensional	258 volunteers 104 non volunteers	22 items load 1 factor top motives feel better & worthwhile
Clary et al. (1998)	VFI	465 volunteers 534 students 65 students 59 students 61 older volunteers 369 students	Six functional motivation model, most satisfied and continue match motive and experience

Table 4 (continued)

Researchers	Measure	Sample	Finding
Clary et al. (1996)	VFI	2,671	Volunteers > emphasis values, enhancement, social, understanding, non-volunteers > career motive, values motive emphasis consistent across experience groupings, social motive emphasis > 1 year or less experience, motivational emphasis varies across activity groupings, younger volunteers > emphasis on career, understanding, and protecting motivational goals
Carlo et al. (2004)	VFI values mediates subscale	849 students	Prosocial values motive relationship between agreeableness & extraversion

Table 4 (continued)

Researcher	Measure	Sample	Findings
Finkelstein et al. (2005)	VFI	302 hospice	Complex relationship among role identity, VFI motivation and prosocial motive
Eley & Kirk (1996)	VFI	306 youth	Understanding, career, values important initial motives, increases in social, values, enhancement after 9 months, relationship between youth and parent volunteer created involvement
Strigas & Jackson (2003)		85 volunteers	Five-factor volunteer motivation assessment, highest ranked reason event success & betterment of society, lowest obligation

Volunteer Behavior

Further examination of volunteer behavior leads researchers to continue investigating volunteer motivation in terms of initial engagement (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Caldwell & Andereck, 1996; Martinez & McMullin, 2004; Sherer, 2004). Research also begins to examine factors important to volunteer success (Nelson, Hooker, Dehart, Edwards, & Lanning, 2004), as well as motives associated with continued volunteer involvement (Gidron, 1984; Miller, Powell, & Seltzer, 1990). Researchers also begin to establish links between demographic variables and volunteer behavior (Becker & Dhingra, 2001). This subsection presents some of the existing research focusing on volunteer behavior and motivation.

Before returning to an investigation that examines more motivational reasons for voluntary association, it is important to recall previously presented research (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996; Eley & Kirk, 1996; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) that links functional motives (i.e., *career, understanding, enhancement, social, protective, and values*) to volunteer behavior. Through these investigations we also begin to see volunteer motivation potentially stems from desires to match function (i.e., gain potential professional skills or social interaction) to volunteer experience.

Looking at a slightly different type of volunteer involvement, in particular involvement in a recreational-related society (i.e., the North Carolina Zoological Society, NCZS), Caldwell and Andereck (1994) examined what motivates an individual to join and continue their association with a nonprofit recreation-related organization/society. Though these individuals may not contribute actual volunteer person-hours through their

involvement with the NCZS, this investigation integrates research focusing on volunteer motivation and individual intention to terminate or continue their association with an organization. The researchers proposed and sought answers to five research questions that examined (a) motives to join categorized as *material*, *utilitarian*, *solidary*, *affective*, *purposive*, and *normative*, (b) differences between an individual's motivation to join and motivation to continue their involvement, (c) effects of an individual's level of organizational involvement on joining, and (d) the relationships among various demographic variables and motivation.

The investigation's first hypothesis stated, "Purposive benefits will be the strongest motive for joining NCZS, followed by *solidary* and then *material* benefits" (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994, p. 36). The second hypothesis stated that "Purposive benefits will be the strongest motive for continuation of members in NCZS" (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994, p. 36). The final hypothesis stated that "Individuals who are most active in NCZS events and who also visit North Carolina Zoological Park most frequently will consider purposive benefits more important than will less active members" (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994, p. 36).

Within the theoretical framework of this investigation, motives categorized as *material* included tangible benefits derived from membership with the NCZS (i.e., tangible benefits). *Solidary* motives included opportunities for social interaction measured via responses to two items "My family enjoys the Zoo" and "To set a good example for my family" (Caldwell & Andereck, 1994, p. 38). *Purposive* motives associated with feelings of contributing to the greater good, supporting the organization's efforts, and personal learning opportunities. Using a random sample of NCZS members

($N = 500$) selected from the organization's membership list, the researchers used a questionnaire to collect the data. The questionnaire return rate equaled 74%.

Similar to research focusing on individuals who contribute time to organizations as volunteers (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996; Eley & Kirk, 1996; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003), research findings from Caldwell and Andereck's (1994) investigation illuminates the importance of appealing to altruistic motivations. Their research findings supported the first and second hypotheses positing *purposive motive* (i.e., appeals to the volunteer's sense of greater good or organizational success) represent the strongest motive to join and continue membership with the NCZS. *Material motive*, or tangible motives, represented the least important motivation overall, but did become significant if the volunteer also reported moderate involvement or activity with the NCZS. In addition, individuals who reported household incomes of \$40,000 or less also placed importance on material motives. Overall women placed greater emphasis on purposive motives for joining and continuing their involvement with the NCZS.

Caldwell and Andereck (1994) suggest cautious interpretation of the investigation's findings, as the sample does not represent members of other voluntary associations. In addition, the investigation's participants were asked to recall both motive for joining and continuing their association with the organization. The researchers posit recall of motives to join the NCZS may not represent the most appropriate measurement means. However, Caldwell and Andereck (1994) suggest the study's doubly multivariate repeated measures design "statistically mitigated" the concerns associated with the participant's ability to recall motives for joining and continuing with the organization. The researchers suggest the investigation's practical implications included the need for

organizations to illustrate how involvement with the organization fulfills altruistic desires and allow each volunteer to contribute to society.

Continuing to examine volunteer motivations Martinez and McMullin (2004) investigated the influence of six variables (i.e., efficacy, personal motivation, request, social networks, lifestyle changes, and competing commitments) on Appalachian Trails Conference (ATC) volunteer decisions to maintain, or discontinue, active involvement with the organization. For the purpose of this investigation, active volunteer status represented individuals who donated their time to the organization while inactive volunteer status translated to individuals merely paying their membership dues.

The investigation focused on obtaining answers to three questions. The first and second research questions sought to identify those characteristics that distinguish active versus inactive ATC members. The third research question, "Can this knowledge be used to better recruit and retain active members" (p. 115) identified practical implications for the data collected. The answers to these questions provides important information as volunteer human service and parks organizations spend considerable time, energy, and effort to recruit and actively engage volunteers beyond the payment of membership dues.

Using a descriptive research design, the researchers randomly selected active ($n = 392$) and inactive ($n = 476$) ATC members. Survey follow-up measures included a postcard and two subsequent survey mailings distributed to non-respondents. The study's return rate included a 52% response rate from inactive members and 54% response rate from active members. The researchers developed the questionnaire gleaned the six variables from a review of volunteerism literature. Respondents assessed the importance of each item (i.e., efficacy, personal motivation, request, social network, lifestyle

changes, and competing commitment) using a scale of responses ranging from very important to not applicable.

Research results indicated that active and inactive ATC volunteers share several demographic characteristics (e.g., a tendency to be employed full-time or retired and highly educated). A greater proportion of inactive volunteers were in the higher income ranges. The pairing (i.e., active or inactive volunteer) differed significantly in four of five factors that explained a volunteer's decision to participate. These factors included efficacy, social networks, competing commitments, personal growth, and lifestyle changes. Active ATC volunteers placed more emphasis on efficacy and social networks than their inactive counterparts. Conversely, inactive ATC volunteers placed more emphasis on competing commitment than active ATC volunteers. Neither active nor inactive ATC volunteers place considerable emphasis on personal growth or lifestyle changes. Overall, efficacy significantly predicted the likelihood to volunteer for the ATC while competing commitments and income provided significant predictors of ATC volunteer inactivity. Martinez and McMullin (2004) suggest that the study's practical implications include the importance of "Fueling the belief in efficacy of one's actions and providing adequate information about commitments necessary to volunteers is crucial to successful volunteer recruitment" (p. 125).

As research continued into volunteer behavior, researchers investigated ties between church attendance and volunteer behavior. Becker and Dhingra (2001) investigated the relationship between church affiliation and volunteer behavior drawing from a sample ($N = 1006$) of residents in four upstate New York communities. The researchers posed three questions. These questions included (a) "What is the relative

influence of religious belief versus social network in explaining the link between church attendance and volunteering” (Becker & Dhingra, 2001, p. 315), (b) “How do religious identity and religious ideology influence the meaning of volunteering in people’s lives” (Becker & Dhingra, 2001, p. 315), and (c) “How do church members choose to volunteer for the congregation or for a secular organization” (Becker & Dhingra, 2001, p. 315).

Becker and Dhingra (2001) collected data over the course of a two-year period using both a survey and in-depth interviews of select participants. The survey response rate equaled 60%. In addition, Becker and Dhingra selected a group of community members ($N = 38$) to participate in follow-up telephone interviews. Each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. The researchers also collected survey data from 165 pastors from the four communities were surveyed (response rate = 78%). Information acquired from the pastor’s survey provided contextual data for the investigation. Survey’s included questions collecting demographic data, religious involvement data, and social network data. Interview questions focused on the influence of religion on the individual’s volunteer work and meanings associated with volunteering.

Again, research findings suggest a potential social or values motivation for volunteer engagement. Analysis of the entire sample revealed church attendance and religious association predicted an individual’s likelihood to volunteer to the extent that reporting close social ties with other church members influenced decisions to volunteer. Associations between specific denominations and volunteer behavior were not found. Residency also influenced volunteer behavior, as individuals in rural settings were more likely to volunteer than those residing in the more metropolitan communities. Other predictors of volunteer behavior included education and marital status. Individuals with

higher education and those who were married with children were more likely to volunteer.

Overall, study participants reported being influenced by social networks when making their decisions to volunteer. In addition, two thirds of study participants with children reported that they volunteered for organizations that provided services to family members. Interview data summarizes reasons why individuals, in this sample, choose to volunteer. Becker and Dhingra (2001) reported, "Volunteers told us that they want to give back what they have received, that they volunteer because they care, because friends need help, because their church needs help, because someone asked them to, and because they grew up volunteering" (p. 329).

Becker and Dhingra (2001) suggest several implications related to the role of congregations and volunteer patterns. The influences of social networks on an individual's choice to participate in volunteer activities are perhaps the most important implications, drawn from the investigations, for non-profit managers and volunteer recruiters. The researchers suggest, "Ties to one's family and friends more frequently lead to volunteering in other organizations central to the social integration of children" (Becker & Dhingra, 2001, p. 332).

Sherer (2004) examines volunteer motivation not only as part of a different culture, but within a very different context than the studies presented thus far. Namely, Sherer examines relationships among volunteer motivation, family, friends, and community when volunteer service becomes a country's expectation of its youth. Using a mixed methods design, the researcher investigates the National Service Volunteers

(NSV) program in Israel. The investigation furthers our understanding of the characteristics and motivations by changing the context of the volunteer's experience.

Sherer (2004) collected data through one-on-one interviews of NSV ($N = 40$). The researchers used a convenience sample of randomly selected volunteers assigned to the central region of Israel. The sample included individuals who were currently serving ($N = 29$) and those who recently finished their service with NSV ($N = 11$). Interview questions focused on (a) the collection of demographic data, (b) assessed attitudes of family and friends toward service and motivation of service, (c) assessed satisfaction with the workplace, volunteer role, and public recognition, and (d) examined relationships.

Data analysis of open-ended questions included content analysis. Sherer (2004) utilized three different reviewers as part of the theme and data interpretation process to enhance the reliability of the researcher findings. In addition to the content analysis, Sherer calculated ratios for each category that emerged from the data.

Research findings indicated NSV program participants emphasize similar motives (i.e., *values, career, social, and enhancement*) for NSV service as other volunteers presented within this section. These motivations included altruistic motives (i.e., need to help others), instrumental motives (i.e., learning a profession), and integrative motives (i.e., desire to be liked by others). A small percentage of the NSV program participants also reported being motivated by peer pressure (i.e., service is expected), and religious motives (NSV participation versus service in the army). Similar to links between family history of volunteer work as reported by Becker and Dhingra (2001) and connections between parental and youth volunteer involvement (Eley & Kirk, 1996), research

findings also indicate most respondents received support from family members and friends as they participated in the activities of the NSV program (Sherer, 2004).

Nelson et al. (2004) extend the examination of volunteer behavior by investigating the links among motivation, organizational outcomes, and performance. The researchers begin to link motivation as well as demographic characteristics to successful volunteer performance. Research questions examined (a) relationships between organizational commitment and increases in role performance success, (b) relationships among demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, experience, and tenure) and performance success, and (c) relationships among organizational commitment, satisfaction, and volunteer participation patterns (i.e., time committed, case load, and facility visits). In addition, they posited that volunteer organizational commitment, satisfaction, and gratified motives equated to longer service; increased time spent fulfilling program responsibilities, more cases, and more facility visits. Collecting data from Long Term Care Ombudsman Program volunteers ($N = 106$), the researchers utilized a questionnaire as well as organizational documents (i.e., monthly complaint reports, facility visit records, volunteer time contributions, and complaints filed against ombudsman volunteers).

All volunteer motives (i.e., self-development, affiliation, and altruism) associated to satisfaction with the strongest relationship found between satisfaction and affiliation followed by self-development and altruism. Higher self-reported levels of organizational commitment resulted in increased time spent as ombudsman volunteer, more facility visits, and cases filed. Higher perceptions of organizational commitment also related to higher self-reported levels of satisfaction, affiliation, altruism, and self-development.

Consistent with findings that suggest older volunteers are less likely to leave the organization (Miller et al., 1990) research findings reveal older volunteers reported longer tenures. Older ombudsman volunteers also dedicated more time to their positions. Research findings also support earlier findings that younger volunteers emphasize skill development motives (Eley & Kirk, 1996) as younger ombudsman volunteers reported higher self-development motives than their older counterparts.

Shifting attention from initial motivations to volunteer, Gidron (1984) utilized a longitudinal study design to begin addressing a pivotal question facing non-profit/human service organizations, namely, what variables contribute to an unpaid organization member retaining or leaving their position with the organization. The researcher suggests this issue represents an important concern as unpaid organization members serve vital roles within each organization functioning under the same criteria as paid organization members. Paid and unpaid organization members work in tandem providing a seamless service delivery. In addressing this question the researcher selected volunteers ($N = 123$) associated with the Israeli Association of Community Centers. The sample included individuals working at three centers located in the Northern Region of Israel. These centers served a suburban, rural, and neighborhood in a mid-sized community. Gidron purposefully selected the centers in which their volunteer programs were relatively established.

Specific research questions focused on identifying (a) the personal (i.e., age, sex, employment, residence, previous experience), (b) organizational (i.e., task, hours worked per week, preparation, meetings with supervisor, service tenure), or (c) attitudinal variables (i.e., satisfaction and rewards) predicting organization member turnover or

retention. Gidron also sought to establish turnover or retention variables shared by the paid and unpaid organization members. As part of the investigation, the researcher distinguished two types of organization “leaver.” These classifications included individuals who left the organization for objective reasons (i.e., illness, changing residence) and those who left the organization for other than objective reasons (Gidron, 1984).

Previous experience represents the only personal variable that separates the “stayers” and “leavers” (Gidron, 1984). Organizational variables that contributed to retention included length of service, preparation, and endeavor performed. The attitudinal variables that distinguished “stayers” from “leavers” included recognition, achievement, the work itself, and other volunteers. The researcher concluded the findings indicate attitudinal and organizational variables, rather than personal variables, represent the best predictors of retention. Gidron (1984) suggests the investigation’s practical relevance stems from the information gained relating to why volunteers decide to continue or discontinue their affiliation with an organization. Important retention variables included task preparation, ability/skill match and/or challenge, perceived achievement, and meaningful peer interaction.

Questioning whether the same assumptions associated with intention to leave and turnover connected to the behaviors of paid organization members also connected to the behaviors of unpaid organization members, Miller et al. (1990) examined a sample ($N = 158$) composed of organization members from two large metropolitan hospitals. Miller et al.’s research sought to explore direct and indirect associations among organization member attitude (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), ties to community

and availability of other positions (i.e., situational variables), intention to quit, and volunteer turnover. Research hypotheses posited (a) convenience directly reduced the volunteer's intention to quit and volunteer turnover and (b) volunteer motivations associated with gaining future professional experience directly and positively linked to intention to quit and volunteer turnover. Hypotheses also suggest volunteers with higher perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (i.e., positive attitudinal variables) expressed less intention to quit and these positive attitudinal perceptions directly associated with turnover. A volunteer's intention to quit directly and positively relates to volunteer turnover. Age does not have a direct effect on intention to quit or volunteer turnover, but age will positively influence volunteer perceptions of convenience, and attitudinal variables, and negatively relate with volunteer motives related to gaining future professional experience.

Data collection occurred via a questionnaire distributed by the volunteer service directors at each organization. The instrument's return rate for both medical institutions equaled 83%. Subsequent research findings provided support for both direct and indirect relationships among the proposed variables and volunteer behavior.

Explicitly, a volunteer's perceived convenience of work schedule directly related to intention to leave such that convenient schedules reduced intention to leave and volunteer turnover. Volunteer age also directly related to turnover, but not intention to leave the organization. Older volunteers reported less volunteer turnover while younger volunteers, who incidentally were more inclined to volunteer to gain future professional experience, reported more intention to leave and turnover. The structural equation model demonstrated a direct relationship between seeking experience that in turn directly related

to volunteer turnover. Volunteer attitude also directly influenced intention to leave, but not turnover. This relationship suggests positive perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment directly reduces intention to leave, but not actual volunteer turnover. However, variables that merely reduce intention to leave may produce the desired turnover effects as research findings supported a direct relationship between volunteer intention to leave and volunteer turnover. Overall, the variables examined explained 26% of the variance indicating that volunteer turnover might be difficult to predict. Miller et al. (1990) conceive the individual, situational, and attitudinal factors influencing paid organization member turnover behaviors also have a role in unpaid (i.e., volunteer) turnover behaviors.

Drawing on the research findings from Gidron (1984) and Miller et al. (1990) investigations, we begin to see variables influencing volunteer turnover behavior intertwine into a complicated web of personal, situational, and organizational variables. Collectively these investigations begin to suggest several variables that potentially influence volunteer intention to leave and actual turnover behavior. Gidron (1984) begins the list of variables by suggesting the potential positive influence of past volunteer experience, length of service, volunteer training/preparation, perceptions of the actual task, and achievement. Miller et al. (1990) continue the list with the addition of age, schedule convenience, and volunteer attitude as measured via perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Incorporating the research findings presented thus far into a brief profile of volunteer motivation and/or behavior suggests volunteer motivation stems from desires to understand those served, contribute to the greater good, develop skills, or enhance self-

esteem. Clary et al. (1992) classified these motivations into six functional motivation goals (i.e., *values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement*). When the organization and volunteer match function with volunteer experience, the volunteer is more satisfied and more likely to continue service (Clary et al., 1996).

Research findings also indicated actual motivation to begin and continue volunteer involvement, whether this consists of contributing actual person-hours or merely joining a recreation-related society, and occurs because of a complex set of personal, situational, and organizational variables. Researchers (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1996; Eley & Kirk, 1996; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) suggest an individual's motivation to engage in volunteer activities stems from different combinations of career, understanding, enhancement, and values motivational goals as well as the influences of prosocial values motive, role identity, and personality traits.

Other variables associated with likelihood to engage in volunteer activities included social ties (Becker & Dhingra, 2001) and family support or history of volunteering (Eley & Kirk, 1996; Sherer, 2004), education, and marital status (Becker & Dhingra, 2001). Variables important to continuation of volunteer work include past volunteer experience, length of service, training, achievement, and actual task perceptions provide potentially positive influences on volunteer continuation (Gidron, 1984). Miller et al. (1990) suggest other influences on decisions to continue or discontinue volunteer involvement included age, convenience, and perceptions of satisfaction and organizational commitment. Table 5 presents a summary of research findings contained within this section.

Table 5

Volunteer Behavior and Motivation

Researchers	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Caldwell & Andereck (1994)	500 NCZS Members	ANOVA Pair <i>t</i> -test	Women > purposive motive emphasis, purposive motive > reason to join
Martinez & McMullin (2004)	392 Active 476 Inactive	Chi-Square <i>t</i> -test, ANOVA	Active emphasized efficacy, inactive Volunteers emphasized competing commitments
Becker & Dhingra (2001)	1006 Residents	logistics Regression	Social networks, church attendance, education, residence relate to volunteer behavior
Sherer (2004)	40 NSV	Content Analysis	Altruistic, instrumental integrative motives important, social support important

Table 5 (continued)

Researchers	Sample	Analysis	Finding
Nelson et al. (2004)	106 Active Volunteers	Correlation Regression	Affiliation, self- development, altruism motives
Gidron (1984)	123 Volunteers	Stepwise Discriminant Factor	Past experience distinguishes stayers, length of service, task preparation, skill match relates, peers, recognition relates to retention
Miller et al. (1990)	158 Volunteers	Structural Equation Modeling	Convenience, positive attitude reduces important turnover variables

An outcome of understanding an individual's motive to volunteer, as well as how other variables relate to decisions to volunteer includes the ability to develop and market opportunities that help individuals match potential volunteer experience with individual goals. Researchers (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Clary et al., 1998; Eley & Kirk, 2002;

Nelson et al., 2004) recommend designing and marketing volunteer experiences to facilitate a good match between motivation and experience. The potential exists for both the organization and individual to determine the presence of a good functional match between volunteer motivational goal and organization experience during the process of organizational entry. The next section contains a review of literature relating to organizational socialization.

Organizational Socialization

Van Maanen (1978) posited, “organizational socialization or ‘people processing’ refers to the manner in which the experiences of people learning the ropes of a new organizational position, status, or role are structured for them by others within the organization” (p.19). Early organizational socialization researchers (Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) posit that organizational socialization strategies fall into six dichotomous categories, including (a) *formal* and *informal*; (b) *individual* and *collective*; (c) *sequential* and *random*; (d) *fixed* and *variable*; (e) *serial* and *disjunctive*; and (f) *investiture* and *divestiture*.

Formal socialization tactics segregate organizational newcomers from other members while *informal* socialization tactics allow newcomers to interact with experienced organization members while learning. *Individual* socialization tactics provide unique experiences for newcomers while *collective* tactics provide similar experiences for newcomers in group settings. *Sequential* socialization tactics move newcomers through identifiable phases while *random* tactics provide a more ambiguous learning process. *Fixed* socialization tactics provide newcomers with specific organizational advancement information while *variable* tactics provide little time specific

or advancement pathway information. *Serial* tactics use experienced members to train newcomers while *disjunctive* tactics do not provide for interactions with experienced members. *Investiture* tactics confirm the newcomer's individual values and character while *divestiture* tactics attempt to change the newcomer's values and character (Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979).

In addition to proposing a framework of socialization tactics, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) predicted different outcomes associated with the utilization of each tactic. Potential outcomes included the likelihood the organizational newcomer will challenge current organizational practices, strategies, techniques for accomplishing tasks (i.e., innovative role orientations) or accept existing standards of operation without question (i.e., custodial role orientations). Specifically, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) posit custodial role orientations stem from *sequential*, *variable*, *serial*, and *divestiture* socialization tactics. The researchers hypothesized custodial role orientations originate from an environment in which organizational newcomers proceed through specified stages of advancement (i.e. *sequential* tactics). In addition, newcomers experience some uncertainty associated with *variable* tactics while being exposure to experienced roles models (i.e., *serial* tactics). Finally, the organization outcomes control associated with *divestiture* tactics potentially leads the newcomer to conform to preexisting standards, values, and procedures.

On the other hand, the same study predicts innovative role orientations more often result from *individual*, *informal*, *random*, *disjunctive*, and *investiture* socialization tactics. This assumption implies a level of freedom and reinforcement of those qualities the

individual brings to the organization upon entry. Van Maanen and Schein, (1979) state the following:

For an individual to have the motivation and strength to be a role innovator, it is necessary for that person to be reinforced individually by various other members of the organization (which must be an informal process since it implies disloyalty to the role, group, organizational segment, or total organization itself), to be free of sequential stages which might inhibit innovative efforts, to be exposed to innovative role models or none at all, and to experience an affirmation of self throughout the process. (p. 254)

Table 6

Tactic Outcome Predictions (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979)

Socialization Tactics	<u>Role Orientation</u>	
	Custodial	Innovative
Sequential	X	
Variable	X	
Serial	X	
Divestiture	X	
Individual		X
Informal		X
Random		X
Disjunctive		X
Investiture		X

Extending the initial postulates developed by Van Maanen and Schein, researchers began to examine the Effects of both organizational and individual actions taken during the socialization process, as well as related consequences. Subsequent research linked socialization actions, organizational and individual, to valued organizational and individual outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit, P-O fit, and adjustment). Studies utilized a broad sampling composed of recent college students (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986; Ostroff & Kolowski, 1992;), military recruits (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2005), expatriates (Black, 1992), and cross sections of new organization members representing multiple professional endeavors (Comer, 1991; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, & Anderson, 2004; Morrison, 1993, 2002;). Multiple researchers (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Choa, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Copper-Thomas, van Vianen, Anderson, 2004) employed longitudinal study designs investigating newcomer changes associated with pre- and post- socialization attitudes. This section examines some of the research shaping our current understanding of organizational socialization.

Socialization Tactics and Outcomes

Jones (1986) continues the line of research matching socialization tactic with desired organizational outcome by slightly modifying Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) original postulates. Jones' modifications include both an adjustment of the tactical framework and suggestions of different outcomes associated with two socialization tactics. Specifically, Jones collapses the original six socialization tactics into two overarching categories, designated individualized and institutionalized socialization

tactics, while further identifying how the tactics within each classification associated with socialization context, content, and social characteristics. Institutionalized socialization tactics include Van Maanen and Schien's (1979) *collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial*, and *investiture* tactics. Individualized socialization tactics include Van Maanen and Schein's *individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive*, and *divestiture* tactics. Jones' second modification includes the suggestion that both *fixed* and *investiture* tactics produce custodial role orientations rather than Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) proposed innovative role orientation. Jones (1986) also posits an individual's sense of self-efficacy will interact with socialization tactics employed resulting in potential changes in the effectiveness of the tactic.

Using a sample of consecutive MBA graduates, Jones collected data using a longitudinal design. Study participants completed questionnaires after accepting a full-time position ($n = 127$) and again 5 months later ($n = 102$). Final analysis included a sample of 102 recent graduates that completed both questionnaires. Four research hypotheses predicted (a) relationships among socialization tactic employed by the organization and newcomer role orientation, (b) socialization tactics and role conflict, role ambiguity, and intention to quit the position, (c) the relative importance of two socialization tactics, i.e., *investiture* and *serial* tactics represent the most important tactics, and (d) the moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between socialization tactic and role orientation.

Research findings support Jones' (1986) hypothesized relationship between *fixed* socialization tactics, *investiture* socialization tactics, and individual role orientation. Specifically, *fixed* and *investiture* tactics produced custodial role orientations (i.e.,

acceptance of current practices without innovations or suggested changes). Other relationships among socialization tactic and organizational outcomes derived from research findings included (a) institutionalized socialization tactics likely produced acceptance of current practices (i.e., custodial role orientations), (b) individualized socialization tactics (i.e., *individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive*, and *divestiture*) tactics likely produce innovative role orientations, (c) institutionalized tactics reduce newcomer role conflict, role ambiguity, and intention to quit, and (d) institutionalized tactics produced increased job satisfaction, and commitment. Additionally, Jones (1986) concludes, "The social dimensions of socialization - investiture and serial processes-appear to be particularly significant in influencing role orientation and subsequent adjustment to organizations" (pp. 274-275). Finally, a newcomer's self-efficacy moderated the relationship between socialization tactic and role orientation by enhancing the effects of institutional socialization tactics in situations where the newcomer possessed low levels of self-efficacy. Thus, in situations where newcomers possessed lower levels of self-efficacy, they more readily accepted pre-defined practices (i.e., custodial role orientations).

Table 7

Jones' (1986) Findings

Findings	<u>Tactics</u>	
	Institutionalized	Individualized
Innovative Roles		X
Role Conflict & Ambiguity		X
Custodial Roles	X	
Greater Job Satisfaction	X	
Greater Commitment	X	
Decreased Intention to Quit	X	

Allen and Meyer (1990a) replicated and extended the organizational socialization research of Jones (1986) using a longitudinal study design to investigate the relationship among socialization tactics, role orientation, and organizational commitment. Again using MBA graduates Allen and Meyer (1990a) collected data from individuals who did not work for family operated organizations or were not previously employed by their current organization. The researchers collected data at the individual's 6-month ($n = 170$) and 12-month ($n = 105$) anniversaries.

Study results support Jones' (1986) original findings by indicating *collective*, *formal*, *sequential*, *fixed*, *serial*, and *investiture* tactics (i.e., institutionalized socialization

tactics) result in role orientations in which newcomers accept current practices (i.e., custodial role orientations) and *individual, informal, random, variable, and divestiture* tactics (i.e., individualized tactics) result in innovative role orientations (i.e., newcomer brings fresh ideas to current practices). Again, empirical research findings support an opposite outcome associated with *fixed-variable* socialization, as well as *investiture-divestiture* tactics supporting Jones' (1986) hypothesis rather than Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) original postulate. Specifically, *fixed* and *investiture* socialization tactics produced custodial not innovative role orientations. Adding a dimension (i.e., additional time spent with the organization) that was not evident in Jones' (1986) investigation, Allen and Meyer (1990a) also found while all socialization tactics correlated to organizational commitment after 6-months, only investiture-divestiture socialization tactics correlated to organizational commitment after 12 months of employment. In this instance, organizational socialization tactics that confirmed the values and character of the arriving newcomer (i.e., *investiture* socialization tactics) positively associated with organizational commitment at both 6-month and 12-month measures.

Finally, research findings suggest *serial-disjunctive* socialization tactics were better predictors of role orientation than the other socialization tactics. Incorporating both commitment and role orientation findings, Allen and Meyer (1990a) conclude,

Organizations that want employees who are both committed and willing to innovate might be best advised to use investiture to foster commitment but at the same time minimize the influence of current or previous job incumbents and encourage newcomers to develop their own strategies for dealing with their new roles, a disjunctive tactic. (p. 655)

Black (1992) extends organizational socialization research by moving away from an investigation relying on a sampling of current college graduates to examining the

relationships between socialization tactic and organizational outcome utilizing a sample of American expatriates ($N = 220$) and their spouses from the countries of Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. The researcher developed two research hypotheses utilizing organizational socialization frameworks developed in the research of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) as well as Jones (1986). The first hypothesis suggests when expatriates experiences *collective, disjunctive, variable, investiture, random, and informal* socialization tactics, they will develop innovative role orientations. The second hypothesis insinuates organizational tenure will moderate the relationship between socialization tactic employed by the organization and role orientation. Thus, utilization of *individual, serial, fixed, divestiture, sequential, and formal* socialization tactics when expatriates have low levels of organizational tenure will produce less role innovation.

Research findings support the proposed opposite relationship between *collective* socialization tactics and role orientation. Explicitly, as proposed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and substantiated by Jones (1986) as well as Allen and Meyer (1990a), *collective* socialization tactics utilized with organization newcomers tend to produce custodial role orientations. However, Black (1992) found *collective* socialization tend to produce innovative role orientations in the sample of American expatriates. Research findings also support a negative relationship between *serial* and *fixed* socialization tactics and role innovation. The predicted effects of organizational tenure in terms of moderating the relationship among socialization tactic and role orientation were supported. Namely, collective socialization tended to have a greater ability to produce innovative role orientations in individuals with more organizational tenure. An important conclusion derived from this investigation includes Black's (1992) suggestion, "Clearly it is possible

that the transition process is different for different types of transitions-organization entry, interorganization job change, domestic transfer, international transfer, and so on” (p. 187).

Ashford and Saks (1996) continued examining the associations among organizational socialization tactics and organization outcomes as proposed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979), as well as Jones (1986) extending the research by seeking to understand the effects of socialization on individual changes within the newcomer. Further extending Jones’ (1986) work, the researchers also sought to understand the effects of socialization on actual and attempted role innovation. Similar to other socialization studies (Jones, 1986; Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Black, 1992) the researchers also sought to examine the effects of socialization tactics on role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, intention to quit, and stress symptoms.

Returning to sampling recent college graduates, Ashford and Saks selected a sample ($N = 949$) composed of successive graduating classes from Concordia University’s undergraduate business program. Using a longitudinal study design, data collection occurred at three separate points within the newcomer’s first year of employment. These points included (a) before beginning the new position, (b) after 4 months of service, and (c) after 10 months of service.

Ashford and Saks (1996) derived five research hypotheses from existing literature. The hypotheses posit relationships among (a) institutional socialization tactics and role innovation, (b) socialization tactics and person change, (c) institutional socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment variables (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, stress symptoms), (d) socialization tactics and organizational member attitudes

(i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organizational identification, and intention to quit), and (e) socialization tactics and newcomer performance. Findings support many of the assumptions proposed within this investigation while also supporting earlier research findings.

Research findings indicated that *collective, formal, sequential, fixed, and serial* socialization tactics negatively correlated to attempted role innovation and actual role innovation at the newcomer's 4 month anniversary with the organization. The same five institutional socialization tactics (i.e., *collective, formal, sequential, fixed, and serial* socialization tactics) negatively correlated with actual role innovation at the newcomer's 10-month anniversary with the organization (Ashford & Saks, 1996). Thus, consistent with previous research findings (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Jones, 1986), institutional socialization tactics were more likely to produce custodial role orientations. Consistent with Jones's (1986) findings that institutional socialization tactics facilitated organizational adjustment (i.e., job satisfaction, commitment, reduced intention to quit) research findings suggest *collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial, and investiture* negatively correlated with role ambiguity, role conflict, stress symptoms, and intention to quit after 4 and 10 months of service. Likewise, institutional socialization tactics positively correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organization identification (Ashford & Saks, 1996). Findings also supported the hypothesis that *investiture* socialization tactics (i.e., tactics that confirm the individuals existing values, beliefs, character) do not facilitate personal change within organizational newcomers while *collective* socialization tactics may produce personal changes associated with newcomer adjustment to new positions.

Taken together, the research findings indicate institutional socialization tactics (i.e., *individual, informal, random, variable, disjunctive, and investiture*) have positive outcomes for both organization and organizational newcomer. Conversely, individualized socialization tactics positively associated with newcomer performance (Ashford & Saks, 1996). The positive associations among individual socialization tactics and performance suggest these tactics also produce significant organizational and individual benefits. Overall, research findings suggest potential trade-offs in expected organizational outcomes associated with selected socialization tactics. Ashford and Saks (1996) propose, “Whether a given socialization tactic results in high or low role innovation and performance depends on what is learned, not on how it is taught” (p. 170).

The final investigation presented within this subsection links socialization tactics to the development of P-O fit or individual-organization value congruence (Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, & Anderson, 2004). Utilizing a longitudinal study design, the investigation focused on the effects of investiture (i.e., socialization tactics confirm the values of organizational newcomers) and serial (i.e., experienced organization members assist in training process) socialization tactics two types of organizational fit (i.e., perceived and actual). The researchers initially theorized changes in P-O fit stem from three sources including (a) shifts in the individual’s values, (b) perception changes pertaining to organizational values, or (c) changes in organizational values. However, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) indicate the research design precludes examination of changes in organizational value. Two research hypotheses posit newcomer perceived and actual organization fit will become more congruent after organizational socialization. While the other hypothesis proposes socialization tactics contribute to increases in

newcomer job satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceived P-O fit, and actual P-O fit.

Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) suggest their research findings inform our understanding of the relationship between perceived P-O fit, actual P-O fit, and organizational socialization tactics in three manners. First, newcomer actual P-O fit upon organizational entry contributes to newcomer perceived fit after participating in organizational socialization programs for 4 months. In addition, actual P-O fit predicts newcomer job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Cooper-Thomas et al. suggest this finding has application in organizational interview processes. Research findings also support stability in actual P-O fit upon organizational entry and after 4 months of organizational socialization. This finding, coupled with increased congruence between perceived and actual P-O fit over the same time, causes the researchers to postulate a value shift stemming from changes in newcomer perceptions of organizational values rather than individual value changes. Finally, researcher findings confirm the importance of investiture socialization tactics, as utilization of these tactics predicts newcomer perceived P-O fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment after participation in 4 months of organizational socialization. Supporting the works of others (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986), the researchers link socialization tactics to desirable organizational outcomes.

In sum, researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1988) established relationships between socialization tactic and organizational outcomes. Jones (1988) reported distinctly different outcomes associated with individualized and institutionalized socialization tactics. Individualized socialization tactics enable

innovative role development while institutionalized tactics facilitated continuation of the status quo. An important component of Jones' (1986) work stems from his attempt to collapse six classifications into two overarching categorizations of socialization tactics. In addition, the research contradicts an original postulate of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) finding *fixed* and *investiture* tactics produce status quo rather than innovative role orientations. Allen and Meyer (1990a) concur with Jones relationships between socialization tactic and role development. Allen and Meyer (1990a) also suggest that all socialization tactics relate to organizational commitment in the early stages of organizational entry while only investiture-divestiture tactics correlated to organizational commitment later (12 months after entry) in the entry process. Ashford and Saks (1996) continued the longitudinal examination of socialization tactics and organizational outcomes supporting previous findings as well as reporting that a degree of outcome stability existed over time. Black (1992) contributes to our understanding of organizational socialization tactics and related outcomes selecting a study sample that varies from previous work through his investigation of the socialization of American expatriates. His findings suggest as organizations attempt to socialize different populations the tactics selected may produce different outcomes. Table 8 summarizes the research findings presented within this subsection.

Table 8

Organizational Socialization Tactics and Outcomes

Researchers	Analysis		Sample	Findings
Jones (1986)	Canonical			Institutionalized tactics equal
	Factor	Q1	127 MBA	status quo role orientations
			Graduates	Individualized tactics equal
		Q2	102	innovative role orientations
			MBA	Institutional tactics reduce
			Graduates	role ambiguity, role conflict, increase commitment, job satisfaction, reduce intention to quit
Allen &	Correlation	T ¹	170	Confirm Jones (1986)
Meyer (1990a)	Multiple Regression	T ²	105	findings
Black (1991)	Correlations		220	Opposite outcomes
	Regression		Expatriates	associated with collective tactics organizational tenure affect relationship between serial tactics & role innovation

Table 8 (continued)

Organizational Socialization Tactics and Outcomes

Researchers	Analysis	Sample	Findings
Ashford & Saks (1996)	Correlation	T ¹ 600 T ² 295 T ³ 222	Institutionalized tactics equal custodial role orientations, decrease role ambiguity, role conflict, stress symptoms, intention to quit, increase job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational identification Individualized tactics associate performance Potential tactic outcome tradeoff
Cooper-Thomas et al., (2004)	Correlation Least Squared Regression	T ¹ 105 T ² 80	Actual fit at entry predicts perceived fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment after socialization Actual fit stable over time

Table 8 (continued)

Organizational Socialization Tactics and Outcomes

Researchers	Analysis	Sample	Findings
			Actual fit & perceived fit
			become congruent overtime
			Investiture tactics important

Newcomer Information-seeking and Organizational Entry

A second avenue of organizational socialization research examined the role of individual communicative behaviors as part of the entry process. These investigations focused on how newcomers gained organizational information (Comer, 1991), identified specific content areas sought during the entry process (Chao et al., 1994), and source-information content relationships (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). Miller and Jablin (1991) proposed a model of newcomer information-seeking behavior during organizational entry suggesting several variables play an intricate role in newcomer information-seeking processes. These variables include (a) the newcomer's perception of uncertainty and social costs associated with information-seeking, (b) the type of information sought (i.e., referent-requirements, appraisal-success, relational-relationships with other organization members), (c) sources of information (i.e., co-worker or supervisor), (d) information-seeking tactics employed (i.e., indirect or overt questioning, observing, third parties, testing limits, disguising conversations, surveillance), (e) the individual's level of role conflict or ambiguity, and (f) numerous context or individual

differences. The investigations within this section examine some of the available research pertaining to newcomer information-seeking during the organizational entry process.

Comer (1991) begins our look at newcomer information-seeking behaviors by examining the types of information (i.e., technical or social) newcomers seek from their co-workers as well as the methods of information acquisition. As part of Comer's first investigation, junior staff members of a service organization ($N = 30$) participated in semi-structured interviews. The researcher questioned the type of information newcomers sought from their peers, whether information-seeking occurs as an active (i.e., newcomer initiates information acquisition), passive (co-worker offers information), implicit (i.e., assumed understanding) or explicit (i.e., verbal explanation provided) process, and whether a relationship exists between type of information sought and channel used (i.e., active explicitly, passive explicitly, or implicitly). The results of the first investigation suggest newcomers seek both technical and social information from their co-workers. The newcomers participating in this investigation sought information employing all of the channels (i.e., active explicit, passive explicit, and implicit) though technical information was the highest sought form of information using the active explicit information channel (Comer, 1991). Organizational newcomers sought social information more evenly across the three organizational information channels examined as part of the investigation.

Comer's (1991) second investigation further refined the researchers desire to understand information source-content relationships utilizing a sample of 73 organization members from 15 different professional organizations (i.e., communication, education, financial, service, manufacturing, and research and development). The sample generated

73 usable questionnaires from six different professional organizations. Again, the researcher questioned the content and/or type of information newcomers sought from peers along with the channel of acquisition. Extending the line of research Comer also sought to determine if organizational size, type of organization, position within the organization, or experience levels influenced newcomer information-seeking behaviors.

Research findings from the second investigation confirmed newcomers acquire both technical and social information from their co-workers (Comer, 1991). Overall, study participants acquired more information through active explicit communication channels. In addition, newcomers felt better about their utilization of explicit communication channels.

Similar to Comer's first investigation, findings from the second investigation suggest more technical information acquisition occurred through active explicit channels while social information was again garnered more evenly across the three channels. While organizational size did not affect the type and channel of information sought by organizational newcomers participating in this investigation, there were differences found in three areas (a) content and occupation, (b) information content, channel, and type of organization, and (c) newcomer experience level and information content. Dependent upon newcomers' occupations (clerical, management, professional, technical, or administrative), they may place different levels of emphasis, importance, and need for technical and social information. In addition, occupation affected the channel of information acquisition. Likewise, the organization entered by the individuals also affected their emphasis placed on gathering technical or social information and the channel utilized. For example, individuals entering financial organizations sought more

technical information than individuals entering manufacturing and educational organizations. Finally, the individual's level of experience upon organizational entry affected information-seeking behaviors. Namely, individuals with more experience sought less overall information (Comer, 1991).

Utilizing a sample of college students ($N = 151$) and a longitudinal study design, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) continued investigating the content and sources of information sought by organizational newcomers. The researchers desired to understand whether newcomers acquired information in four content areas (a) task (i.e., duties), (b) role (i.e., responsibilities and boundaries of the position), (c) group (i.e., co-worker relational information), and (d) organizational (i.e., organizational power, politics, values, etc) from one of three sources (i.e., co-workers, supervisors, or observation). Ostroff and Kozlowski put forward the source and type of information changes overtime. In addition, Ostroff and Kozlowski theorized relationships among information source, knowledge developed and newcomer commitment, satisfaction, intention to leave, and stress. Finally, the researchers hypothesized each source of information will have a specific level of usefulness to the newcomer.

Similar to Comer's (1991) finding of different informational channels used by newcomers during organizational entry, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found newcomers acquired information from different sources. Overall, new organizational member sought information through observation and interpersonal sources. When seeking information pertaining to duties (i.e., task content) and position responsibilities (i.e., role content), newcomers relied on supervisors, co-workers, observation, and trying relatively equally. Regardless of content area organizational newcomers did not place great emphasis on

seeking information from organizational manuals. Relational information acquisition occurred through co-workers, observation, and supervisors respectively. Newcomers gathered information pertaining to politics, power, and values through observation. At the beginning of their organizational experience newcomers focused on the collection of group (i.e., relational information), task (i.e., duties), and role (i.e., responsibilities and role boundaries) information. Later in the socialization process information collection focus shifted to the collection of role (i.e., responsibilities and boundaries), group (i.e., relational), and organization (i.e., organizational politics, power, values). Finally, study results suggest the importance of the supervisor in the information acquisition process. Specifically, more information gathered from the newcomer's supervisor resulted in greater perceptions of organizational satisfaction and commitment. In addition, obtaining more information from supervisors also decreased the newcomers desire to exit the organization (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Using a sample composed solely of newcomers entering accounting firms ($N = 205$) Morrison (1993) continued investigating information seeking during organizational entry examining relationships between content, source, and organizational outcomes. In addition to determining relationships among information-seeking behaviors, satisfaction, and intention to leave, the researcher added a third organizational outcome, performance. Morrison's proposed content areas included (a) technical information (i.e., position related information), (b) referent information (i.e., roles and expectations), (c) normative information (i.e., organizational behaviors), (d) performance (i.e., How am I doing?), and (e) social feedback (i.e., How am I fitting in?). Avenues for newcomer information

acquisition included inquiry or observing. Potential information sources included peers or supervisors.

Research findings again suggest a shift in information-seeking content focus as newcomers' tenure with the organization lengthens. Namely, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) found a shift from collecting group (i.e., relational), task (i.e., duties), and role (i.e., position boundaries) information at the beginning of the socialization process to collecting role (i.e., position boundaries), group (i.e., relational) and organizational (i.e., organizational politics and power) information at the end of the socialization process. Similarly, Morrison (1993) found that new organization members reduced their acquisition of organizational behavior (i.e., normative) information and social feedback (i.e., how am I fitting in) while increasing their efforts to seek information pertaining to roles and expectations (i.e., referent information) as well as performance (i.e., how am I doing) information. Again, information acquisition efforts shift from efforts to acquire relational information to efforts to seek job related information. However, Morrison suggested overall new organization members seek less technical information as their tenure with the organization increases.

Morrison's (1993) findings also suggest information-seeking behaviors again relate to positive organizational outcomes. While Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) linked amount of information sought from the newcomer's supervisor to increased satisfaction, organizational commitment, and decreased intention to exit the organization Morrison linked information-seeking frequency to positive organizational outcomes. Explicitly, increases in information-seeking behaviors equated to increases in newcomer satisfaction, performance, and decreased intention to leave. All five types of information (i.e.,

technical, referent, normative, performance, and social feedback) positively associated with satisfaction and decreases in intention to leave the organization. Conversely, social feedback did not positively associate with performance while the other content area positively associated with newcomer performance.

Chao et al. (1994) contribute to our understanding of information-seeking during organizational entry furthering the idea that organizational socialization involves newcomer learning within specific content areas. Similar to content areas discussed in the research of Miller and Jablin (1991), Comer (1991), Morrison (1993), and Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992), newcomer knowledge acquisition during organizational entry focused on task, relationship, and organizational values, norms, and power structures. Chao et al. (1994) identified newcomer learning included seeking information focusing on performance proficiency (i.e., tasks associated with position), politics (i.e., organizational power structures), language (or jargon), people, organizational goals and values, and history. Including three types of organization members within their sample (i.e., organizational incumbents, individuals who changed position with the organization, and individuals who changed both position and organization), the researchers sought to understand the effects of role changes on organizational socialization learning content areas.

Using a three-phase longitudinal study design, the researchers sampled recent college graduates employed in full-time professional positions. Research findings suggest organizational incumbents made knowledge gains in their understanding of performance proficiency, organizational language, people or relationships, organizational goals, values, politics, and history. From these results, the researchers concluded as organization

members mature within their position, the socialization process continues. Likewise, the researchers concluded that decreases in knowledge pertaining to performance proficiency, organization language (or jargon), and history suggest, even when organization members transfer position within the same organizations, a resocialization process begins (Chao et al., 1994).

Studies (Comer, 1991; Morrison, 1994; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) thus far have examined information-seeking behaviors investigating content-source relationships and links among information-seeking behaviors and organizational outcomes (i.e., commitment, satisfaction, performance, and intention to leave). Teboul (1995) examined the role of individual characteristics (i.e., self-esteem and ambiguity tolerance), perceived social costs associated with information-seeking, and organization actions (i.e., social support and socialization tactics) in an individual's propensity to use overt or covert information-seeking tactics.

Proposing five hypotheses the researcher theorized newcomers' self-esteem positively associated with their use of overt information-seeking strategies while inversely relating with their likelihood to gather information using observation, indirect questioning, or third parties. Teboul proposed similar relationships among newcomer ambiguity tolerance and perceptions of social costs associated with information-seeking. Additionally, the researcher suggested a relationship exists among newcomer perceptions of social support, perceived costs associated with gathering information, and socialization tactics.

Research findings suggest when newcomers perceive high social costs associated with information-seeking behaviors, their likelihood to use overt information-seeking

strategies decreases as evident by the inverse relationship between social costs and over information-seeking strategies (Teboul, 1995). Similarly, organizational newcomers will be more likely to select covert information-seeking tactics when perceived social cost seems high. The research findings support a positive relationship between perceived social costs and utilization of indirect question, third parties, observation, and other forms of covert information-seeking strategies. In addition, newcomer social support acts to mitigate the perceived social costs associated with information-seeking behaviors, as an inverse relationship exists between newcomer social support and perceived costs associated with information-seeking behaviors. In terms of relationships between perceived social costs and organizational socialization tactics employed, research findings suggest individualized socialization tactics increase organizational newcomer perceptions of social costs associated with their information-seeking behaviors. Teboul (1995) concludes the absence of newcomer social support in situations where organizations utilized individualized socialization tactics may thwart newcomer information-seeking behavior.

The final investigation presented as part of this subsection examines the role of social relationships in the socialization of organizational newcomers. Morrison (2002) investigated the relationships among newcomer social network member diversity, status or position within the organization, connectedness, network size and the organizational socialization outcomes of role clarity, organizational knowledge, and organizational commitment. Again utilizing a homogenous sample composed of first year accountants ($N = 154$), Morrison found several important relationships between newcomer social networks and organizational socialization outcomes.

Two distinctions existed in the areas of network size, diversity, and connectedness. Namely, organizational newcomer with larger more diverse social networks gained a greater understanding of the overall organization (Morrison, 2002). Conversely, organization members with smaller, interconnected social networks developed a greater sense of role clarity and specific task mastery. Also, organizational commitment enhancement occurred when newcomers developed social networks that placed them in contact with organization members from varying levels and departments within the organization.

These investigations suggest the importance of newcomer information-seeking behaviors during organizational entry and subsequent socialization. Research findings suggest organization newcomers collect organizational information from numerous sources (Comer, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) as well as various content areas (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). The focus of organization newcomer early information-seeking behaviors centers on relational (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) or organizational normative information (Morrison, 1993), later shifting to role and task related information (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) as well as performance proficiency and organizational politics (Chao et al., 1994). Teboul's (1995) research highlights the importance of social support during the information-seeking process as organization newcomers evaluate the costs associated with various information-seeking strategies. Researchers (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) have also found positive relationships among information-seeking behaviors and valued organizational outcomes (i.e., commitment, decreased intention to leave, and satisfaction). Table 9 summarizes the study findings presented within this subsection.

Table 9

Newcomer Information-seeking and Organizational Entry

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Comer (1991)	30	Inductive	Technical & social
	73	Descriptive Statistics	information sought Three sources utilized Technical information explicit sources Social information even across sources Organizational size no affect Newcomer experience effects information-seeking behavior

Table 9 (continued)

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Ostroff & Kozlowski (1992)	151	Repeated Measures ANOVAs	Multiple information sources used More information from supervisor equals increased satisfaction, commitment, decreased intention to leave Task & role information sources include supervisor, co-worker, observation, and trying equally Relational information from co-workers, observation, supervisors Organizational information from observation of others

Table 9 (continued)

Researchers	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Morrison (1993)	205	Correlation	Technical & task information
		Hierarchical	sought more often
		Regression	Increased information-seeking equaled increases in satisfaction performance, decreases in intention to quit
Chao et al.	594	Repeated	Six content areas identified
(1994)	597	Measures	Incumbents continued
	182	MANOVAS	socialization process
		Correlation	Some socialization occurs
		Hierarchical	when transfer position within
		Regression	organization
Teboul (1995)	201	Chi-Square	High social cost equal
		Goodness of	overt information-seeking
		Fit Index	decreases
		Adjusted	Social support mitigates
		Goodness	relationship between
		Fit Index	social costs and information-seeking behaviors

Table 9 (continued)

Researchers	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Morrison (2002)	154	Correlation	Large diverse social networks
		Regression	equal increased organization knowledge, smaller interconnected social networks equal increased task mastery & role clarity, diverse social networks equal increased commitment

Organizational and Newcomer Actions

Investigations (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Black, 1992; Jones 1986; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005) presented thus far have examined how the efforts of the organization effect socialization outcomes. Investigators have also examined the influence of the individual's (Chao et al., 1994; Comer, 1991; Morrison, 1993; Morrison, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Teboul, 1995) action on the achievement of desired socialization outcomes. These studies have examined each variable (i.e., organizational actions and individual actions) in relation to desired socialization outcomes (i.e., role clarity, task mastery, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, reduced intention to

leave) separately. In this subsection, researchers (Copper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Kim et al., 2005; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995) begin to examine the combined influence of individual and organizational actions on newcomer socialization outcomes.

Addressing the combined influence of individual and organizational actions on socialization outcomes Mignerey et al., (1995) examined specific relationships among socialization tactics, communicative behaviors, and socialization outcomes employing a perspective focusing on communication. As part of the research project, Mignerey et al. proposed a model of entry-related communication. This model combines both organizational and individual actions as part of a process that influences socialization outcomes. The proposed entry-related communication model includes three variables (i.e., communication antecedents, communication behaviors, and communication outcomes). The first group of variables, communication antecedents, was defined by the researchers as input variables. From the organization's perspective, these variables included individualized or institutionalized socialization tactics. Individual input variables included communication traits, i.e., communication apprehension and assertiveness, valuing feedback (i.e., collecting performance feedback improves ability to achieve goals), and critical involvement behaviors (i.e., newcomer attempts to modify organizational roles). The second set of variables, communication behaviors, represented the model's process variables. These variables included information and feedback seeking as well as critical involvement behaviors. The final variables, communication outcomes, included (a) newcomer role orientation and organizational commitment, (b) communication satisfaction, and (c) role ambiguity and attributional confidence.

Utilizing a sample composed of newly employed college students and first time workers ($N = 306$), Mignerey et al. (1995) collected data over a 3- month period utilizing a questionnaire. Six research questions sought to examine (a) if organizational socialization tactics influence socialization outcomes and/or newcomer communicative behaviors, (b) if communicative traits influence newcomer behaviors during entry and/or socialization outcomes, and (c) what influence does information or feedback seeking and/or critical involvement behaviors have on socialization outcomes. Research findings imply both organizational actions and some individual actions influence socialization outcomes.

Similar to early research investigations (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986), reporting beneficial relationships between socialization tactics and socialization outcomes, Mignerey et al. (1995) found relationships among socialization tactics employed and role orientation, organizational commitment, and communication satisfaction. Specifically, when organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, organizational newcomers reported increases in information and feedback-seeking behaviors that resulted in greater role orientation. Institutionalized socialization tactics also directly related to increased newcomer organizational commitment, role orientation, communication satisfaction, attributional confidence (i.e., newcomers' ability to predict supervisor's attitudes).

In terms of individual characteristics that influenced socialization outcomes, critical involvement attitudes resulted in increased critical involvement behaviors, equaling increased newcomer role orientation (Mignerey et al., 1995). However, other individual communication behaviors (i.e., value of feedback, communication traits) did

not have a direct relationship to role orientation. Rather newcomer value of feedback and communication traits contributed to increased information- and feedback- seeking behaviors, resulting in increased newcomer role orientation indirectly. Newcomer value of feedback also increased newcomer perceptions of organizational commitment, but did not affect newcomer communication satisfaction. A direct relationship occurred among newcomer communication traits and role ambiguity. Coupled with the direct relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and role ambiguity, Mignerey et al. (1995) concluded, "More assertive employees who received training know what they are supposed to do in their position" (p. 73). Finally, newcomer value of feedback and critical involvement attitudes increased information- and feedback- seeking behaviors, which in turn increased newcomer attributional confidence. This finding suggests newcomers who valued performance feedback and actively shaped their new roles felt more confident predicting their supervisor's attitudes.

Two additional research investigations (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Kim, et al., 2005) continued to examine relationships among organizational actions, individual actions, and socialization outcomes. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson utilized a sample ($N = 214$) composed of British Army recruits examining information acquisition, socialization tactic (i.e., institutionalized tactics), and socialization outcomes. The researchers sought to explore associations among (a) socialization tactic, recruit information-seeking behaviors, and attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit) and (b) information content and recruit attitudes. The researchers also questioned whether information acquisition acted to mediate the

relationship between new recruit perceptions of socialization tactics employed and recruit attitudes.

Research findings suggest positive relationships between institutionalized socialization tactics and recruit knowledge pertaining to social, interpersonal, organizational, and role content areas (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Similar to the positive associations among institutionalized socialization tactics and organizational outcomes reported by other researchers (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986), findings also support positive associations between institutionalized socialization tactics and socialization outcomes. Namely, institutionalized socialization tactics utilized by the British Army predicted new recruit job satisfaction and commitment. Likewise, recruit information acquisition also predicted new recruit job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. Findings also indicated recruit information acquisition mediated the relationship between socialization outcomes and institutional tactics as information acquisition accounted for an additional 14% more variance in recruit organizational commitment and job satisfaction than socialization tactic alone. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) conclude their research findings suggesting socialization tactic, as well as newcomer learning, contribute to socialization outcomes, suggesting socialization represents a learning process.

Kim et al. (2005) continue the investigation of organizational socialization actions and newcomer actions examining yet another outcome of organizational socialization. Specifically, Kim et al. (2005) examined the relationships between socialization tactics and P-O fit utilizing a sample composed of South Korean organizational newcomers and their supervisors ($N = 279$). The investigation examines the role each individual plays in

achieving socialization outcomes by examining the influence of newcomer positive framing, sense making, and relationship building (i.e., proactivity) in organizational socialization. Research hypotheses advocate (a) institutionalized socialization as proposed by Jones (1986) [i.e., *collective, formal, sequential, fixed, serial*, and *investiture*] facilitated P-O fit, and (b) organizational newcomer proactivity (i.e., positive framing, relationship building, and sense making) will moderate relationships between P-O fit and socialization tactics.

Research findings support a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and a newcomer's perceptions of P-O fit (Kim et al., 2005). Hence, utilization of institutionalized tactics helped facilitate newcomer perceptions of organization-organizational member value congruence. This finding suggests another beneficial outcome associated with institutionalized socialization tactics as previous research has already linked these tactics to increased job satisfaction, commitment, and reduced intention to quit (Jones, 1986), as well as reductions in role ambiguity, role conflict, and stress symptoms (Ashford & Saks, 1996).

In terms of the moderating effects of individual behaviors during the socialization process, newcomer efforts to positively frame their socialization process effect the relationship between socialization tactic and P-O fit. In this instance, when newcomers positively framed their participation in organizational socialization, they experienced greater P-O fit perceptions than those who negatively framed their socialization experience. Kim et al. (2005) predicted increased sense making would weaken the effects of institutionalized socialization tactics on newcomer P-O fit perceptions. This relationship was not supported by research findings. Finally, research findings suggest

newcomer proactive behavior and relationship building moderated the effects of institutionalized socialization tactics in two manners. First, when newcomers engage in general socializing this proactive behavior enhanced the relationship between P-O fit perceptions and socialization tactics. Secondly, as newcomers proactively build relationships with their supervisor the link between institutional socialization tactics and perceptions of P-O fit decreased. Overall, Kim et al. (2005) suggest the importance of these findings stem from the apparent implication that organizations do not have complete control over organizational socialization outcomes as newcomer behaviors also moderate the relationship between socialization tactics and some organizational outcomes (i.e., P-O fit).

The researchers (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Kim et al., 2005; Mignerey et al., 1995) demonstrate both organizational actions and actions taken by each newcomer contribute to the achievement of organizational socialization outcomes. Similar to the works of Allen and Meyer (1990a), Ashford and Saks (1996) and Jones (1986) institutionalized socialization tactics contribute to desired organizational outcomes (i.e., increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and role orientation). The works of Mignerey et al. (1995), Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002), and Kim et al. (2005) also suggest the actions of each organization newcomer, in tandem with the socialization tactics employed by each organization, contribute to the attainment of desired socialization outcomes.

Kim et al. (2005) determined that in addition to the positive associations between institutionalized socialization tactics and P-O fit, newcomers who positively frame their socialization experience increased their perceived P-O fit. In addition, when newcomers

actively socialize or build relationships, they also enhance their P-O fit perceptions.

Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) suggest individual learning in several content areas accounts for additional variance in newcomer job satisfaction and organizational commitment in addition to increases in these areas related to institutionalized socialization tactics. Finally, Mignerey et al. (1995) found newcomer critical involvement attitudes and behaviors, assertiveness, and newcomer emphasis on performance feedback positively associate with role orientation, organizational commitment, and decreases in role ambiguity. Table 10 summarizes the research findings presented within this section.

Table 10

Organization and Individual Actions

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Finding
Mignerey et al. (1995)	306	Multiple Regression	Institutionalized tactics increased role orientation, organization commitment, communication satisfaction, information- and feedback- seeking behaviors Critical involvement attitudes increase critical involvement behaviors, in turn increasing role orientation Communication traits and socialization associate with role ambiguity

Table 10 (continued)

Organization and Individual Actions

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Finding
Cooper-Thomas et al. (2002)	752	Correlation	Institutionalized socialization
	314	Multiple	tactics predict job
	214	Regression	satisfaction, commitment
			Information acquisition
			predicts job satisfaction
			and commitment
			Information acquisition
			accounts for additional
			variance in organization
			commitment and
			job satisfaction
Kim et al. (2005)	279	Hierarchical	Institutionalized socialization
		Multiple	tactics increases P-O fit
		Regression	Positively framing
			socialization experience
			increases P-O fit
			perceptions

Table 10 (continued)

Organization and Individual Actions

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Finding
Kim et al. (2005)			<p>Relationship building through general socialization enhances P-O fit perceptions</p> <p>Relationship with boss decreases correlation between socialization tactic and P-O fit perceptions</p>

Investigations presented thus far have demonstrated that unpaid and paid organization members have both similarities and difference in motivation (Pearce, 1983), organizational commitment (Liao-Troth, 2001; Newton, 1995), and intention to leave the organization (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999). Researchers have also provided instruments and measures of volunteer motivation (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996; Cnaan & Goldberg, 1991; Eley & Kirk, 1996; Finkelstein et al., 2005; Strigas & Jackson, 2003). Investigations utilizing these instruments suggest various motivations behind an individual's impetus to participate in volunteer activities include opportunities to (a) feel better (Cnaan & Goldberg, 1991), (b) develop skills (Clary et al., 1996), and

(c) develop social ties (Clary et al., 1996; Eley & Kirk, 1996), to name a few.

Researchers (Becker & Dhingra, 2001; Clary et al., 1998; Eley & Kirk, 2002; Nelson et al., 2004) have also recommended designing and marketing volunteer experiences to facilitate a good match between a volunteer's motivation and the volunteer experience. As organizational entry provides an opportunity for both the organization and the volunteer to examine such matches, the literature began to examine organizational socialization.

Organizational socialization research focuses on both organizational and individual actions taken as part of the socialization process. Researchers have investigated socialization tactics and their subsequent outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks 1996; Black, 1991; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Jones, 1986). These investigations suggest different tactics produced different organizational and individual outcomes. Namely, institutionalized socialization tactics facilitate (a) decreases in role ambiguity and role conflict (Ashford & Saks, 1996), (b) produce status quo role orientations (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones 1986) and enhance P-O fit (Kim et al., 2005).

Researchers also focused on socialization content and information-seeking behaviors of organizational newcomers. These investigations revealed organization newcomers seek information from various sources (Comer, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992). In addition, the investigations determined numerous information content areas (Chao et al., 1994; Comer, 1991; Morrison, 1993). Finally, links among information-seeking and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to leave were established (Morrison, 1993; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

The final organizational socialization subsection examined the socialization process from a perspective that organizational, and individual, actions contribute to the achievement of desired socialization outcomes. These investigations inform our understanding of organizational socialization by demonstrating both organization and individual actions effect the socialization process and subsequent organizational, or individual, outcomes. Kim et al. (2005) determined institutionalized socialization tactics, as well as the newcomers' actions, such as positive framing and relationship building, enhance P-O fit. Cooper-Thomas and Anderson (2002) suggest individual learning in several content areas increases newcomer perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment beyond the positive associations between institutionalized socialization tactics and these organizational socialization outcomes. Finally, Mignerey et al. (1995) found in addition to relationships between socialization tactics and role orientation, organizational commitment and role ambiguity, and individual characteristics (i.e., critical involvement attitudes and behaviors, newcomer emphasis of feedback information) also positively associated with role orientation, organizational commitment, and decreases in role ambiguity. The remaining sections of the literature review provide literature that examines desired organizational socialization outcomes and organizational culture.

Organizational Fit

Chatman (1989) posits that P-O fit “Is defined as the congruence between the norms and values of the organization and the values of persons” (p. 339). P-O fit contrasts values of the individual with the values of the organization, focusing on how the two value systems affect behaviors and attitudes of organization members (Chatman,

1991). The investigations presented within this section examine relationships between P-O fit and organization outcomes. Researchers (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991) have examined relationships between P-O fit and intention to leave and job satisfaction. Other variables associated with P-O fit included organizational commitment (Cable & Judge, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), socialization tactics (Cable & Parsons, 2001), and organizational attraction (Rentsch & McEwen, 2003). Researchers (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Westerman & Cyr, 2004) have also examined multiple dimensions of organizational member fit. Samples selected for these investigations range from students (Cable & Judge, 1996; Cable & Parsons, 2001; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Rentsch & McEwen, 2003) to professionals with backgrounds in accounting (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), education (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2002), telecommunications (Cable & DeRue, 2002), and sales (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Using longitudinal study designs the researchers found many positive benefits associated with P-O fit or congruence between organization and organizational member values. This section presents research related to organizational fit relevant to organizational socialization and organizational outcomes.

P-O Fit and Organizational Outcomes

Six research investigations (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2002; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Westerman & Cyr, 2004), presented within this subsection, examine the effects of P-O fit on organization member job satisfaction. Chatman (1991) utilized a sample of new accounts ($N = 171$) to examine relationships between organizational fit and job satisfaction, socialization, and intent to leave the firm. With regard to organizational entry, the researcher hypothesized four

variables positively associate with P-O fit. Specifically, newcomers who spend time with existing organization members prior to entry, possess traits of successful organization members, have multiple position offers at their entry, and who join a firm with a high acceptance rate have higher P-O fit at organizational entry. Chatman also posited after the newcomer's first year with the firm, social interactions with existing organization members, mentoring, and formal training all positively affect P-O fit. Finally, the researcher suggests P-O fit will positively relate to job satisfaction and decrease the newcomer's intention to leave the firm.

Research findings support many of the hypothesized relationships between P-O fit and socialization, job satisfaction, and intention to leave the organization. New accountants who spend time with organization members prior to their entry indicated this experience positively associated with P-O fit at organizational entry. Similarly, positive associations were found between new accountants who possess comparable achievement and confidence traits as their existing organization members P-O fit. Newcomer P-O fit was not positively associated with the number of position offers at time of entry or firm acceptance rates. Increased newcomer opportunities to interact with experienced members and mentoring opportunities positively related to newcomer P-O fit. Socialization enhanced P-O fit after entry and accounted for changes in P-O fit within the first year with the organization. Positive organization outcomes associated with newcomer P-O fit included increases in job satisfaction and decreases in intention to leave the firm as P-O fit increased.

O'Reilly et al. (1991) continued investigating the relationships between P-O fit and other organization outcomes expanding the investigation by adding two additional

variables, organizational commitment and turnover. Of equal importance, the researchers developed the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) to assess P-O fit. The OCP utilizes 54 value statements in the assessment of organizational and individual values. To assess each value preference (i.e., individual or organization), respondents complete the instrument focusing on individual value preferences or value preferences prevalent within the organization's culture.

Utilizing five separate samples, the researchers collected data from two groups of M.B.A. students ($N = 131$ and $N = 93$), new accountants ($N = 171$), CPAs ($N = 96$), and managers ($N = 730$). The researchers sought to validate the instrument as well as determine relationships among P-O fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover, and intention to leave.

Findings suggest P-O fit associates with several advantageous organization outcomes. Similar to Chatman's (1991) findings, P-O fit positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to organization member intention to leave (O'Reilly et al., 1991). When P-O fit increased, perceptions of job satisfaction increased while intention to leave the organization decreased. Additionally, P-O fit also negatively related to organizational member turnover. As a result, when P-O fit increased organization turnover decreased. O'Reilly et al. (1991) also found a positive relationship between P-O fit and obligation to continue service with the organization (i.e., normative commitment); hence, as P-O fit increases so does the individual's feelings of an obligation to continue working for the organization. Finally, research findings support the emergence of eight organizational culture characterizations including (a) innovation and risk taking, (b) attention to detail, (c) orientation toward outcomes or results, (d) aggressiveness and

competitiveness, (e) supportiveness, (f) emphasis on growth and rewards, (g) collaboration and team orientation, and (h) decisiveness. Of the eight organizational culture categorizations, seven associate with individual personality traits. The loading of organizational traits on eight distinct organizational culture categories and subsequent loading of individual personality traits on seven of eight organizational culture characterizations led the researchers to conclude the “OCP can provide a reasonable mapping of organizational culture” (O’Reilly et al., 1991, p. 504).

Using a modified version of the O’Reilly et al. (1991) OCP, Cable and Judge (1996) sought to determine the organizational consequences associated with job seeker and new organization member subjective P-O fit perceptions. The researchers questioned whether value congruence or demographic similarities contributed to P-O fit perceptions of this group. In turn, they questioned if job seekers' P-O fit perception enhanced P-O fit at organizational entry. Finally, the researchers questioned whether organization members with greater P-O fit perceptions also experienced increases in organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as decreases in intention to leave the organization. In addition, would greater employee P-O fit perceptions contribute to the employee’s likelihood to recommend the organization to their peers?

Collecting data from two groups of job seekers ($N = 320$ and $N = 96$) and one sample of former job seekers ($N = 68$), Cable and Judge (1996) found several important outcomes associated with job seeker and newcomer P-O fit perceptions. First, job seeker perceptions of individual-organization value congruence, rather than demographic variable similarities between individual and organization, contribute to the job seekers P-

O fit perceptions. Job seeker P-O fit perceptions subsequently affect job choice as well as the individual's perception of P-O fit at entry.

Similar to the findings of others (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991) organization-individual value congruence contributed to enhanced job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and decreases in intention to leave the organization. Namely, Cable and Judge (1996) found organization members perceiving greater P-O fit also experienced increased satisfaction and organizational commitment. The same individuals also report decreases in their intention to leave the organization. Additionally, P-O fit perceptions also related to the newcomer's willingness to recommend the organization to peers such that individuals with greater P-O fit report an increased willingness to recommend the organization.

Thus far, researchers have examined associations between P-O fit and organizational commitment (Cable & Judge, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991), job satisfaction (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), intention to leave, and willingness to recommend the organization to peers (Cable & Judge, 1996). Other investigators (Erdogan, et al., 2002; Haug, Cheng, & Choa, 2005) examined similar relationships while also seeking to determine various mediating relationships between the variables. In the first investigation, examining potential moderating variables in the relationship between P-O fit and other organizational variables, Erdogan et al. (2002) explored the effect of leader member exchange (LMX) on the relationship among P-O fit and job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

The underlying assumption for the moderating effects of LMX lies in the positive influence of the leader's actions. For instance, leaders distribute intrinsic and extrinsic

rewards which positively relate to organization member attitudes. Therefore, in situations with low P-O fit, high LMX may positively relate to job or career satisfaction and organizational commitment. Likewise, leader actions/involvement may provide a supportive environment facilitating organization member assimilation, thereby compensating for low P-O fit and enhancing job or career satisfaction and commitment (Erdogan et al., 2002).

Again, researchers utilized the O'Reilly et al. (1991) OCP instrument to assess organization and individual value preferences. Research findings support several of the proposed moderating relationships between the variables. In instances when organization members indicate low LMX, P-O fit enhanced organization members job satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2002). However, when organization members indicate high LMX, P-O fit did not positively associate with job satisfaction. A similar relationship existed among LMX, P-O fit, and career satisfaction. Research findings also contradict O'Reilly et al. (1991) and Cable and Judge (1996) suggesting a positive relationship existed between P-O fit and organizational commitment as only LMX predicted organizational commitment. The researchers suggest the investigation's findings extend our understanding of P-O fit and LMX by demonstrating how the two variables compensate for deficits in each other.

Continuing to examine leadership and P-O fit, Huang et al. (2005) investigated the relationships among CEO charismatic leadership, P-O fit, organization member satisfaction with the CEO, organizational commitment, and extra effort to work. Using four research hypotheses the researchers proposed CEO charismatic leadership positively influenced organization members' extra effort to work, organizational commitment, P-O fit, and satisfaction with the CEO. Likewise, the researchers theorized organization

member P-O fit also enhanced extra effort to work, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with the CEO. Finally, Huang et al. proposed P-O fit functioned as the mediating variable influencing the effects of CEO leadership on the other variables.

Utilizing a sample composed of staff members ($N = 129$) and managers ($N = 51$) from top 500 companies in Taiwan, research findings supported the proposed hypothesis. Similar to O'Reilly et al. (1991) and Cable and Judge (1996), research findings indicate a positive relationship between P-O fit and organizational commitment; hence, congruence between organizational values and individual organizational values enhance the individual's organizational commitment. P-O fit also enhanced organization members' CEO satisfaction and extra effort to work (Huang et al., 2005). CEO charismatic leadership also positively influenced organization members' extra effort to work, organizational commitment, P-O fit, and satisfaction with the CEO. In addition, P-O fit mediated the relationship between CEO charismatic leadership and other variables though the researchers indicates the continued direct influence of CEO charismatic leadership on the other variables suggest P-O fit only partially mediates the relationship among charismatic leadership, extra effort to work, CEO satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

Collectively, the work of Erdogan et al. (2002) and Huang et al. (2005) provide insight into the combined influence of P-O fit and leadership behaviors. In one instance, LMX and P-O fit act to compensate for deficiencies in each other to positively affect organization member perceptions of career and job satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2002). P-O fit partially mediated the relationship among charismatic leadership and organizational

values or outcomes (Huang et al., 2005). The finding implies leadership behavior significantly influences organization member behaviors and attitudes.

As researchers continued examining the effects of P-O fit, their focus shifted to dimension of fit and the relationship to organization outcomes and/or organization member attitudes and behaviors. Four groups of researchers (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Careless, 2005; Rentsch & McEwen, 2004; Westerman & Cyr, 2004) examined the relationship among different types of organization-organization member fit and member behaviors/attitudes. In the first investigation, Cable and DeRue (2002) examined the relationships among P-O fit, demands-abilities fit, needs-supplies fit, organizational identification, employee organizational support perceptions, citizenship behaviors, and employee turnover. In this investigation, needs-supplies fit defined congruence between rewards supplied for employee services. On the other hand, demands-abilities fit defined congruence between employee abilities and the abilities required to fulfill job responsibilities or demands of the position.

As part of this investigation, four research hypotheses defined relations among the variables. The first hypothesis suggested organization members distinguish among the three types of fit. The remaining hypotheses suggested relationships between fit types and the organizational outcomes and/or employee behaviors or attitude. Using multiple samples composed of recent MBA graduates ($N = 258$) and telecommunications professionals ($N = 215$), the researchers distributed two surveys one year apart. Both surveys collected demographic information and assessed fit perceptions (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Research findings suggest organization members distinguish among three different types of organizational fit including (a) values congruence or P-O fit, (b) needs-supplies fit, and (c) demands-abilities fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Additionally, research findings support hypotheses suggesting organization-organization member fit associates with distinct organization member attitudes and behaviors. P-O fit or value congruence predicts organization member citizenship behaviors and turnover decisions. Likewise, needs-supplies fit or congruence between rewards supplied for employee services predicts both organization member job and career satisfaction. In opposition, demands-abilities fit did not predict any of the proposed organization member behaviors or attitudes (i.e., turnover, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, or occupational commitment).

Continuing to examine multiple dimensions of organization-individual fit, Westerman and Cyr (2004) assessed how three types of fit contribute to organization member job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to continue with the organization. The researchers proposed P-O fit positively affects the organization member's sense of satisfaction and organizational commitment. They proposed a similar relationship between the two variables and personality congruence and work environment fit. The researchers theorized each dimension of fit provides a unique influence on organization member attitudes. Finally, the researchers theorize organization member attitudes (i.e., satisfaction and commitment) mediate the relationship between organizational fit (i.e., P-O fit, work environment fit, and personality fit) and the individual's intention to continue their service with the organization. As part of this investigation, work-environment fit is similar to Cable and DeRue's (2002) definition of

needs-supplies fit or what Westerman and Cyr (2004) define as “Congruence between individual and environment characteristics” (p. 253).

Using a convenience sample of sales employees ($N = 105$), data collection occurred at two separate periods. Others (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2002; O'Reilly et al., 1991) have determined P-O fit positively relates with organization member job satisfaction. Westerman and Cyr (2004) confirm this positive relationship. As a result, one could conclude value congruence contributes to organization member satisfaction. Westerman and Cyr's work also concurs with the findings of others (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996; Erdogan et al., 2002; O'Reilly et al., 1991) who suggest a positive relationship also exists between P-O fit and organizational commitment.

A similar relationship occurred among organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and work environment congruence as work environment fit also positively associated with employee commitment and job satisfaction (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Westerman and Cyr's (2004) positive relationship between work environment congruence confirms Cable and DeRue's (2002) determination that needs-supply fit has positive outcomes particularly enhancing job and career satisfaction as well as occupational commitment. Research findings did not support a positive relationship between personality congruence and organization member satisfaction or organizational commitment.

In terms of mediating relationships between the variables, research findings support organization member commitment and job satisfaction mediating only the relationship between work environment fit and member intention to remain with the

organization. In the case of P-O fit and personality fit, both value congruence and personality congruence (i.e., newcomer personalities match the personalities of successful employees) related directly to the individual's intention to stay (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Other researchers including Chatman (1991) and O'Reilly et al. (1991), support a direct relationship between P-O fit and intention to stay. Collectively the research findings suggest as P-O fit increases, the organization member's intention to stay increases or as P-O fit increases, an organization member's intention to leave decreases. Concluding their investigation, Westerman & Cyr (2004) note "Values congruence was the most consistent and effective predictor of employee outcomes" (p. 258).

Linking fit dimensions to organizational attraction, Rentsch and McEwen (2002) used the concept of supplementary P-O fit or "The degree to which individuals possess attributes that are similar to those possessed by others in the environment" (p. 225) to determine if different dimensions of fit contribute to overall organization attraction. Using a sample composed of college students ($N = 108$) the researchers proposed the three different types of fit (i.e., personality, values, and goals) each contribute to an individual's sense of organization attraction. Three research hypotheses theorize an individual perceived greater organization attraction when current organization members possess personality, values, and goals similar rather than dissimilar to their own personality, values, and goals. The hypotheses also propose two types of fit (i.e., personality and values) play a larger role in an individual's perception of organization attraction.

Research findings support Rentsch and McEwen's (2002) hypothesis suggesting individuals perceive greater organizational attraction when their personality dimensions

(i.e., need for autonomy and need for dominance) were similar to current organization members as opposed to dissimilar to current organization members. In addition, research findings support that individuals perceive more organizational attraction when they perceive similarities with existing organization member's values (i.e., concern for others) and goals (i.e., prestige) rather than difference in these values. However, research findings did not support an emphasis of one dimension of fit (i.e., personality or values) over another to enhance or produce greater organizational attraction. The researchers conclude "An individual will be attracted to an organization if some level of P-O fit similarity exists, regardless of whether the point of comparison is a personality dimension (need), goal, or value" (p. 231).

In the final investigation, assessing different fit perceptions and potential organizational outcomes, Careless (2005) examined the influence of person -job fit (P-J fit) and P-O fit during the organizational entry process. Explicitly, the researcher examined the effects of potential organizational member subjective assessments of P-J fit (i.e., skill match between individual and position requirements), P-O fit (i.e., value congruence) and the individual's intention to begin working for the organization. Utilizing a sample composed of telecommunication company applicants ($N = 193$), the research collected data at four points during the interview process. Research hypotheses theorized organizational member assessments of P-J and P-O fit influence an individual's intention to accept a position at various points during the interview process. As such, applicant subjective assessments of fit perceptions (i.e., P-J fit and P-O fit) influence both intention to accept a position offer and actual position acceptance.

Research findings suggest potential organizational members subjective assessments of P-J and P-O fit influence applicant attraction to the organization as the position search begins to the mid-point of the selection process (Careless, 2005). However, applicant subjective assessments of each fit dimension play a different role in intention to accept the position and actual position acceptance as the interview process continues. Namely, as the interview process concludes only, potential organization member assessments of P-J fit, or skills match, influence the individual's intention to accept the position (Careless, 2005). On the other hand, the applicant's assessment of P-O fit, which related to intention to accept a potential position offer at the beginning to the mid-point of the selection process, did not influence an individual's decision to accept the position at the conclusion of the interview process. Findings also imply applicant organizational attraction mediates the relationship between fit and applicant position acceptance to some extent. Careless (2005) indicates research findings suggest an applicant's attraction to the organization moderates the relationship between P-J fit and acceptance at the mid-point of the selection process. However, at the conclusion of the selection process, only P-J fit influences the individual's decision to accept the position.

Collectively, the findings contained within these investigations (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Careless, 2005; Rentsch & McEwen, 2002; Westerman & Cyr, 2004) suggest in addition to P-O fit (i.e., organization-individual value congruence) other dimensions of fit also related to positive organization and individual outcomes. Specifically, Cable and DeRue (2002) found P-J fit also enhances organizational member perceptions of support and decreases organizational turnover. While value congruence represented the best predictor of organizational outcomes (Westerman & Cyr, 2004), Rentsch and McEwen

suggest an individual's attraction to an organization may stem from a general similarity between the individual and existing organization members rather than an emphasis on one specific type of fit.

The final investigation within this section suggests a relationship exists among organizational socialization tactics and newcomer P-O fit perceptions. Cable and Parsons (2001) used a longitudinal study design to examine the influence of socialization tactics (i.e., collective-individual, formal-informal, sequential-fixed, variable-random, serial-disjunctive, and serial-disjunctive) on newcomer perceptions of P-O fit differently. Utilizing a sample of college graduates ($N = 101$), the researchers collected data to test three research hypotheses.

The first hypothesis theorized organizational socialization tactics that separate newcomers from other organization members and provide common socialization experiences (i.e., collective and formal tactics) enhance newcomer subjective P-O fit perceptions. In addition, utilization of these tactics contributes to change in organization-newcomer value congruence. The second hypothesis proposed a positive relationship between P-O fit perceptions and organizational socialization tactics emphasizing precise knowledge and exact organizational advancement stages (i.e., fixed and sequential tactics) positively enhanced newcomer P-O fit perceptions. The researchers then theorized these tactics also contribute to changes in organization-newcomer value congruence. The final hypothesis suggests the utilization of experienced organization members and efforts to enhance existing newcomer skills, characteristics, and attitudes (i.e., serial and investiture tactics) positively influences P-O fit perceptions. Similarly, the tactics also contribute to changes in newcomer values (Cable & Parson, 2001).

Research findings provide mixed support for the proposed research hypotheses. For example, utilization of formal and collective socialization tactics did not enhance newcomer initial P-O fit perceptions. Additionally, these tactics did not significantly contribute to changes in newcomer P-O fit either. Thus, one could conclude separating newcomers from other organization members while providing a common socialization experience did not enhance organization-individual value congruence (Cable & Parson, 2001). However, when organizations employed socialization tactics that provided newcomers with precise knowledge and stages of organizational advancement (i.e., sequential and fixed tactics) and utilized experienced organization members as part of the socialization process while providing social support (i.e., serial and investiture tactics), newcomer P-O fit perceptions were enhanced. Likewise, these tactics also contributed to newcomer changes in P-O fit. Hence, newcomer values shift toward organizational values.

Cable and Parson (2001) conclude organizational socialization tactics contribute to both perceptions of value fit and changes in value fit. In addition, individual preferences or differences may contribute to the lack of relationship among collective tactics, formal tactics, and P-O fit perceptions. The researchers theorized individuals who do not feel comfortable in group settings may report reduced value fit while individuals who are comfortable in group settings may report greater value fit. Cable and Parson's (2001) failure to find a relationship among collective and formal socialization tactics contradicts the closing study presented in the organizational socialization subsection of Chapter II. In this investigation, Kim et al. (2005) found institutionalized socialization tactics enhance P-O fit perceptions.

The preceding section examined relationships among (a) P-O fit and organizational outcomes (job satisfaction and intent to leave) and (b) P-O fit and socialization tactics employed by the organization. Table 11 summarizes the research findings presented within this section.

Table 11

P-O fit Research Findings

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Chatman (1991)	171	Regression	Time with existing organization members before entry enhances P-O fit Similar characteristics (i.e., achievement, confidence) enhances P-O fit Social interaction and mentoring enhances P-O fit Socialization enhances P-O fit and facilitates shifts in P-O fit, P-O fit positively associates with increased job satisfaction and decreased intention to leave

Table 11 (continued)

P-O fit Research Findings

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
O'Reilly et al. (1991)	131 93 171 96 730	Regression	P-O fit positively relates to job satisfaction, negatively relates to intention to leave and turnover
Cable & Judge (1996)	320 96 68	Regression	P-O fit enhances job satisfaction organizational commitment decreases intention to leave Greater P-O fit perceptions increased peer recommendations of organization
Erdogan et al. 524 (2002)		Correlation Regression	P-O fit enhances job and career satisfaction when LMX is low, not in instances with high LMX Contradict others who found

Table 11 (continued)

P-O fit Research Findings

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
			positive relationship P-O fit and organizational commitment
Huang et al., (2005)	180	Correlation	P-O fit positively relates to organizational commitment, CEO satisfaction, and extra effort to work P-O fit partially mediates relationship between leadership and other variables
Cable & DeRue (2002)	215 258	Factor Analysis Regression	Distinguish different types of fit, P-O fit predicts citizenship behaviors and turnover Needs-supplies fit predicts career and job satisfaction

Table 11 (continued)

P-O fit Research Findings

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Westerman & Cyr (2004)	105	Correlation Regression	P-O fit positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, increases intention to stay
Rentsch & McEwen (2003)	108	Intercorrelation	Attracted to organizations similarities rather than differences
Careless (2005)	140	Regression	Assessments of fit play different roles in organizational entry process, P-J and P-O fit initially important, P-J important in decision to accept position

Table 11 (continued)

P-O fit Research Findings

Researcher	Sample	Analysis	Findings
Cable & Parson (2001)	101	Regression	Formal and collective socialization did not enhance P-O fit Sequential, fixed, serial and investiture socialization tactics enhanced initial fit and promoted changes in P-O fit

Researchers have demonstrated similarities and differences between paid and unpaid organization members in terms of organizational commitment (Liao-Troth, 2001; Newton, 1995), motivation (Pearce, 1993), and intention to leave (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999). They have also developed and tested assessments to gauge volunteer motivation (Clary et al., 1998; Clary et al., 1996; Canaan & Goldberg, 1991). From investigators seeking to understand why individuals participate in volunteer activities, we learned many seek to feel better (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991), develop skills (Clary et al., 1996), and socialize (Clary et al., 1996; Eley & Kirk, 1996), to name a few motivations. We have also seen that organizational socialization involves an intricate process of both organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Jones, 1986) and

individual (Comer, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) behaviors that effects future organizational member fit (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004), role orientation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashford and Saks, 1996; Jones 1986), and role conflict or ambiguity (Ashford & Saks, 1996).

A closer examination of organizational fit reveals organization members distinguish several types of fit (i.e., P-O fit, P-J fit, needs-supplies fit, demands-abilities fit) (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Careless, 2005; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Looking closer at P-O fit, researchers have determined P-O fit or organization-individual value congruence contributes to increased job satisfaction (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), organizational commitment, and decreased intention to leave (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991). We also learned that P-O fit interacts with other variables to enhance organizational member job and career satisfaction. For example, Erdogan et al. (2002) found in situations with low LMX, P-O fit positively effected job and career satisfaction, but did not positively associate with the variables when LMX was high. In the next section, we will examine research focusing on organizational commitment.

Organizational Commitment

Researchers have linked organization socialization tactics to increased newcomer organizational commitment. Namely, researchers have found institutionalized socialization tactics increase organization member commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Jones, 1986). Morrison (2002) found a relationship between organization member social network composition and organization member commitment. Specifically, organization members with diverse social networks report greater

organizational commitment. In addition, organization-organizational member value congruence (P-O fit) positively relates to organization member commitment (Huang et al., 2005; Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

This section further examines research focusing on organizational commitment. The investigations presented within provide definitions of organizational commitment as well as measures of commitment (Allen & Meyer 1990b; Buchanan, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). The researchers use samples composed of paid (Anderson, Martin, & Riddle, 2001; Finegan, 2000) and unpaid (Cuskelly & Boag 2001; Cuskelly, McIntyre, & Boag, 1998; Dailey, 1984) organization members to determine relationships between organizational commitment and other valued organizational outcomes.

Definitions and Measures of Organizational Commitment

In an investigation designed to determine the types of experiences that build organization member commitment, Buchanan (1974) defined commitment 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). As part of this definition, the researcher suggests commitment includes three components. These components include (a) identification (i.e., the organization members begin embracing the same values and/or goals championed by the organization), (b) involvement (i.e., organizational member engagement in their role), and (c) loyalty (i.e., the development of organizational attachment or affection).

Using a sample ($N = 278$) composed of government ($n = 5$) and Fortune 500 companies ($n = 3$), the researcher collected data in three stages (i.e., the initial year of membership, years 2 through 4, and after 5 or more years with the organization). The researcher reasoned each stage represented a distinct stage in organization membership in which organization members have different expectations, concerns, and drives. Differing stage characteristics potentially result in the establishment of organizational commitment through different processes.

Buchanan (1974) determined during the first year of organization membership three experiences accounted for 78% of the variance in organizational member commitment. These included group attitude toward the organization (i.e., peers express positive or negative feelings toward the organization), challenging opportunities (i.e., newcomers provided with interesting or challenging work versus uninteresting tasks), and loyalty conflict (i.e., organization forces values the newcomer finds distasteful). During the second stage of data collection, or organization membership of 2-4 years, five experiences accounted for 73% of the variance in organizational member commitment. The most important of these included experiences that reinforced an individual's sense of self or facilitated acceptance of who the organization member is and experiences that demonstrated the organization member's work was important. Similar to experiences facilitating organizational commitment during the first year of organization membership, job challenge and peer attitude toward the organization contributed to variance in organization member commitment during the second stage.

After 5 or more years of organization membership, four experiences contributed to organizational member commitment. Of these experiences, peer attitude toward the

organization predicted organizational commitment in all three stages. In addition, experiences that validated the organizational member's original expectations when entering the organization and an organizational expectation to be committed to the organization contributed to variance in organizational member commitment (Buchanan, 1974). Examining those experiences that contribute to organizational member commitment across the data collection stages, important experiences that contribute to organizational commitment included peer attitude and the provision of challenging tasks.

Other researchers also established a definition of organizational commitment. In an effort to address an existing gap in organizational commitment research, Mowday et al. (1979) developed an instrument to measure organizational commitment. For the purpose of their investigation, committed organization members (a) were willing to accept organizational values and goals as their own, (b) were willing to exert effort to accomplish organizational goals, and (c) possessed a desire to continue their membership with the organization. The instrument that resulted from their investigation, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), utilized a 7-point Likert scale to score 15 items.

Utilizing a sample ($N = 2563$) from nine different organizations (i.e., public service education, healthcare, and various business/commerce groups), the researchers established the predictive, convergent, and discriminant validities of the measure. Coefficient α and factor analysis provided the data supporting the measure's internal consistency as item alphas ranged from .84 to .90. In addition, factor analysis indicated the 15 items loaded on one factor. The researchers concluded this suggests commitment represents a single construct.

OCQ convergent validity establishment stems from relationships between commitment as measured by the OCQ and similar instruments, organization members behaviors (i.e., intent to leave, turnover), motivation, and consistency between organization members assessments of commitment and supervisor assessments of commitment. Significant relationships between these variables and the OCQ Mowday et al. (1979) to state the instrument had convergent validity. Of interest, commitment as measured by the OCQ negatively associated with study participants' intention to leave across professions (Mowday et. al., 1979). This finding suggests as organizational member commitment increased, their intention to leave decreased.

The instrument's discriminant validity assessment included examining relationships between commitment as measured by the OCQ and organizational member job involvement, as well as career and job satisfaction. Positive relationships existed between commitment as measured by the OCQ and study participant job involvement, career satisfaction, and measure of job satisfaction. Mowday et al. (1979) concluded sufficient evidence existed to support the measure's discriminant validity as organizational commitment measured by the OCQ related to these measures.

Finally, the OCQ's predictive validity was verified by evaluating the relationship among commitment as measured by the OCQ and organization member turnover, intention to leave, absenteeism, and performance. Mowday et al. (1979) concluded a significant relationship existed among these variables confirming the instrument's predictive validity. Of interest, Mowday et al. (1979) found a negative relationship between organizational commitment as measured by the OCQ and organizational member turnover. This relationship occurred across nine data points. Hence, as

organizational member commitment increased organizational turnover decreased. Future researchers (Anderson et al., 2001; Cuskelly & Boag, 200; Cuskelly et al., 1998;) would utilize the OCQ in their investigations of organizational commitment using samples consisting of paid and unpaid organization members.

Proposing a multi-dimension conceptualization of organizational commitment stemming from three underlying types of psychological attachment, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed and tested a measure examining three dimensions of organizational attachment underlying organizational member commitment. Conducting two investigations, the researchers sampled university staff and administration ($N = 82$) and graduating business students ($N = 162$). The researchers postulated organizational commitment "Is conceived of as the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization" (p. 493).

Garnering their components of attachment from literature focusing on factors affecting attitude change, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed that attachment stems from (a) compliance (i.e., attachment based on rewards derived from performance) (b) identification (i.e., attachment derived from a desire to affiliate with the organization), and (c) internalization (i.e., attachment occurring from individual-organizational value congruence). The researchers proposed commitment based on each dimension of attachment in turn associated with different organizational member behaviors. As part of the first investigation O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) specifically focused on organizational member fulfillment of job responsibilities (i.e., intrarole behaviors), organizational member prosocial or extrarole behaviors (i.e., completion of

organizational beneficial tasks that are not assigned via job descriptions), and turnover intentions. In the second investigation, commitment dimensions were associated with student involvement in extracurricular activities, student organizations, and dollars pledged to the institution.

Research findings from the first and second investigation support the existence of three independent dimensions of commitment stemming from organizational member psychological attachment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). In turn, each dimension of commitment based on organizational member attachment associated with individual intra-role and prosocial behavior differently. Research findings revealed organization members who were committed to their organization based on internalization (i.e., individual-organizational value congruence) and identification (i.e., desire to affiliate with the organization) reported positive associations with prosocial behaviors (i.e., behaviors associated with activities above and beyond their job description), intention to remain with the organization, and intrarole behaviors or behaviors associated with their assigned duties (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). One could conclude that organization members who reported commitment based on internalization of organizational values and a desire to affiliate with the organization potentially remain with the organization longer and expend more energy performing tasks assigned as well as unassigned tasks. Similarly, in the second investigation sampling business students, participants who reported commitment based on internalization and identification also indicated positive associations with the extrarole behaviors as measured by involvement in student activities/organizations.

Organizational commitment based on organizational attachment stemming from compliance did not associate with individual behaviors associated with their assigned duties or prosocial activities. A negative relationship occurred between intention to remain with the organization and commitment based on compliance (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest the investigation's importance stems from findings suggesting organizational commitment potentially consists of multiple dimensions each affecting organizational member behaviors. Researchers (Caldwell, Chatman, & O'Reilly, 1990) later use O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) measure of organizational commitment to examine how organizations facilitate their members' commitment.

Continuing to examine organizational commitment as a construct containing multiple facets, Meyer and Allen (1991) also proposed a second, three-dimension model of organizational commitment. Again, the researchers focused on organizational member psychological states proposing organizational commitment centered on one of three psychological states identified as (a) *affective commitment*, (b) *normative commitment*, and (c) *continuance commitment*. Meyer and Allen characterized *affective commitment* as an organizational member's feelings of attachment, involvement in organizational activities and roles, and identification with their organization. *Normative commitment* refers to organization member's feelings of obligation to continue their involvement with the organization. Conversely, *continuance commitment* has less to do with organizational members' feelings of attachment or obligation, but rather stems from individuals' understanding of the potential costs associated with discontinuing their involvement with the organization. The researchers suggest each component of commitment stems from a

different organization-organizational member relationship. Meyer and Allen (1991) summarize these components of commitment as an organizational member's (a) need (i.e., *continuance commitment*), (b) desire (i.e., *affective commitment*), or (c) obligation (i.e., *normative commitment*) to the organization.

In addition to providing a three-component model of organizational commitment, the researchers also utilized existing literature to identify antecedents for each component of commitment. Precursors of *affective commitment* included personal characteristics, organizational structure, and previous work experience (Meyer & Allen, 1991). While antecedents of *continuance commitment* included potential alternatives or other experiences/events that increase the consequences associated with leaving the organization. Antecedents of *normative commitment* include organizational socialization and investments. The researchers end their report suggesting commitment commonly associated with organizational member turnover, intention to leave, and satisfaction (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Based on their three-component model of organizational commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990b) developed and tested measures for each component of commitment. The researchers accomplished this through two research investigations, the first testing the proposed measures of affective, normative, and continuance commitment. The second, examined the antecedents of each component of commitment. Collectively, the two investigations provided insight into a multi-component conceptualization of organizational commitment.

As part of this investigation, the researchers postulate "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, 1990b, p. 3). The researchers theorized if commitment composition consists of three components, each individual component should relate to specific work experiences or antecedents, but not be related to the antecedents or work experiences of the other commitment components. Predicted antecedents of affective commitment included job challenge, role clarity, goal clarity, goal difficulty, management responsiveness, peer cohesion, organizational dependability, equity, personal importance, feedback, and participation. Purposed antecedents of continuance commitment included skills, education, community, relocation, pension, and self-improvement. Organizational expectations of member loyalty represented the only proposed normative commitment antecedent (Allen & Meyer, 1990b).

The items developed, for their three-component model of organizational commitment, include 66-statements garnered from other scales (i.e., OCQ) or written by the researchers. Allen and Meyer (1990b) surveyed clerical, supervisory, and managerial staff ($N = 256$) from manufacturing ($n = 2$) and educational ($n = 1$) organizations to test the proposed instruments. The final scales included an (a) affective commitment scale (ACS) consisting of eight-items, (b) continuance commitment scale (CCS) consisting of eight items, and (c) normative commitment scale (NCS) consisting of eight items. Items included in the ACS measure factor loaded from .55 to .82. Items included on the CCS measure loaded from .39 to .67. Items included on the NCS measure factor loaded from .47 to .67. The ACS and NCS measures correlated with the OCQ. A significant relationship also existed between the ASC and NCS measures. The CCS measure did not significantly correlate with any of the other organizational commitment scales. Allen and

Meyer (1990b) concluded, “Each of the psychological states identified in the literature as ‘commitment’ to the organization can be reliably measured” (p. 8).

Allen and Meyer (1990b) continued their investigation with a second study examining the antecedents of organizational commitment. As part of this investigation, the researchers surveyed full-time employees. Their investigation’s sample included organization members from a department store, hospital, and university library ($N = 634$).

Allen and Meyer (1990b) concluded that the research findings “Reveal a pattern of relationships between commitment measures, particularly affective and continuance commitment, and the antecedent variables which were, for the most part, consistent with prediction” (p. 13). However, some overlap existed between ACS and NCS as both measures of affective and normative commitment correlated with some of the measures predicted to associate with affective commitment only. The largest correlations, however, occurred between affective commitment and the predicted precursors (i.e., job challenge, role and goal clarity, goal difficulty, equity, personal importance, feedback, participation, peer cohesion, and management responsiveness).

The strongest predicted antecedent correlations for continuance commitment occurred between perceived alternatives, pension, and education (Allen & Meyer, 1990b). Allen and Meyer (1990b) predicted normative commitment would correlate with organizational expectations of member loyalty. This relationship did not occur. Overall, the researchers concluded the investigation provided preliminary evidence for the three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. However, the overlap

between ACS and NCS measures resulted in a recommendation for more investigation of the normative commitment component.

Conducting a meta-analysis Meyer, Stanley, Herschovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) revisited concerns associated with the relationship between Meyer and Allen's (1990b) measures of affective and normative commitment, the ACS and NCS measures, respectively. The investigation also addressed concerns associated with the dimensionality of Allen and Meyer's (1990b) continuance commitment measure. Finally, Meyer et al. (2002) examined the generalizability of Allen and Meyer's (1990b) three-dimension model of organizational commitment when researchers utilized samples composed of individuals outside of North America.

Two areas of interest focus on the overlap between the affective and normative commitment measures as well as the generalizability of the three-component model of organizational commitment across cultures. Meyer et al. (2002) again found overlap between affective and normative commitment measures developed by Allen and Meyer (1990b). However, the researchers surmised this relationship does not imply the measures are evaluating the same psychological state. A closer examination of the relationships between proposed consequences and correlates of affective and normative commitment suggests the existence of differing nuances of affective and normative commitment. For example, affective commitment has a stronger association with overall job satisfaction than association between normative commitment and overall job satisfaction. Specifically, Meyer et al. (2002) found the correlations between affective commitment and overall job satisfaction equals .65 while the correlation between normative commitment and overall job satisfaction equals .31. In addition, affective commitment

positively associates with both extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction while normative commitment does not associate with the variables (Meyer et al., 2002). Likewise, affective organizational commitment has a stronger negative relationship with organizational member withdrawal cognition than normative commitment.

Meyer et al. (2002) conclude the following:

Even if there is a strong natural link between affective and normative commitment, it does not rule out the possibility that employees can experience an obligation to pursue a course of action in the absence of a desire to do so. (p. 40)

Meyer et al. (2002) identified a shortage of investigations utilizing both samples from outside of North America and Allen and Meyer's (1990b) measure of organizational commitment existed. As a result, additional investigations using samples from cultures outside of North America must be conducted before a comprehensive investigation of the measure's generalizability across cultures occurs. The researchers, however, determined the existence of differences as well as similarities between the measures of commitment and their consequences and/or correlates when comparing samples drawn from within North America and outside of North America. For instance, the correlation between affective and normative commitment was stronger in studies utilizing samples from outside of North America. Similarly, correlations between normative commitment and organizational member perceptions of organizational support were stronger in studies utilizing samples from outside North America (Meyer et al., 2002). Meyers and his colleagues (Meyer et al., 2002) suggest the similarities potentially suggest the generalizability of Allen and Meyer's (1990b) model of organizational commitment across cultures.

Meyer et al. (2002) also found some of the following general relationships among organizational commitment and predicted organizational consequences (i.e., turnover, absence, job performance, etc.). All three measures of commitment, affective, normative, and continuance commitment, negatively associated with organizational member turnover. The strongest relationship occurred between affective commitment and organizational turnover. Similarly, affective and normative commitment positively associated with organizational member citizenship behaviors. The strongest relationship occurred between affective commitment and overall job performance. Interestingly, affective commitment negatively related to organizational member stress while continuance commitment positively related to stress (Meyer et al., 2002). Some of the relationships among organizational commitment and predicted correlates of commitment include (a) positive relationships among the three measures of commitment and job involvement with affective commitment having the strongest relationship, (b) only affective commitment positively relating to occupational commitment, and (c) two of the three measures (i.e., affective and normative commitment) positively relating to organizational member overall job satisfaction (Meyer et al., 2002). Table 12 summarizes some of the measures designed to assess organizational commitment.

Table 12

Organizational Commitment Measures

Researcher	Commitment Components
Buchanan (1974)	Identification or embracing organizational values Involvement or role engagement Loyalty or attachment/affection
Mowday et al. (1979)	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire 15 items load on one commitment factor
O'Reilly & Chatman (1986)	Compliance or commitment stemming from rewards Identification or commitment stemming from affiliation Internalization or commitment stemming from value congruence
Meyer & Allen (1991)	Affective commitment or identification, involvement
Allen & Meyer (1990b)	Attachment to the organization Normative commitment or obligation Continuance commitment or fear of consequences of leaving

Researchers (Finegan, 2000; Meyer, Pauanonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989; Meyer, Bobocel, & Allen, 1991; Preston & Brown, 2004) would utilize the three-component model of organizational commitment developed by Allen and Meyer (1990b) to investigate the consequences and development of organizational commitment. As part of these investigations, sample composition included paid or unpaid organization members. The remainder of this section will examine these research investigations.

Paid Organization Members and Organizational Commitment

Meyer et al. (1989) examined the relationship between organizational commitment and organizational member job performance. The researchers focused on the influence of affective and continuance commitment on the job performance of Canadian food service unit managers ($N = 65$). As part of this investigation's methodology district managers ($N = 23$) appraised the unit manager's performance while the unit manager completed assessments of organizational commitment and satisfaction. As the investigation sought to understand the influence of specific types of organizational commitment, the researchers utilized Allen and Meyer's (1990b) measures of affective (ACS) and continuance (CCS) commitment scales. Research hypotheses predicted affective commitment (i.e., individual attachment and involvement) positively associates with unit manager performance. On the other hand, the researchers predicted continuance commitment (i.e., commitment stemming from an understanding of the consequences of leaving the organization) negatively associates with unit manager performance.

Research findings supported the predicted relationships between commitment type and organizational member performance. Affective commitment positively

associated with unit manager performance and promotability (Meyer et al., 1989).

Continuance commitment or individual commitment to the organization resulting from an understanding of the consequences associated with leaving their position negatively associated with both performance and promotability. In addition, unit managers reporting high levels of affective organizational commitment and lower levels of continuance commitment also received higher performance and promotability assessments from their district managers. Examining the effects of the interaction of both unit manager affective and continuance commitment revealed the two components of commitment do not interact to enhance performance or promotability (Meyer et al., 1989). A review of the research findings led Meyer et al., (1989) to conclude (a) the nature of commitment expressed by organization members potentially becomes more important than overall commitment to the organization and (b) efforts to enhance unit manager affective commitment (i.e., attachment, involvement, and identification with the organization) become important endeavors.

Continuing to examine organizational commitment of paid organization members Caldwell et al., (1990) began to address the question of how organizations facilitate commitment. Researchers focused on the early experiences of organization members that foster commitment. Namely, the investigation's areas of emphasis included recruitment and organizational member socialization. As part of the socialization process, Caldwell and his colleagues focused on the organization's emphasis of values, rewards, and formal control.

For their definition of commitment, Caldwell et al. (1990) focus on organization member attachment to the organization. Drawing on existing research organizational

member attachment potentially occurs in one of three forms including (a) compliance, (b) identification, and (c) internalization. As part of this definition of commitment, organizational member commitment based on compliance occurs from a desire to attain rewards. While commitment based on identification refers to the organization members' desire to affiliate with the organization. Finally, commitment based on internalization results from congruence in organizational and individual values (Caldwell et al., 1990).

Using a sample composed of both professional and technical employees ($N = 323$) from technology and accounting firms ($N = 47$) the researchers examined three research hypotheses. The first hypothesis posits recruitment practices that provide potential members with realistic expectations and opportunities to turn down positions lead to higher levels of commitment in the form of internalization and identification, but not higher levels of compliance. The second hypothesis theorizes organizations emphasizing organizational values via role models and organizational actions during organizational socialization facilitate organizational members' commitment in the form of identification and internalization. Finally, organizational commitment in the form of compliance occurs when organizations emphasize formal control and member rewards as part of the socialization process. However, socialization practices with this emphasis also result in lower levels of internalization and identification (Caldwell et al., 1990).

Research findings support all three of the proposed research hypotheses. Findings of particular interest to this investigation centered on the effects of organizational socialization practices on organizational member commitment. Research findings pertaining to organizational socialization suggested organizational socialization practices emphasizing organizational values enhanced commitment based on internalization (i.e.,

value congruence) and identification (i.e., organizational member desire to affiliate). Similarly, socialization practices that emphasized reward systems result in commitment forming as a result of compliance (i.e., organizational member commitment based on reward) (Caldwell et al., 1990).

Changing focus, Meyer et al. (1991) examined how individual thought processes rather than organizational actions facilitate affective (i.e., commitment based on identification, attachment, and involvement) and continuance commitment (i.e., commitment based on consequences of leaving the organization). Prior to organizational entry, Meyer and his colleagues examined the individual's decision making processes paying attention to the extent job choice decisions were (a) made freely, (b) important, and (c) irrevocable. The researchers also targeted individual feelings in the form of confidence that they made a good decision and held positive expectations regarding the organization. After organizational entry, the researchers examined the effects that job scope, alternative employment, and confirmed expectations have on affective and continuance commitment.

Meyers et al. (1991) theorized that prior to entry, organizational member affective commitment would be enhanced when employment decisions were made freely, were irrevocable, and perceived as important. Affective commitment also increased when organization members were confident in their job choice decision. After entry, confirmation of expectations and job scope would increase organizational member affective commitment. Variables increasing continuance commitment included organizational members' beliefs that it would be difficult to find other employment as

well as feeling any investments made during their employment would be lost when exiting the organization.

Using a longitudinal study design the researchers collected data at four different points during the participants' first year of employment. Data collection occurred at the following points (a) prior to employment ($N = 157$), (b) after 1 month of employment ($N = 145$), (c) 6 months into employment ($N = 104$), and (d) after 11 months ($N = 115$) of employment (Meyer et al, 1991). Research findings supported all of the proposed relationships between organizational member commitment perceptions and organizational member thought processes prior to and after organizational entry.

Organizational member perceptions of decision quality positively associated with organizational member affective commitment (i.e., involvement, attachment, and identification) at the 1-, 6-, and 11-month data collection points (Meyer et al., 1991). Similarly, the irreversible nature of organizational members' employment decision (i.e., difficulty in finding new employment or agreeing to remain with the organization for a specific period) positively associated with continuance commitment at the 1, 6, and 11-month data collection points. Volition, as measured by the number of position offers, information about the organization, and lack of pressure to take the position, negatively associated with continuance commitment at the 1-, 6- and 11-month data collection points.

Collectively the variables (i.e., volition, irrevocability, importance, decision quality, job quality, other employment alternatives, and organizational member investments) accounted for 29% of the variance in organizational commitment after 6 months of employment and 24% of the variance in organizational commitment after 11

months of employment (Meyer et al, 1991). On the other hand, the variables (i.e., volition, irrevocability, importance, decision quality, job quality, other employment alternatives, and investments) accounted for 30% and 21% of the variance of organizational member continuance commitment at the after 1 and at 11 months of employment respectively. Meyer et al. (1991) concluded that affective organizational commitment does not result from post-employment rationalization, but rather develops from rationalizations that occurred prior to organizational entry. The researchers concluded that providing accurate information prior to organizational entry and quality job experiences after organizational entry potentially help organizations enhance organizational member affective commitment. One means of enhancing job experiences includes matching needs and preferences of the individual with job experiences when possible (Meyer et al., 1991).

Within the organizational fit subsection of the literature review, we find researchers have positively associated P-O fit to organizational commitment (Cable & Judge, 1996; Huang et al., 2005; Westerman & Cry, 2004). Specifically, as P-O fit increased, so did organizational commitment among other valued organizational outcomes. Finegan (2000) also examined the relationship between P-O fit or individual-organizational value congruence and organizational commitment. In this investigation, the researcher distinguished her work from others in four ways. First, the researcher conceptualized organizational commitment using Allen and Meyer's (1990b) three-component model of fit. Hence, commitment consisted of affective commitment (i.e., involvement, attachment, identification) normative commitment (i.e., obligation) and continuance commitment (i.e., understanding the consequences associated with leaving

the organization). Secondly, the assessment of organizational values consisted of individuals' perceptions rather than as a sum of multiple organizational member perceptions of organizational values. Finegan (2000) predicted measuring values using this methodology enhances the ability to predict organizational commitment. Thirdly, the researcher sought to understand how organizational values, personal values, and the interaction of personal and organizational values effect organizational commitment. Finally, the researcher conceptualized organizational values as having multiple dimensions. Namely, items assessing organizational values were collapsed into four classifications (a) *humanity* or valuing courtesy, consideration, cooperation, fair play, forgiveness, and moral integrity; (b) *adherence to convention* or valuing obedience, cautiousness, and formality; (c) *bottom-line* or valuing logic, economy, experimentation and diligence; and (d) *vision* or valuing development, initiative, creativity, and openness.

Finegan (2000) sought to determine “The degree to which person-organization fit predicts commitment” (p. 150). As such, the researchers collected data from a sample of petrochemical employees ($N = 121$). Research findings provided insight into the values that contributed to the formation of affective, normative, and continuance commitment.

Finegan (2000) found that an individual's perception of organizational values more than congruence between personal and organizational values had the greatest impact on organizational member commitment perceptions. In addition, the researcher found when organization members perceived the organization emphasized those values categorized as *humanity* (i.e., consideration, fairness, courtesy) and *vision* (initiative, creativity, development), organization members reported greater affective commitment. Normative commitment also increased when organization members perceived the

organization emphasized values associated with *humanity* and *vision*. Another factor increasing normative commitment involved personal values emphasizing obedience, cautiousness, and formality or those values classified as *adherence to convention*. When individuals held these values in high regard, their normative commitment increased. The same is not true when organization members perceived the organization placed a great deal of emphasis or did not emphasize the values associated with *adherence to convention* at all. Finally, Finegan (2000) determined continuance commitment increased when the organization was perceived as emphasizing *bottom-line* (i.e., logic, economy) as well as *adherence to convention* values.

Unpaid Organization Members and Organizational Commitment

The next four research investigations examine organizational commitment development in unpaid organization members as well as outcomes of this commitment. These investigations use the commitment scales developed by Mowday et al., (1979) and Allen and Meyer (1990b). In the first investigation, Dailey (1984) attempted to identify those constructs that contributed to the processes which develop organizational commitment in unpaid organization members. The researcher applied knowledge gained from investigations examining the development of organizational commitment in paid organization members to enhance our understanding of unpaid organizational member commitment. Daily (1984) proposed a model in which unpaid organizational members' personal characteristics, job involvement, job characteristics, and job satisfaction contribute to perceptions of organizational commitment.

Utilizing a sample composed of unpaid campaign workers ($N = 138$), the researchers collected data via a questionnaire. Research results support many of the

proposed relationships between the variables garnered from literature focusing on the development of organizational commitment derived from samples of paid organization members. Variables that contributed to perceptions of the campaign workers' job satisfaction included task significance, skill variety, and task identity. The greatest contributor of job satisfaction resulted from the campaign workers' sense of task significance ($\beta = .417$) (Dailey, 1984).

Those variables contributing to campaign worker job involvement included the workers need for achievement, affiliation, autonomy, and feedback. Of these variables, need for achievement had the greatest predictive value accounting for 33% of the variance in job involvement. Dailey (1984) originally proposed that individual characteristics would influence campaign workers job involvement; however, research findings did not support this theory.

Finally, job satisfaction, campaign worker autonomy, job involvement, and feedback all contributed to the individual's sense of organizational commitment. Job satisfaction contributed most to the campaign worker's organizational commitment accounting for 44.8% of the variance in organizational commitment. Collectively the other variable (i.e., autonomy, job involvement, and feedback) accounted for 12.4% of the variance in the campaign worker's organizational commitment (Dailey, 1984). The investigation's most significant contribution to our understanding of unpaid organizational member commitment stems from the application of constructs garnered from knowledge developed from investigations utilizing paid organization members. Dailey's investigation demonstrated these same constructs have application in our understanding of unpaid organizational member commitment.

Using the OCQ to measure unpaid staff member organizational commitment, Cuskelly et al., (1998) sought to examine the influence of organizational structure, personal characteristics, perceptions of benefits associated with volunteering, and committee effectiveness on the formation of unpaid administrator organizational commitment. The researchers undertook this investigation within the context of a volunteer-run sports organization randomly sampling administrators ($N = 469$) from 52 different organizations. Using a longitudinal study design, data collection occurred at three separate periods. To capture both in-season, post-season, and out-of-season, the researchers collected data over a 6-month interval.

Research findings provide insight into important determinants of unpaid sports administrator organizational commitment. Three personal characteristics (i.e., age, years of organization membership, and weekly hours contributed) positively predicted organizational commitment (Cuskelly et al., 1998). On the other hand, volunteer occupational prestige negatively predicted unpaid sports administrator organizational commitment. One might assume sports administrator meeting attendance would predict organizational commitment. However, research findings do not support such a relationship. Meeting attendance did not predict the individual's organizational commitment (Cuskelly et al., 1998). Perceptions of committee functioning had a different effect on organizational commitment. Unpaid sports administrator perceptions of a committee's function predicted organizational commitment. Namely, administrators who positively viewed committee functioning also experienced more organizational commitment. In an earlier section examining unpaid organizational member motivation, researchers (Cnaan & Goldgerg-Glen, 1991; Eley & Kirk, 2002; Gerstein et al., 2004)

found a potential motive included altruism. Cuskelly et al. (1998) found when unpaid sports administrators emphasized altruism; the result included increased levels of organizational commitment.

Cuskelly and Boag (2001) provided insight into the influence of organizational commitment and positive perceptions of committee functioning on turnover behaviors of unpaid sports administrators. This study represented the second part of a longitudinal study (Cuskelly et al., 1998) examining the effects of organizational commitment on the behavior of unpaid sports administrators. Cuskelly and Boag suggested the investigation's importance stems from a gap in existing literature, specifically "Organizational commitment is predictive of the turnover behavior of volunteers in sports organizations is yet to be tested" (p. 70). The investigation's sample included 469 unpaid sports administrators from 52 organizations. Data collection occurred at three separate periods allowing the researchers to collect data over the course of a complete program cycle (i.e., in-season, post-season, and out-of-season).

Cuskelly and Boag (2001) reported research findings indicate three variables predicted differences between those individuals who continued with the sports organization and those who discontinued their service. These variables included (a) organizational commitment measured at data collection two, (b) perceptions of committee functioning measured at data collection one, and (c) organizational commitment measured at data collection one. Unpaid sports administrators who continued with the organization were more committed than those who left at two points of data collection: time one and time two. Individuals, who continued their services, as well as those who discontinued their service with the organization, experienced a

decrease in their levels of organizational commitment. However, those who left the sports organization experienced a greater decrease in their commitment levels. Individuals who continued with the organizations perceived organizational committees functioning at a better level than those who left the organization. Conversely, research findings did not support the perceptions of committee functioning as a predictor of unpaid sports administrator turnover (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001).

The final investigation examining the unpaid organizational member commitment focused upon the relationship between board member commitment and performance (Preston & Brown, 2004). As part of this investigation, the researchers utilized a sample composed of unpaid board members ($N = 267$) and executive directors ($N = 28$). Instead of using the Mowday et al. (1979) OCQ, the researchers used Meyer and Allen's (1991) measures of affective (ACS), normative (NCS), and continuance commitment (CCS) to assess organizational commitment. To measure board member performance the researchers asked both the executive director and board member to rate board member involvement.

Preston and Brown (2004) theorized both affective and normative commitment would positively associate with board member performance. Conversely, the researchers hypothesized continuance commitment would produce the opposite effect on board member performance. A second hypothesis proposed relationships between board member assessments of involvement, commitment, and executive director perceptions of board member participation. The final hypothesis theorized board member assessments of involvement would positively associate with the executive's assessments of the board members' participation and value (Preston & Brown, 2004).

Research findings confirmed several of the proposed hypotheses. Similar to Meyer et al. (1989) findings of a positive association between affective commitment and the performance of food service unit managers, Preston and Brown (2004) found positive associations between performance and affective commitment. Specifically, board member assessments of feelings of attachment and involvement (i.e., affective commitment) positively associated with board member performance (Preston & Brown, 2004). As a result, one would expect increases in board member attachment to the organization would also increase board member performance. The only associations among board member normative commitment (i.e., board member sense of obligation to the organization) and performance occurred between normative commitment and hours contributed to the organization and normative commitment and executive director perceptions of participation. In this instance the relationships between normative commitment and the performance variables were both positive. Therefore, as normative commitment increased, so did hours contributed to the organization and perceptions of participation. On the other hand, continuance commitment (i.e., continuing volunteer involvement with the organization because of the consequences associated with leaving) did not significantly associate with board member reports of involvement or the executive director's assessment of unpaid board member performance. Regression analysis emphasizes the three most important variable's contributing to the executive director's assessment of unpaid board member involvement included hours contributed to the organization, the individual's attachment or affective commitment, and attendance (Preston, & Brown, 2004).

Researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Buchanan, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) have developed single dimension and multi-dimension measures of organizational commitment. From these measures, we have discovered processes facilitating organizational commitment vary upon stage of organization membership (Buchanan, 1974). For instance, during the first year of organization membership, 78% of the variance in organizational commitment can be attributed to peers expressing positive or negative feelings toward the organization, providing newcomers with challenging tasks, and loyalty conflicts or organizations presenting values the newcomer finds distasteful (Buchanan, 1974). During the newcomer's second through fifth year with the organization, commitment facilitators included organizational behaviors that reinforce the individual's sense of self or demonstrate acceptance as well as emphasize the importance of the organization member's work (Buchanan, 1974).

Using a one-dimensional measure of organizational commitment, Mowday et al. (1979) demonstrated organizational commitment negatively associated with intention to leave, but positively related to desired organizational benefits such as job involvement, career satisfaction, and job satisfaction. The researcher also demonstrated organizational commitment negatively related to turnover. Hence, committed organization members were less likely to leave the organization.

Researchers (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Meyer & Allen, 1991; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) have also demonstrated organizational commitment results from a psychological state. These measures of organizational commitment suggest the nature of commitment is just as important as overall organizational commitment as each

component has different correlates and consequences (Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer et al., 2002; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) demonstrated commitment derived from internalization of organizational values and identification (i.e., affiliation) positively associates with organizational member prosocial behaviors and role behaviors. These individuals potentially work harder at tasks assigned as part of their position and participate in activities that benefit the organization, but fall outside of their assigned tasks.

Meyer et al. (2002) found affective, normative, and continuance commitment also related to organizational outcomes in different manners. In terms of commitment's relationship with organizational member turnover, the researchers found all three dimensions of commitment negatively related to turnover; nonetheless, affective commitment has the strongest negative relationship to turnover. Affective commitment has the strongest positive relationship to overall job performance (Meyer et al., 2002).

Investigations using samples composed of paid organization members found affective organizational commitment rather than continuance commitment positively associated with manager performance and promotability (Meyer et al., 1989). In terms of the influence of organizational socialization practices on organizational member commitment, Caldwell et al. (1990) determined organizations that emphasized organizational values facilitated organizational commitment based on identification or a desire to affiliate with the organization as well as commitment based on internalization or organization-member value congruence. Conversely, organizations that emphasized reward systems build commitment based on compliance or organizational member commitment stemming from reward.

In another investigation examining the organizational commitment of paid organization members, Meyer et al. (1991) determined organizational commitment also results from pre-organizational entry rationalization. In this investigation, findings suggested perceptions of decision quality, accurate organizational information, decision importance, and other job alternatives contributed to variances in affective organizational commitment. Finally, Finegan (2000) found the values emphasized by the organization and individual also contributed to the nature of organizational commitment. Specifically, Finegan (2000) found when organizations emphasized logic, economy, diligences or values categorized as bottom-line values as well as cautiousness, formality, and obedience (i.e., values classified as adherence to convention), this practice increased continuance commitment. However, when organizations emphasized humanity (i.e., consideration, fairness, courtesy) and vision (initiative, creativity, development) values this emphasis resulted in greater affective commitment (Finegan, 2000).

Overall, the investigations presented examining the organizational commitment of unpaid organization members support the use of paid organizational member assessments of commitment utilizing samples composed of unpaid organization members (Dailey, 1984). The investigations also suggest (a) job satisfaction contributes greatly to unpaid campaign worker organizational commitment accounting for 44.8% of the variance in organizational commitment (Dailey, 1984), (b) positive perceptions of committee functioning increase unpaid sports administrator perceptions of organizational commitment (Cuskelly & Boag, 2001; Cuskelly et al., 1998), and (c) sports administrators involved in their volunteer activities for altruistic motives have greater organizational commitment (Cuskelly et al., 1998). We also discovered greater affective

commitment also produces better perceptions of unpaid organizational member performance (Preston & Brown, 2004).

The following section examines research related to one of the proposed correlates of organizational commitment, and organizational member job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Meyer et al. (2002) suggest job satisfaction represents one of three correlates of organizational commitment. In addition, the researchers suggest that, while a correlate of organizational commitment, job satisfaction represents a distinct variable separable from organizational member affective commitment. Researchers have tied job satisfaction to the concept of organizational fit or value congruence (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004). Connections also exist between organization member job satisfaction and organization socialization (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). This section explores some of the research shaping our understanding of the relationships between organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational outcomes.

Within this section researchers examine relationships between job satisfaction and (a) organization communication (Fitzgerald & Desjardins, 2004; Rosenfeld, Richman, & May, 2004; Trombetta & Rogers, 1988), (b) organization socialization (Taormina, 1999), (c) commitment and extra effort (Testa, 2001), (d) value congruence (Verplanken, 2003), and (e) leader behaviors (Elloy, 2005). Yet another avenue of research examined the organizational and individual variables facilitating organization member job satisfaction (Gidron, 1986; Yiu, Tung Au, & So-kum Tang, 2001). The section concludes with an examination of instruments designed to evaluate volunteer job satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001; Silverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001).

Three investigations examine the relationship between organizational communication and member job satisfaction. In the first investigation, Trombetta and Rogers (1988) sought to understand the effects of information adequacy, communication openness, and organization member participation in decision-making on organizational commitment and job satisfaction perceptions. Utilizing existing research suggesting job satisfaction functions as an antecedent to organizational commitment, the researchers theorized that if job satisfaction related to information adequacy, communication openness, and decision-making participation, a relationship between these communication variables and organizational commitment potentially existed.

Sending questionnaires to a sample of nurses ($N = 521$) at four hospitals, the researchers obtained 521 completed questionnaires (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988). Research findings supported a direct relationship between the nurse's job satisfaction and organization commitment. Thus, high perceptions of job satisfaction also resulted in high perceptions of organizational commitment and vice versa. Regression analysis also revealed communication openness, and information adequacy represented significant predictors of the nurse's job satisfaction. Participation in decision-making did not significantly predict job satisfaction (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988).

Of the communication variables predicted to relate with organizational commitment, only the nurse's information adequacy represented a significant predictor of organization commitment (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988). In addition, one demographic variable, age, also significantly predicted their organizational commitment. When the nurse's perception of job satisfaction mediated the relationship between communication variables and organization commitment, perceptions of communication openness also

predicted the nurse's organization commitment. Participation in decision-making and information adequacy did not relate to organization commitment when job satisfaction perceptions functioned as a mediating variable (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988).

Trombetta and Rogers (1988) concluded a complex relationship existed between organization commitment and job satisfaction. Rather than job satisfaction functioning as an antecedent of organization commitment, the researchers concluded job satisfaction and organization commitment represented separate but related variables. In addition, as illustrated by this investigation, job satisfaction and organizational commitment share one communication variable that functions as an antecedent to both the nurse's job satisfaction and commitment, information adequacy (Trombetta & Rogers, 1988). Thus, Trombetta and Roger's (1988) findings support the Meyer et al., (2002) postulate that job satisfaction represents a correlate of organization commitment.

Rosenfeld et al. (2004) continued examining relationships among communication variables and job satisfaction. As part of their investigation, the researchers chose an organizational context in which some organization members completed their assigned tasks detached from the central organization while others work within the central organization. Toward that end the researchers purposefully selected a sample composed of health care field representatives ($n = 99$) and office personnel ($n = 133$).

Rosenfeld et al. (2004) posit, "Members of today's complex organizational structures must face increasingly difficult challenges to address the role of communication within the ongoing tension of centralization/decentralization" (p. 29). Two research questions sought to determine if field personnel differ from office personnel in their perceptions of information adequacy, job satisfaction, and perception

of organizational culture (Rosenfeld et al., 2004). In addition, the researchers investigated whether field and office personnel perceive different relationships (a) information adequacy and job satisfaction and (b) information adequacy and organizational culture for the two groups of employees (Rosenfeld et al., 2004).

Overall perceptions of information adequacy and job satisfaction were not significantly different between office and field personnel (Rosenfeld, et al., 2004). Conversely, the two groups did differ in their assessment of organizational culture. Namely, field personnel perceived more organizational emphasis on planning, efficiency, and getting the job done while office personnel perceived greater organizational emphasis on work pressure or time urgency. Slight differences occurred in organizational member perceptions of variables contributing to office and field personnel perceptions of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction perceptions increased when office personnel received sufficient information pertaining to organizational policies and personal performance. Field representatives linked their job satisfaction to three types of information: (a) receiving adequate information pertaining to policies, (b) receiving adequate information relating to personal performance, and (c) receiving less organizational performance information (Rosenfeld et al., 2004).

Fitzgerald and Desjardins (2004) also examined the role of organizational communication and employee job satisfaction seeking to determine if organizations clearly communicate values, would this affect employee job satisfaction, turnover rates, absenteeism, and morale. For this investigation, the researchers sampled two distinct groups. The first included members of a respiratory care unit selected because its leadership clearly communicated organizational values through modeling, development

of organizational measures assessing values, evaluation of behavior, and rewards. The second group, a radiology department, did not clearly communicate organizational values. Research hypotheses predicted organization members within departments that clearly communicated organizational values would report (a) higher morale and job satisfaction, (b) lower turnover rates, and (c) lower employee absenteeism. In addition, clear communication of organizational values would also increase employee perceptions of organizational involvement and participation in decision-making.

Fitzgerald and Desjardins (2004) distributed surveys ($N = 152$) collecting demographic data as well as assessing each group's job satisfaction, morale, and employee involvement. Research findings did not support significant differences between departments that clearly communicated organizational values and those that did not when evaluating organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction or morale (Fitzgerald & Desjardins, 2004). A similar result occurred when researchers examined differences in these departments' absenteeism and morale. Namely, in departments that clearly communicated organizational values, employees did not report higher morale, lower turnover rates, or lower absenteeism. However, a difference occurred between those departments that clearly communicated organizational values and those that did not when the researchers examined the effects of these behaviors on participation in decision-making and organizational involvement. In departments in which values were clearly communicated, employees reported greater perceptions of involvement and participation in organizational decision-making (Fitzgerald & Desjardins, 2004).

Fitzgerald and Desjardins' (2004) finding that clear communication of organizational values did not increase job satisfaction seems at odds with other

researchers who have found relationships between employee P-O fit and job satisfaction (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2002). Overall, the three investigations provide mixed support for the role of communication in employee job satisfaction. Trombetta and Rogers (1988) found communication openness and employee perceptions of information adequacy predicted nurses' job satisfaction. Similarly, Rosenfeld et al. (2004) found within the context of a complex organizational structure in which organization members accomplish organizational goals, both located within the central organization and operating in the field, differences in job satisfaction were not significant, but variables contributing to perceptions of job satisfaction differed slightly. Specifically, when office and field personnel assessed the relationship between job satisfaction and information adequacy, different types of information were important to each group. Finally, while clear communication of organizational values did not produce greater job satisfaction, lower turnover, and lower employee absenteeism, it did increase organization member perception of involvement and participation in decision-making (Fitzgerald & Desjardins, 2004).

Within the organizational socialization section of the review of literature, we find several researchers have determined links between organizational socialization and organizational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction. Specifically, Jones (1986) as well as Allen and Meyer (1990a) determined institutionalized socialization tactics increase organizational commitment and organizational member job satisfaction. Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) found actual organizational member fit at entry predicted newcomer perceived fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment after participation in organizational socialization. In addition, Morrison (1993) found information-seeking

activities of organizational members related to increased satisfaction. Namely, increased information seeking equaled increased satisfaction, performance, and decreased intention to leave the organization (Morrison, 1993).

In a similar fashion, within the organizational socialization section of the review of literature, researchers found relationships between job satisfaction and organization-individual value congruence or P-O fit. O'Reilly (1991) determined P-O fit positively related to job satisfaction while others (Cable & Judge, 1996; Erdongan et al., 2002) found P-O fit enhances both organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Taormina (1999) and Verplanken (2003) revisited the relationships between these variables (i.e., socialization and job satisfaction, and value congruence and job satisfaction, respectively).

Taormina (1999) sought to determine if organizational socialization tactics or demographic variables had a greater influence on organizational member outcomes. Namely, the researcher sought to determine if demographic variables or organizational socialization variables were better predictors of organization member job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Using a sample composed of full-time employees from Hong Kong, organizations the researchers randomly sampled ($N = 193$) a cross section of small, medium, and larger organizations from a business directory.

Initial correlation analysis revealed both demographic and socialization variables relate with organization member perceptions of both job satisfaction and organization commitment. Utilizing additional stepwise regression analysis, the researcher determined socialization variables such as co-worker support, training, and future prospects were better predictors of organization commitment and job satisfaction (Taormina, 1999). As

such, employees who felt their future with the organization was promising, experienced co-worker support, and understood organizational role, policies, and operations also reported greater organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Taormina, 1999).

Verplanken (2003) utilized a sample of surgical ward nurses ($N = 56$) from Norwegian regional hospitals ($N = 3$) to examine the relationship between value congruence and job satisfaction. The researcher expected that “The attitude toward the ward was a direct predictor of job satisfaction, and that value congruence, social climate and time pressures were related to job satisfaction through their impact of attitude” (Verplanken, 2003, p. 601).

Research findings support several relationships between job satisfaction, ward attitude, and values congruence. Particularly, Verplanken found job satisfaction related to the nurse’s ward attitude, human relations values (i.e., empowerment, participation, open discussion, trust, and openness), and internal process values (i.e., dependability, reliability, maintaining existing systems, and rules). Path analysis revealed that attitude toward the ward and human relations value congruence both have a direct impact on job satisfaction. In addition, three variables contribute to the nurses’ attitude toward the ward, thus affecting job satisfaction indirectly. These variables include perceived time pressure, which influences the nurses’ chatting habits, thus affecting ward attitude. The final variable, human relations value congruence also affects ward attitude, thus having both a direct and indirect influence on the nurses’ perceptions of job satisfaction (Verplanken, 2003). Verplanken (2003) concluded, “The results showed that organizational values do play an important role in employees’ job satisfaction” (p. 603).

Overall, research presented within the sections focusing on organizational fit, socialization, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction demonstrate significant relationships among the variables. In the following investigations, we will focus on the relationship between commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational member effort (Testa, 2001) and the influence of leader behaviors on organizational commitment (Elloy, 2005).

Testa (2001) used food service employees ($N = 425$) to determine if job satisfaction moderated the relationship between organizational commitment and the employee's willingness to exert work effort or if organization commitment moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and the employee's willingness to exert work effort. Testa proposed job satisfaction would precede organizational commitment, which in turn would result in the employee's willingness to exert work effort.

While Meyer et al. (2002) hypothesized that job satisfaction represents a correlate of organizational commitment, Testa (2001) found the model in which job satisfaction represented a forerunner of organizational commitment fit best. This conclusion stems from research findings indicating that job satisfaction accounted for 70% of the variance in organization commitment when the path analysis model placed organizational commitment in a moderating role between job satisfaction and work effort. In this model, organizational commitment then accounted for 22% of the variance in the food service employee's work effort. Conversely, in the model in which job satisfaction fulfilled the role as a moderating variable between organizational commitment and the food service employee's work effort, the percentage of variance between the moderating variable and work effort decreased from 22% to 20%. In this model, organizational commitment

accounted for 91% of the variance in job satisfaction. The model in which organizational commitment moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and extra work effort also produced better-fit statistics than a model in which job satisfaction served as a moderator between organizational commitment and extra work effort (Testa, 2001). Testa (2001) concluded when food service employees perceived greater job satisfaction, this in turn facilitates greater organizational commitment resulting in potentially greater extra work effort.

Seeing the positive outcomes associated with high levels of organization member job satisfaction, another avenue of research focus attempted to understand the role of leader behavior in facilitating organization member job satisfaction. Using self-managed teams at a rural paper mill, Elloy (2005) attempted to determine the effects of the leader's behavior on team member perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction and organizational self-esteem (i.e., perception that organizational involvement fulfills organizational member needs). Elloy particularly focused on the impact of superleader behaviors such as assisting team members in goal setting, encouraging high expectations among team members, self-evaluation, and task rehearsal. The researcher hypothesized the modeling of these leadership behaviors would result in increased team member job satisfaction and commitment as well as higher levels of organizational self-esteem.

Data collection occurred over a 3-day period. The researcher used a questionnaire to collect all data (Elloy, 2005). Research findings support positive associations between leader behaviors and team member perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational self-esteem. Classification of teams into low, medium, and high levels of superleader behavior illustrates teams with the highest level of

superleader behaviors also had the highest means for team member job satisfaction, commitment, and organizational self-esteem. Elloy (2005) concluded as leadership displayed more behaviors characterized as superleader behaviors, team member's perceptions of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational self-esteem increased.

Continuing to examine those variables that facilitate organization member job satisfaction, other researchers focused on organizational and individual factors contributing to unpaid organization member job satisfaction (Gidron, 1986; Yiu et al., 2001). Using a sample of volunteers, Gidron (1986) distinguished between content factors (i.e., work related factors) and context factors (i.e., work environment factors) as potential contributors to unpaid organizational member job satisfaction.

Using step-wise multiple regression analysis, the researcher determined a combination of both content and context factors contribute to unpaid organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction. Research findings suggested that the work itself, feelings of task achievement, task convenience, and lack of stress associated with the volunteer activity contributed to unpaid organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction (Gidron, 1986). In particular volunteer work itself, task achievement, task convenience, and lack of stress accounted for approximately 22%, 18%, 13%, and 10% of the variance in volunteer job satisfaction, respectively (Gidron, 1986).

Seeking to understand the variables that contribute to the reduction of unpaid staff member turnover within nonprofit organizations, Yiu et al. (2001) utilized unpaid Chinese volunteers working within 12 Young Men Christian Associations (YMCA) in Hong Kong. The researchers examined the extent to which satisfaction with volunteer

work, organizational integration (i.e., integration within the YMCA center and work group), and the individual's assessment of whether volunteer experiences fulfilled expectations associated with the individual's organization service length. Using a questionnaire distributed to each center's employees, the researchers received 226 completed questionnaires (Yui et al., 2001).

Research findings did not suggest gender differences between participants' perceptions of burnout, organizational integration, or level of expectation fulfillment (Yui et al., 2001). Within this investigation, YMCA volunteers who perceived high levels of work satisfaction also experienced higher perceptions of their volunteer work fulfilling expectations, lower levels of emotional exhaustion, and lower levels of depersonalization. In addition, YMCA volunteers who reported high levels of work satisfaction and greater center integration were more likely to continue their service with the YMCA. Positive perceptions of work satisfaction were positively associated with service duration at all length of service intervals (i.e., 6 months, 1 year, 5 years, and 10 years). Two variables, emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization, negatively associated with volunteer service length at the 5 and 10-year service measurements. Lack of personal accomplishment was also negatively associated with volunteers' service. However, this effect only appeared early in volunteers' service (i.e., at the 6 month and 1 year service measurements). Yiu et al. (2001) concluded the investigation reveals the importance of creating volunteer experiences that contribute to the individual's sense of personal achievement as well as integrate volunteers into the YMCA.

Together these investigations suggest both organizational structure and individual variables facilitate job satisfaction. Specifically, Gidron (1986) found the work itself,

feelings of achievement associated with task accomplishment, task convenience, and lack of stress contributes to perceptions of job satisfaction. Yui et al. (2002) found similar findings reporting YMCA volunteers who perceived high levels of work satisfaction also experienced higher perceptions of their volunteer work fulfilling expectations, lower levels of emotional exhaustion, and lower levels of depersonalization. In addition, Yui et al. (2001) found center integration and work satisfaction contributed to the unpaid organizational members' intention to continue their service with the organization, a beneficial outcome for the organization.

The final investigations within this subsection present two studies in which the researchers developed and validated measures to assess a volunteer's (i.e., unpaid organization member) job satisfaction. In the first investigation, Galindo-Kuhn et al. (2001) proposed and validated a measure of volunteer job satisfaction using 327 volunteers from internationally affiliated non-profit organizations. Drawing from existing research, the proposed Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI) contained five dimensions with 39 items. The five proposed dimensions included *communication quality*, *work assignment*, *participation efficacy*, *support*, and *group integration*. The *communication quality* element assessed the individual's perception of information adequacy, clarity, and quality. The *work assignment* element examined volunteer role perceptions including convenience and challenge. The third element, *participation efficacy*, represented the degree to which an individual's volunteer involvement benefits another individual. The fourth element, *support*, measured satisfaction with encouragement and training volunteers received. The final element, *group integration*, measured assessed satisfaction with the social aspects of volunteer work (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001). Galindo-Kuhn et

al. (2001) theorized the five elements of the VSI would positively relate with volunteers' intention to continue their involvement with the organization. Galindo-Kuhn et al. (2001) suggest the findings related to this hypothesis would demonstrate the instruments predictive validity.

Factor analysis of the VSI items suggested that four useable factors existed (Galino-Kuhn et al., 2001). The first factor measured *organizational support*. Ten items were found to assess this item ($\alpha = .91$). The second factor assessed *participation efficacy*. Five items were found to assess this item ($\alpha = .84$). The third factor that emerged, *empowerment*, measured the volunteers sense of empowerment derived from their relationship with the organization. Three items load on this factor ($\alpha = .75$). The final factor, *group integration*, assessed interaction with other volunteers. Four items load on this factor ($\alpha = .87$). Correlation results revealed each factor, organizational support ($r = .31, p < .001$), participation efficacy ($r = .36, p < .001$), empowerment ($r = .32, p < .001$), and group integration ($r = .35, p < .001$) positively related to the volunteers' intention to remain with the organization (Galindo-Kuhn, 2001).

Finally, the researchers reported two multiple regression analyses, the first using the entire sample and the second controlling for the individual's age. These analyses revealed *organizational support*, *participation efficacy*, *empowerment*, and *group integration* explained 14% of the variance in volunteers' (i.e., unpaid organization member) intention to continue their service with the organization in the overall sample as well as the sample of participants less than 40 years of age. Again, *organizational support*, *participation efficacy*, *group integration*, and *empowerment* explained 18% of the variance in participants 40 years of age or older (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001).

In terms of the instrument's predictive ability, *organizational support* predicted the volunteer's intention to remain with the organization in the volunteer sample under 40 years of age. On the other hand, the four factors were not significant predictors of volunteer (unpaid organization member) intention to remain with the organization when the volunteer was 40 years of age or older. Two factors, *participation efficacy* and *group integration*, predicted the volunteer's (i.e., unpaid organization member) intention to remain when the entire sample was examined (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001). Overall, the researchers conclude the VSI represents a "reliable and constructually valid" (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001, p. 65) measure requiring additional development and evaluation.

Silverberg et al. (2001) developed a second means of measuring volunteer job (i.e., unpaid organizational member) satisfaction using a functionalist theory as their instrument's foundation. As their instrument modified measures drawn from instruments evaluating the job satisfaction of paid employees, the researchers sought to determine the appropriateness of using job satisfaction measures designed to measure paid organizational member satisfaction in samples of unpaid organization members.

To examine the job satisfaction of volunteers, the investigation drew from data collected from a larger investigation of library and park and recreation volunteers ($N = 583$). As part of their investigation, the researchers distributed 912 questionnaires receiving 583 useable questionnaires for data analysis. To examine volunteer job satisfaction, Silverberg et al. (2001) modified Spector's 36-item job satisfaction scale. This modification resulted in a 23-item instrument examining the volunteers' perception of job satisfaction. As part of the proposed instrument, job satisfaction assessment

focused on six areas (i.e., contingent rewards, supervision, co-workers, communication, operating conditions, and nature of their volunteer work) developed into subscales.

In addition, the researchers also incorporated Clary et al. 's(1998) VFI into the questionnaire to measure the individual's motivation for volunteer work. Silverberg et al. (2001) also included a variable labeled *coproduction*. The researchers defined coproduction within the context of this investigation as the following:

consumer production where the producers of services or their family members are also the beneficiaries of the services being produced, where the volunteers perceived their help is needed in order for services to be provided and/or where volunteers are seeking a sense of citizenship through knowledge of how the local government works. (Silverberg et al., 2001, p. 84)

Silverberg and his colleagues included this variable because previous research findings suggest coproduction measures volunteer functions missed when only the VFI is used to measure volunteer motivation. Finally, the questionnaire included five categories assessing the setting in which the volunteer worked. These settings included program implementation (i.e., instructor), coach, libraries, other operations (i.e., maintenance), or administrative support (i.e., clerical, board, or fund raising).

Instrument reliability assessment included calculation of Cronbach's alpha for the volunteer satisfaction scale. Silverberg and his colleagues also proposed three theoretical hypotheses to measure the instrument's validity (Silverberg et al., 2001). These hypotheses proposed relationships (a) between volunteer job setting and volunteer function, (b) among volunteer job setting, volunteer motivational function, and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction, and (c) between volunteer motivation function and job setting for each of the identified job settings (i.e., coach, administrative support) (Silverberg et al., 2001).

Silverberg et al. (2001) report the proposed 23-items assessing volunteer job satisfaction produced $\alpha = .88$. Item correlations range from .12 to .56. The researchers recommended revisiting the single item with an inter-correlation of .12. The researchers also reported Cronbach's alpha for the six-job satisfaction sub scales (i.e., communication, nature of work, co-workers, operating procedures, supervision, and contingent rewards) ranged from .27 to .88. Operating procedures represented the only subscale determined to not be reliable ($\alpha = .27$) (Silverberg et al., 2001). Silverberg et al. (2001) found support for the instrument's validity as regression analysis supported their proposed hypothesis positing that volunteer job satisfaction stems from an interaction between the volunteer's motivation to volunteer and the volunteer's job setting. Overall, the researchers concluded their measure of job satisfaction provided both practitioners and researchers "A useful measure of volunteer job satisfaction" (Silverberg et al., 2001, p. 88).

The investigations presented as part of this subsection examined relationships between job satisfaction and organizational communication, socialization, organizational commitment, and value congruence. Trombetta and Rogers (1988) found both communication openness and information adequacy played important roles in nurses' perceptions of job satisfaction. The researchers also determined a complex relationship existed between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this relationship Trombetta and Rogers (1988) corroborated Meyer et al.'s (2002) theory that job satisfaction represents a correlate of organizational commitment as they found information adequacy functioned as a precursor to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Conversely, Testa (2001) found job satisfaction represented

an antecedent of organizational commitment in the relationship among job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and extra work effort.

Rosenfeld et al. (2004) also examined the relationship between organizational communication and job satisfaction, determining that employees separated geographically (i.e., working in dispersed network organizations) associated job satisfaction with different levels of information adequacy. For example, office workers reported linking job satisfaction with higher levels of organizational policy and personal performance information while field workers reported linking job satisfaction with higher levels of policy, personal performance, and less organizational performance information. Fitzgerald and Desjardins (2004) found departments that clearly communicated organizational values were not necessarily distinguished from their counterparts who did not clearly communicate values when assessing levels of morale, turnover, or absenteeism. Study results indicated the two departments only differed in organization member perceptions of involvement (Fitzgerald & Desjardins, 2004).

Nonetheless, researchers did establish relationships among organizational actions potentially contribute to perceptions of job satisfaction. For instance, Taormina (1999) determined socialization variables such as co-worker support, training, and organization member perceptions of future prospects represent better predictors of job satisfaction than demographic variables. Verplaken (2003) found value congruence and shared emphasis on human relations value facilitated job satisfaction perceptions of nurses. Elloy's (2005) research suggests leader behaviors contribute to perceptions of job satisfaction, while the work of Gidron (1986) and Yiu et al. (2001) suggest both content (i.e., work related variables) as well as context (i.e., work environment variables) contribute to volunteer or

unpaid staff member perceptions of job satisfaction. Specifically, Gidron (1986) found lack of stress, the work itself, and feelings of task achievement predicted job satisfaction while, Yiu et al. (2001) found volunteer center integration affected perceptions of volunteer job satisfaction.

Finally, researchers (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001; Sliverberg et al., 2001) developed and validated measures that practitioners and researchers may potentially use to assess volunteers' (i.e., unpaid organization member) perceptions of job satisfaction. In addition, to providing potential tools to assess volunteer or unpaid staff member perceptions of job satisfaction, the researchers also found (a) different variables contribute to intention to remain with the organization dependent upon volunteers' age (Galindo-Kuhn et al., 2001) and (b) a positive relationship exists between volunteer motivation, job setting and volunteers' perceptions of job satisfaction (Silverberg, et al., 2001).

Research presented thus far has examined our understanding of volunteer motivation and organizational outcomes. Previous sections have reviewed some of the literature focusing on organizational socializations, P-O fit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The final section focuses on the topic of organizational culture.

Culture

O'Reilly (1989) theorized organizational culture potentially serves as a source of social control and normative order for organization members. The researcher also provides insight into why researchers have studied organizational culture hypothesizing, "Culture is critical in developing and maintaining levels of intensity and dedication among employees that often characterizes successful firms" (p. 17). In addition, O'Reilly (1989) argues when organizational leadership links organizational culture with the

appropriate organizational norms, this combination can promote organizational innovation. This section begins an examination of organizational culture and organizational outcomes.

Golden (1992) examined the role of individual action in holding on to established cultural-based organizational expectations as well as violation of these expectations using senior management team members participating in a decision-making meeting at a Fortune 500 company as the sample. This qualitative study investigated the role of culture as a form of normative social control. For the investigation, the researcher selected an organization with a strong organizational culture which could potentially limit the ability of individuals to act outside established organizational expectations.

Golden (1992) gathered data over a 1-year period utilizing participant observation, semi-structured interviews, and archival data to investigate the organization. Focusing on the interdependent nature of culture and organizational member actions, the researcher utilized a framework drawing on the works of sociologists and anthropologists to define action, performance, and reflexive action. Results suggested that understanding the intricacies of employee actions, performance, and reflexive actions sheds light on how employees negotiate their environment.

Research findings suggested across the organization, members of this Fortune 500 company valued cooperation to the extent that emphasis on cooperation acted as a social control limiting organizational member conflict or disagreement with the organization's president. However, as demonstrated by an analysis of a group-level management meeting, organizational managers utilized jokes, direct questioning, and deception as means to take actions that challenged the organization's value of cooperation. Golden

(1992) collapsed examples of joking, direct questioning, and deception into four strategies (i.e., unequivocal adherence, strained adherence, secret non-adherence, and open non-adherence) managers utilized to either adhere to or challenge the organization's culture of cooperation. Golden (1992) concluded that despite the organization's shared value of cooperation, organizational culture does not dominate individual action to the extent that organization members do not reflect, adapt to, and challenge existing organizational cultures. Rather, organizational member actions and culture potentially exist in a more dynamic interdependent relationship.

In an attempt to understand culture, researchers (Clampitt, 2005; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Keyton, 2005) have described basic elements or means in which organizations or groups express culture. Hofstede (2001) theorizes cultures consist of multiple layers. At the core, cultures have shared *values*. Groups communicate their organizational culture using *rituals*, *heroes*, and *symbols* (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Hofstede (2001) suggests *rituals* represent collective activities that act as a social glue to bring organization members together. *Heroes* consist of representations of those individuals, real or fictional, who exemplify valued organizational qualities or characteristics while *symbols* consist of words, signs, or pictures communicating meanings specific to the organization's culture. Under the umbrella of organizational *practices* organizations use *symbols*, *heroes*, and *rituals* to communicate their shared culture (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, 2005). Through *practices* organizational cultures becomes evident.

Hofstede (2001) provided confirmation of Deal and Kennedy's (2000) work as both suggested that values represent the foundation of organizational cultures as well as

the inclusion of heroes, rites, and rituals as means of expressing organizational culture. Deal and Kennedy (2000) also included two additional elements of organizational culture, business environment and cultural network (i.e., formal and informal organizational communication network). Re-emphasizing the existing elements of organizational culture developed by Deal and Kennedy (2000) and Hofstede (2001), Clappitt (2005) also includes an additional element of organizational culture, the organization's physical design.

Keyton (2005) continued examining organizational culture from a communication perspective theorizing the transactional nature of organizational culture lends itself to five identifiable characteristics. In the first characteristic, Keyton (2005) contemplates an element of interdependence exists within cultures suggesting organizational culture exists in tandem with organization membership, not independent of the organization's membership. Additionally, organizational cultures contain an element of inclusion as all organization members contribute to the organization's culture. Secondly, Keyton (2005) posits organizational cultures have a dynamic nature. This dynamic nature stems from an infinite number of daily organization member interactions permeating all organizational levels. The dynamic nature of organizational culture also stems from an ever-changing organization membership. Potentially competing organization values and assumptions represents Keyton's (2005) third organizational culture characteristic. This characteristic stems from organization structures facilitating subgroups of organization members, each subgroup then becomes capable of interpreting organizational values from their own perspective. Keyton (2005) expounds, "As a result, organization members have the

opportunity to create many belief systems, or subcultures, with both overlapping and distinguishing elements” (p. 37).

Emotion and sense-making conclude Keyton’s list of organizational culture characteristics. Keyton (2005) suggests each symbol, artifact, or value that provides insight into organizational culture also contains an emotional component for each organizational member. This emotional component provides the insights in which organization members interpret their work, as well as organizational interactions. Finally, Keyton (2005) suggests organizational culture functions in both the foreground and background of organizational member interactions. In this relationship, culture provides the framework for organizational member sense-making as all member use their current understanding of existing organizational culture (background) to interpret each of their interactions within the organization (foreground).

A central construct of organizational culture definitions includes the idea that organization members share something (i.e., values, beliefs, assumptions, or programming) that provides a basic understanding of their relationship within their environment. Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) posit that culture represents the “Collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others” (p. 4). Schein (1986) suggests, “Culture is a deep phenomenon, merely manifested in a variety of behaviors” (p. 30). Schein (2004) completes his definition of organizational culture describing culture as the following:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 17)

Attempting to understand those characteristics of organizational culture that contribute to the organization's competitive environment, Barney (1986) describes organizational culture as "A complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts business" (p. 657). Similarly, Keyton (2005) defines culture as "The set(s) of artifacts, values, and assumptions that emerge from the interaction of organizational members" (p.28).

In the next three studies, researchers (Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995; Weese, 1996) investigated the relationship among leadership, culture, job satisfaction, and program effectiveness in three sports-related settings. The first investigation (Wallace & Weese, 1995) examines the association among the level of transformational leadership displayed within Canadian YMCAs' organizational culture and organizational member job satisfaction. In the second study, Weese (1995) examined the relationship among transformational leadership and organizational culture development and penetration within campus recreation programs. In the final investigation (Weese, 1996) examined the association among transformational leadership, culture, and campus recreation program effectiveness.

Wallace and Weese (1995) sought to answer two research questions. The first question examined organizational culture differences comparing YMCAs with high levels of transformational leadership with YMCAs with low levels of transformational leadership. The second question sought to determine if differences in organizational member job satisfaction existed between the same two groups. Sampling 69 YMCA CEOs and two subordinates of each CEO produced 29 complete data sets in the first phase of analysis (Wallace & Weese, 1995). These data sets yielded 12 YMCAs with

high transformational leadership scores, 12 YMCAs with low transformational leadership scores, and four YMCAs in the middle of the leadership continuum. The researchers did not include the four YMCAs in the middle of the leadership continuum in their research analysis. As part of the second phase of research, Wallace and Weese (1995) collected organizational culture and job satisfaction data from staff members at the 24 YMCAs.

Research findings support that significant differences existed between high transformational leadership YMCAs and their low transformational leadership counterparts in four organizational culture variables (i.e., customer orientation, coordinated teamwork, managing change, and achieving goals). However, the YMCAs did not differ significantly in organizational member job satisfaction perceptions (Wallace & Weese, 1995). Overall, the researchers concluded high transformational leadership YMCAs understood their membership to a greater extent than their low transformational leadership counterparts. As high transformational leadership YMCAs also engaged in more culture building activities, they developed effective teams and maintained organizational harmony that enabled them to more effectively manage change and achieve organizational goals than YMCAs characterized as low transformational leadership YMCAs (Wallace & Weese, 1995).

Weese (1995) continued examining the relationship between organizational leadership and culture this time seeking to understand if the level of transformational leadership displayed by organizational leaders affected cultural penetration in campus recreation programs. For this investigation, the researcher examined Big Ten and Mid-American Athletic Conference campus recreation programs. Weese (1995) developed three research questions. The first research question sought to determine if a difference in

cultural strength existed between campus recreation programs led by individuals displaying high levels of transformational leadership and those programs led by individuals displaying lower levels of transformational leadership. The second question, sought to determine if high or low transformational leaders differed in time spent building organizational cultures. The final question, examined difference in cultural penetration between high and low transformational leaders.

Weese (1995) conducted his investigation in two phases. As part of the first phase, Big Ten programs ($n = 10$) and Mid-American Athletic conference programs ($n = 9$) received pre-study outline letters. Willing campus recreation directors completed a transformational leadership questionnaire along with two randomly selected subordinates. After the first phase of the investigation, Weese (1995) reduced the study sample to eight programs characterized as having leaders who displayed high or low levels of transformational leadership. As part of the investigation's second phase, Weese (1995) collected data focusing on organizational culture and leadership tendencies. For this phase, the researchers utilized questionnaires and interviews of campus recreation staff members.

Research findings indicated staff members in campus recreation programs characterized as having leaders who displayed high levels of transformational leadership communicated shared organizational values better than their counterparts in campus recreational programs characterized as having leadership displaying low levels of transformational leadership (Weese, 1995). The researcher concluded campus recreation programs with leaders who displayed higher levels of transformational leadership were programs with stronger organizational cultures than their counterparts with leaders who

displayed low levels of transformational leadership. In addition, campus recreation programs characterized as having leaders displaying high levels of transformational leadership differed from programs characterized as having leaders displaying low levels of transformational leadership in the culture building activity of customer orientation. Programs with leaders who displayed high levels of transformational leadership placed greater emphasis on knowing their customers (Weese, 1995). This finding concurs with the Wallace and Weese (1995) examination of YMCAs in which they found differences in culture building activities between YMCAs with leaders displaying high and low levels of transformational leadership. However, research findings did not support Weese's (1995) hypothesis suggesting high and low transformational leaders differ in their ability to penetrate organizational culture.

Weese (1996) continued examining the relationship between leader behaviors and organizational culture seeking to understand if either had a significant impact on program effectiveness. Specifically, the researcher hypothesized the level of organizational leader transformational leadership behaviors or organizational culture strength would influence organizational member perceptions of program effectiveness. For this investigation, the researcher again utilized a sample composed of campus recreation programs. Following a similar research design (Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995), Weese (1996) compared the programs with the highest transformational leadership rating to those programs with the lowest transformational leadership rating.

Research findings suggest a positive relationship existed between the program's level of transformational leadership and organizational member perceptions of organizational effectiveness (Weese, 1996). Namely, organizational culture strength

positively associated with campus recreation staff member perceptions of the program's effectiveness (Weese, 1996). Hence, campus recreation programs with strong organizational cultures also received high program effectiveness ratings. However, research findings did not support a relationship between the level of transformational leadership displayed by program directors and program staff member perceptions of program effectiveness (Weese, 1996).

The three investigations conducted by Weese and his associates (Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995; Weese, 1996) provide insight into the relationship among organizational culture, leadership, and organizational outcomes such as program effectiveness and job satisfaction in a sports-related context. Chen (2004) also examined the relationship among organizational culture, leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job performance. However, rather than seeking to understand this relationship within a sports-related context, the researcher utilized a sample composed of manufacturing and service-industry employees within Taiwanese firms (Chen, 2004).

Using an organizational culture classification scheme characterizing organizational cultures as innovative, supportive, or bureaucratic, the researcher proposed leadership (i.e., transformational or transactional) would positively associate with organizational commitment in the three cultures. In addition, organizational member perceptions of organizational commitment fulfilled the role of mediator between leadership behaviors (i.e., transformational or transactional) and job satisfaction within the three classifications of organizational culture. Finally, Chen (2004) predicted organizational commitment functioned as a mediating variable between leadership

behaviors (i.e., transformational or transactional) and organizational member perceptions of job performance within the three classifications of organizational culture.

Initial research findings suggest several study variables positively associated with each other. For instance, transformational leadership positively associated with organizational commitment and culture (Chen, 2004). Likewise, organizational commitment also positively associated with organizational culture and job satisfaction. However, neither organizational commitment nor organizational culture positively associated with job performance (Chen, 2004).

Chen (2004) concluded leadership behaviors have different outcomes dependent on organizational culture characteristics. For instance, research findings suggest in organizational cultures characterized as innovative, leadership behaviors utilizing contingent rewards and passive management by exception predicted organizational member commitment. Conversely, in organizational cultures characterized as supportive or bureaucratic, leadership behaviors demonstrating individualized consideration, employed contingent rewards, and a more laissez-faire approach, predicted organizational member commitment (Chen, 2004). Similarly, organizational culture also affected the ability of organizational commitment to mediate the relationships among leadership behaviors (i.e., transformational or transactional) and organizational member job satisfaction or job performance. In organizational cultures characterized as innovative, organizational commitment did not mediate the relationship between leadership behaviors, transformational or transactional, and organizational member job performance (Chen, 2004). However, in cultures categorized as supportive or bureaucratic, employee organizational commitment mediated the relationship between transformational

leadership behaviors and job performance. On the other hand, if the same organizational cultures (i.e., supportive or bureaucratic) were led by transactional leaders, organizational member commitment did not mediate the relationship between leadership behaviors and job performance (Chen, 2004).

In a similar fashion, organizational culture affected the ability of organizational member commitment to mediate the relationship between exhibited leadership behaviors and organizational member job satisfaction. If organizational cultures characterized as innovative were led by transformational leaders, organizational commitment mediated the relationship between leadership behaviors and employee job satisfaction (Chen, 2004). However, if leaders exhibited leadership behaviors categorized as transactional, employee organizational commitment did not mediate the relationship between transactional leadership behaviors and organizational member job satisfaction. In supportive or bureaucratic organizational cultures, the relationship between either leadership behavior (i.e., transformational or transactional) and job satisfaction could be mediated by organizational member commitment perceptions (Chen, 2004).

To this point, researchers (Chen, 2004; Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995; Weese, 1996) have examined the ability of leadership behaviors or organizational culture to influence employee perceptions of job satisfaction, program effectiveness, and job performance. Job satisfaction, program effectiveness, and job performances represented outcomes of either transformational leadership behaviors or strong organizational cultures. Shockley-Zalabak and Ellis (2000) examine organizational culture from a slightly different perspective. In their investigation, the researchers posit that employee perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness shape employee actions

and thus simultaneously shape organizational culture, employee information-seeking behaviors, and employee relationships within the organization. Shockley-Zalabak and Ellis (2000) suggest this rivals traditional models emphasizing job satisfaction and perceived organizational effectiveness as outcomes influenced by employee behaviors (information-seeking and receiving) and employee perceptions of organizational culture.

The researchers posed two research questions. The first question examined the capacity of perceived organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction to facilitate an understanding of employee perceptions of organizational culture, organizational relationships, and employee communicative behaviors. The second question sought to uncover the best conceptual model between the study's variables (organizational culture, job satisfaction, perceptions of organizational effectiveness, organizational relationships, and communicative behaviors) (Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000).

The investigation's database included information collected from a series of examinations of communicative behaviors across a variety of organizations and cultures. Data collection occurred over a 13-year period from 1987 to 1999. Study participants ($N = 2,245$) included supervisory and non-supervisory organization members who completed a survey (Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000). Research measures examined employee perceptions of organizational communication activities, job satisfaction, and perceptions of organizational effectiveness.

Research results revealed that the theoretical model positing employee perceptions of job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness function to predict employee communicative behaviors, organizational relationships, and perceptions of organizational culture represented the best model for the relationship among the variables

(Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000). In addition, job satisfaction and perceptions of organizational effectiveness each contributed uniquely to organizational member communicative behaviors (i.e., information-seeking and sending), relationship development, and organizational culture. Organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction influenced employee information-seeking and relationship development stronger than employee perceptions of effectiveness. On the other hand, employee perceptions of effectiveness provided a stronger influence on organizational culture than perceptions of job satisfaction (Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000). The researchers concluded the investigation's findings support the notion that what organization members believe, or perceive, may become true as a member's actions support ongoing perceptions, evaluations, and beliefs regarding the organization.

Davies, Mannion, Jacobs, Powell, and Marshall (2007) continued the investigation of potential relationships between organizational culture and valued organizational variables. In their investigation, the researchers examined potential associations between senior management organizational culture and overall hospital performance. Davies et al. (2007) utilized a matrix describing potential competing values associated with the hospital's culture. This matrix included four types of organizational cultures (i.e., *clan*, *developmental*, *hierarchical*, or *rational*). For the purposes of this investigation, *clan* culture values included cohesiveness, loyalty, and emphasis on tradition. On the other hand, *developmental* culture values included creativity, innovation, and adaptability while *hierarchical* cultures emphasize order and rules. Finally, *rational* cultures share a goal-oriented focus as well as an emphasis on winning. The four classifications of culture exist on two continuums one focusing on internal-external

orientation and the second focusing on how hospital business occurs (i.e., a focus on control and order versus a focus on flexibility and spontaneity). The researchers emphasize organizations do not entirely exist as one specific type of culture. Several variables provided measures of hospital performance including, but not limited to, staff opinion assessments, waiting times, research funding, inpatient surveys, and specialization (Davies et al., 2007).

Davies et al. (2007) hypothesized “A contingency view of the organizational culture/performance relationship” (p. 51). As a result, congruence should exist between the hospital’s performance and cultural values (i.e., one could potentially expect hospitals that have cultures emphasizing innovation and creativity to out-perform hospitals who do not share these values in measures designed to measure innovation and creativity). To test this hypothesis the researchers conducted a national study of English National Health Service acute hospitals ($N = 197$).

Research findings confirmed those values the organizational culture emphasized were congruent with organizational performance variables measuring the same value (Davies et al., 2007). For example, Davies et al. (2007) found that hospitals with cultures characterized as *clan* cultures were (a) smaller, (b) concerned with staff morale and patient respect, and (c) opposed potential hospital mergers. These performance measures seem congruent with a culture that emphasizes loyalty, tradition, and morale (i.e., *clan* cultures). On the other hand, hospitals characterized as possessing *hierarchical* cultures possessed the following characteristics: (a) higher management salaries than *clan* or *developmental* cultures and (b) shorter wait times than *clan* or *developmental* cultures (Davies et al., 2007). Again, this was congruent with the values (i.e., order, following

rules, and control) categorized as points of emphasis in *hierarchical* cultures. The researchers concluded hospitals participating in this investigation demonstrated a contingency organizational culture/organizational performance relationship as they performed well in those areas they valued.

Researchers again emphasized understanding the associations between organizational culture and positive organizational outcomes as Schrodts (2002) investigated whether components of organizational culture also potentially relate with employee perceptions of organizational identification. Sampling retail employees ($N = 78$) from multiple store locations of the same retail company ($N = 31$) the researcher investigated two questions. The first question focused on the identification of relationships between employee perceptions of organizational culture and employee perceptions of organizational identification. The second question sought to determine how employee perceptions of organizational culture influence employee perceptions of organizational identification (Schrodts, 2002). As part of this investigation, the organizational culture classification scheme assessed six separate dimensions of culture. These included teamwork, morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, or meetings cultures (Schrodts, 2002).

Schrodts (2002) found significant positive relationships existed between the cultural dimension of teamwork, morale, information flow, involvement, supervision, and meeting employee perceptions of organizational identification. Schrodts (2002) reported organizational member perceptions of four cultural dimensions (morale, information flow, involvement, and meetings) related the closest to employee perceptions of organizational identification (i.e., $r = .51$ to $.75$). In terms of the ability of organizational

culture dimensions to influence employee perceptions of organizational identification, only one dimension significantly predicted employee identification. Of the six dimensions of culture examined in this investigation, morale appeared as the most significant predictor of organizational identification accounting for 56% of variance in organizational identification (Schrodt, 2002). The researcher concluded that “Although certain dimensions of organizational culture are related to organizational identification in employees, organizational morale may be the most important dimension” (Schrodt, 2002, p. 199).

Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) also examined a potential benefit associated with organizational culture as the researchers investigated the relationships between organizational culture and organizational innovation. As part of this investigation, Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) examined the variables within a nonprofit context. In addition, the researchers utilized a method of analysis that allowed them to examine cultural consensus or provide them with the ability to “Recognize that different employees could have different cultural models that would not necessarily be shared” (p. 27). Therefore, when analyzing the organization’s culture the researchers could establish the degree of agreement on specific values as well as the content of value agreement (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). As such, cultural consensus measured the level of organizational members' sharing of the same organizational value sets while content of cultural agreement identified the values actually shared by organization members. Jaskyte and Dressler (2003) hypothesized both cultural consensus and the organizational values shared would relate to organizational innovation.

Sampling chapters ($N = 32$) of a nonprofit association in the Southern states, the researchers' analyzed data collected from 19 different chapters as 10 organizations declined participation in the investigation. Additionally, the researchers removed two associations from the investigation as they were determined to "Exert undue influences over the results" (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005, p. 28). Research results demonstrated a relationship existed between organization values, cultural consensus, and organizational innovation (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). Namely, organizational innovation negatively related with high levels of organizational member cultural consensus (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). In addition, organizational cultural consensus accounted for 53% of the variance in organizational innovation when regressed with organizational size as a second variable. As part of this investigation, organizational values that negatively related to organizational innovation included stability. On the other hand, organizational values that positively related with cultural consensus included team orientation, stability, and leadership (Jaskyte & Dressler, 2005). Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) concluded that organizations in which members have high consensus on the values of teamwork, stability, security, cooperation, and lack of conflict may risk inhibiting their ability to foster innovation. Conversely, organizations that have high consensus on values such as risk taking or employee experimentation may foster organizational member innovation. However, the researchers warn this investigation just provides insight into the selected organizations as opposed to providing a causal relationship between the variables. They recommend further investigation of these variables utilizing a longitudinal study design. Nonetheless, Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) suggest the investigation demonstrates the

potential importance of including organizational culture in a model examining innovation.

In the final investigation included in this section, Nazir (2005) examined the potentially beneficial outcomes of organizational member socialization and organization-individual value congruence. While Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) sought to understand if value consensus associated with organizational innovation, Nazir (2005) sought to determine if high levels of value congruence and socialization associated with organizational member commitment. The researcher anticipated a relationship between organizational commitment and value congruence suggesting that high individual-organizational value congruence would correlate positively with employee commitment. Conversely, low individual-organizational value congruence would negatively relate with employee commitment. Nazir (2005) also theorized a relationship between socialization emphasis and value congruence such that organizations emphasizing socialization would experience increases in organizational member value congruence.

Using a convenience sample of six banks including two private, two public, and two foreign banks, Nazir (2005) gathered data from both new recruits ($N = 135$) and senior employees ($N = 69$). Nazir modified the O'Reilly et al. (1991) OCP adjusting the measure to ensure its appropriateness for the sample's socio-cultural setting. The modified OCP scale split-half reliability equaled .53. Nazir also utilized O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) three-dimensional measure of organizational commitment assessing commitment based on compliance (i.e., desires rewards derived from organizational member performance), identification (i.e., desires to affiliate with organization), and internalization (i.e. value congruence).

Research results indicated that a relationship existed between organizational emphasis on socialization and individual-organizational value congruence or person-culture fit as defined by Nazir (2005). Comparing person-culture fit scores and socialization scores for each organization revealed that the banks with high person-culture fit scores also had high socialization scores. The researcher interpreted these findings as support for the hypothesis suggesting a relationship between organizational emphasis of socialization and stronger individual-organizational value congruence or person-culture fit. Research results also indicated support for the relationship between employee commitment and level of value congruence or person-culture fit. Specifically, value congruence or person-culture fit related to O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) measure of normative commitment or commitment based on the organization member's acceptance of the values of the organization (Nazir, 2005). Collectively, Nazir (2005) concluded the research findings suggest that when the banks emphasized organizational values during their socialization processes, organization members experienced increases in individual-organization value congruence (i.e., person-culture fit) as well as commitment based on values. On the other hand, the bank's emphasis of organizational values during organization member socialization did not build commitment based on desires for rewards, desires to affiliate with the organization (Nazir, 2005).

In sum, definitions of culture suggest members of cultures share common beliefs, assumptions, or values that help them interpret meaning and interact within their environment (Barney, 1986; Keyton, 2005; Schein, 2004). The expression of culture occurs through heroes, symbols, and rituals in which organizations incorporate practices containing implicit meanings for its membership (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede,

2005). Others suggest organizational cultural meaning exists within the organization's formal or informal communication networks (Deal & Kennedy, 2000) as well as the organization's physical design (Clampitt, 2005). While created in tandem with organization members as opposed to independent of organization membership (Keyton, 2005), organizational cultures serve as a form of social control enabling organizations to develop the environments necessary to facilitate success (O'Reilly, 1989). Though cultures often help maintain order and compliance, organization members have also found elaborate means to allow variations of expectations established by organizational cultures when organization members believe deviations in cultural expectations seem in the best interest of the organization (Golden, 1992).

Researchers (Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1996) have linked organizational culture to transformational leadership behaviors and organizational member perceptions of effectiveness respectively. Chen (2004) also established positive associations between leadership, organizational culture, and organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction and commitment. However, Chen (2004) found leadership behaviors vary with the characteristics of the organizational culture in terms of effect on organizational member commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived effectiveness. Similarly, Davies et al. (2007) found emphasis of different values within organizational cultures influenced the performance and characteristics of hospitals. For example, hospitals characterized as possessing clan cultures were generally smaller, concerned with respect for patients and staff morale while their counterparts with cultures characterized as hierarchical cultures performed better when examining patient wait times and reported higher managerial salaries. Likewise, Jaskyte and Dressler (2005) found the values emphasized within

organizational cultures and the level of organizational member agreement on these values influenced organizational innovation to the extent that some values (i.e., risk taking) may potentially facilitate organizational innovation and other values (i.e., security, stability) may inhibit innovation.

Rather than viewing job satisfaction and effectiveness perceptions as an outcome of organizational culture, Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis (2000) found organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction and effectiveness potentially shape their actions; organizational member actions in turn contribute to the creation of organizational culture. Finally, Nazir (2005) demonstrated the relationship between organizational socialization, value congruence, and organizational member commitment concluding organizations with well-defined socialization processes emphasizing organizational values experience higher individual-organization value congruence. A potential outcome of increased value congruence included higher levels of organizational member normative commitment.

The investigations within this section demonstrate the importance of understanding organizational culture when seeking to investigate any component (i.e., organizational member commitment, organizational performance, leadership, or organizational socialization) of organizational life. Researchers have demonstrated the ability of culture to act as a bond influencing the behaviors of organization members (Golden, 1992; O'Reilly, 1989). Conversely, organization members will behave independent of organizational culture when they believe their actions benefit the organization (Golden, 1992). Researchers have also suggested organizational member behaviors actually create organizational culture (Shockley-Zalabak & Ellis, 2000).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

As demonstrated by the investigation's review of literature over the last 20 years, researchers have examined how volunteers function within organizations. These investigations have ranged from studies probing differences between paid and unpaid organization members (Pearce, 1983) to the investigation of organizational commitment, satisfaction, and withdrawal behaviors (Laczo & Hanisch, 1999) of volunteers. During this same period, researchers seeking to understand volunteer behavior also investigated means of volunteer motivation measurement (Clary, Synder & Ridge, 1992; Clary, Synder, & Stukas, 1996; Clary Synder, Ridge, Copeland, Staukas, Haugen et al., 1998; Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991;). Using the measures created by these individuals, as well as measures created by others, researchers (Becker & Dhingram, 2001; Caldwell & Andereck, 1994; Carlo, Okun, Knight, de Guzman, 2004; Eley & Kirk, 2002; Finkelstein, Penner, & Brannick, 2005; Martinez & McMullin, 2004; Sherer, 2004; Nelson, Hooker, DeHart, Edwards, & Lanning, 2004; Strigas & Jackson, 2003) explored volunteer motivation in relation to several other variables.

Concurrently, organizational behavior researchers examined the socialization of paid organization members focusing on the potential beneficial outcomes (i.e., organizational commitment, job satisfaction) associated with different socialization tactics. These investigators proposed and examined means of organizational socialization (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979)

as well as associations between socialization tactic employed and organizational outcome (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Black, 1992; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, Anderson, 2004).

While one group of researchers focused on the role of the organization in socialization of newcomers, another group focused on how the individual's actions influence organization socialization processes. These investigations focused on information-seeking behaviors (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Comer, 1991; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993; Morrison, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Teboul, 1995). From these investigations, we learn both content of information sought as well as information source plays an important role in organization socialization. A final group of organizational behavior investigators (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gordon, 1995) examined both the role of the organization and the individual in organization socialization. From these research projects, we see links among socialization tactics utilized by the organization, individual information-seeking behaviors, and role orientation.

An examination of the research presented within the review of literature reveals organizational socialization research has predominately focused on understanding the implications of socialization of paid organization members and recent college graduates (Allen & Meyer, 1990a, Ashford & Saks, 1996, Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Jones, 1986). From these investigations we begin to understand different organizational socialization tactics associated with different organizational outcomes when examining the relationship between socialization tactics and P-O fit, job satisfaction, and organization commitment. Namely, Jones (1986) and Allen and Meyer (1990a) found institutionalized socialization tactics positively associated with job satisfaction and

organization commitment. Hence, one would expect when organizations utilized institutionalized socialization tactics, organization member job satisfaction and organizational commitment would tend to increase. Mignerey et al., (1995) and Ashford and Saks (1996) found a similar relationship among institutionalized socialization tactics, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. However, Black (1992) found the characteristics of the sample potentially influence the relationship between socialization and organizational outcomes. Specifically, Black found collective socialization tactics may result in innovative role orientations with American expatriates as opposed to the custodial role orientations found in Jones' (1986), and Allen and Meyer's (1990a) investigation of MBA graduates.

Additionally, Chatman (1991) and Kim et al. (2005) found that institutionalized socialization tactics positively related to perceptions of P-O fit. As such, one would expect when organizations use institutionalized socialization tactics, organization member perceptions of value congruence increase. Cable and Parson (2001) contradict the positive relationship between organization socialization and P-O fit. Current organizational socialization research lacks a clear understanding of the relationship between organization socialization tactics and P-O fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment within a sample consisting of volunteers (i.e., unpaid organization members).

Purpose

This investigation sought to understand the socialization of volunteers (i.e., unpaid organization members) into the cultures of hospitals. Previous researchers (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Chatman, 1991; Jones, 1986; Kim et al.,

2005; Mignerey et al., 1995) have demonstrated that the socialization of paid organization members results in increased commitment, satisfaction, and value congruence. The overarching research question framing this investigation follows:

What impact do organization socialization activities have on volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction?

Stemming from our understanding of the relationships established among organizational socialization, P-O fit, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction derived from investigations utilizing samples composed of paid organization members and recent college graduates, the researcher proposes the following research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Hypothesis 2: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

This investigation attempted to garner information potentially useful to hospital human resource directors, volunteer coordinators, and chief administrative officers as they make decisions regarding resource allocation for the purpose of socializing hospital volunteers.

Research Design

This investigation examined the organizational socialization of hospital volunteers seeking to understand relationships among organizational socialization tactics employed by the institution and the organizational outcomes of organizational commitment, satisfaction, and P-O fit. The investigation sought to expand organizational socialization research to include a sample composed of volunteers with particular interest in whether organizational socialization tactics utilized with paid organization members have similar outcomes when the individual participating in the socialization is an unpaid organization member (i.e., volunteer). This quantitative investigation used a correlation design for the determination of the relationship between socialization tactic and the previously mentioned organizational outcomes. Previous researchers (Adkins, 1995; Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996) have utilized correlation study designs in their investigations of organizational socialization. Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) suggest correlation techniques describe variable relationships in situations in which the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the variables. Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003) posit applications for multiple regression/correlation analysis (MRC) extend to

researchers proposing hypotheses in the disciplines of behavioral science, health science, education, and business.

Participants

Based upon other investigations examining organizational socialization (Ashford & Saks, 1996; Black, 1992; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Jones, 1986; Kim et al., 2005), organization commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990a), and the impact of values on commitment, satisfaction, and cohesion (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991), the sample for this investigation consisted of approximately 500 hospital volunteers. For the purposes of this investigation, only hospital volunteers completed a survey assessing organizational socialization tactics, organization commitment, perceived P-O fit, and satisfaction.

Hospitals selected to participate in the investigation were drawn from a convenience sample of Western Kentucky hospitals. Selected hospitals met the following criteria: (a) hospitals were within a 200-mile radius of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association, data each hospital reported its number of beds between 140 and 450 total beds, (c) each hospital has an active volunteer program, and (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture. In addition, the instrument will collect demographic information including gender, years of volunteer service, and age. All participants voluntarily chose to participate in the investigation. To insure confidentiality and anonymity all study participants reviewed the study preamble prior to participation in the investigation. The preamble (a) explained the purpose of the investigation, (b) advised participants of the voluntary nature of their participation and their ability to cease

participation in the investigation at anytime during the completion of the survey, (c) advised participants of potential harmful outcomes associated with their participation in the investigation, and (d) assured study participants confidentiality and anonymity (*see Appendix A for study preamble*).

Survey Instrument

Survey items were selected from four different scales measuring organizational socialization tactics (Jones, 1986), commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993), volunteer satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001), and perceived P-O fit (Cable & De Rue, 2002) (*see Appendix B for a sample of the survey*).

Socialization Tactics

Jones (1986) developed five scales to measure organizational socialization tactics as put forth by Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979). These scales measured organizational socialization tactics experienced by organization members using a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* (Jones, 1986). Jones' (1986) scales measure each of the following: (a) collective versus individual socialization tactics ($\alpha = .84$), (b) formal versus informal socialization tactics ($\alpha = .68$), (c) investiture versus divestiture socialization tactics ($\alpha = .79$), (d) sequential versus random socialization tactics ($\alpha = .78$), (e) serial versus disjunctive socialization tactics ($\alpha = .78$), and (f) fixed versus variable socialization tactics ($\alpha = .79$). The items within each scale factored load between .41 to .76 (Jones, 1986). When used in correlation study designs, positive and negative correlations between socialization tactic and a second variable are interpreted with positive correlations implying relationships between institutionalized socialization tactics and the second variable. Therefore, negative

correlations between socialization tactics and other variables represent relationships between individualized socialization tactics and the second variable (Jones, 1986). The researcher contacted Dr. Gareth R. Jones to seek permission to utilize items from each scale as part of this investigation. Permission was grant via email (*see Appendix C for permission email*).

The survey instrument developed for the purposes of this investigation selected three items from each of the following socialization tactic scales: *collective versus individual*, *formal versus informal*, *investiture versus divestiture*, *sequential versus random*, and *serial versus disjunctive* to measure the socialization tactics experienced by hospital volunteers. These scales measured the organizational member's perception of (a) socialization occurring in a group versus individual settings, (b) organization development of formal versus individual learning experiences, (c) actions that build up or attempted to change characteristics of each individual, (d) learning experiences that build upon each other, and (e) opportunities to be in contact with seasoned organization members while learning their new organizational roles. Items were reworded to reflect survey participant's volunteer position with the organization. In addition, the researcher reworded reverse-keyed items to avoid confusing the investigation's respondents.

Scales were reduced to control survey length as a measure to enhance survey response rate (Mangione, 1995). Other researchers have utilized Jones' (1986) socialization tactics scales without using all six items from each scale. For instance, Cable and Parsons (2001) selected two-items from each socialization tactic scale in an effort to keep their instrument's size manageable and increase response rate. For their investigation, Cable and Parsons (2001) only selected the two items from each scale that

factor loaded the highest to include in their instrument. As part of the proposed investigation, the researcher selected three items from each socialization scale. The selected items factored loaded as one of the top three items of the scale.

Affective Commitment

Hospital volunteer organizational commitment was measured using the Three-Component Model (TMC) of Employee Commitment. Use of the TCM Employee Commitment Survey, authored by John Meyer and Natalie Allen, was made under license from the University of Western Ontario, London, Canada. The TMC Model of organizational commitment measures affective, normative, and continuance commitment or what Meyer and Allen (2004) call “desire-based,” “obligation-based,” and “cost-based” commitment (p. 2) respectively. For the purposes of this investigation, the researcher selected three items from Meyer, Allen and Smith’s (1993) revised version of the affective commitment scale (ASC). This scale measured organizational commitment based on identification with, involvement in, and attachment to the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990b). The ACS scale uses a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. To obtain an affective commitment overall score, responses within the affective scale are averaged (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

The researcher again selected only three of the original six items composing the ACS to assist in the enhancement of survey response rates (Mangione, 1995). Meyer and Allen (2004) state “Our experience has been that the scales can be reduced in length to as few as three or four items each without a major impact on reliability” (p. 6). Meyer et al. (1993) report ACS $\alpha = .82$ when the ACS was utilized with a sample of registered nurses. Meyer et al. (1993) also report ACS $\alpha = .87$ and $.85$ when the scale was

administered to student nurses at the beginning and end of the year, respectively. Items of the ACS factor load ranging from .410 to .749.

The researcher reworded the scale's reverse-keyed items to avoid confusing the investigation's respondents. Meyer and Allen (2004) indicate that a significant amount of research has yet to examine the effects of rewording reverse-keyed item. However, Meyer and Allen believe the influence of changing reverse-keyed items will be minimal. In addition, they recommend such a change when the researcher believes the use of reverse-keyed items could potentially confuse respondents.

Volunteer Satisfaction

Volunteer satisfaction was measured utilizing dimensions of Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley's (2001) volunteer satisfaction index (VSI). Permission to utilize the VSI was granted to the researcher via email (*see Appendix C for permission email*). The VSI measured four dimensions of volunteer satisfaction including organizational support ($\alpha = .91$), participation efficacy ($\alpha = .84$), empowerment ($\alpha = .75$), and group integration ($\alpha = .87$) (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The VSI utilizes a 7-point scale ranging from *very dissatisfied* to *very satisfied*. To measure volunteer satisfaction for this investigation, the researcher selected three items from the VSI's empowerment and organizational support dimensions. As with the selection of items as part of the socialization tactic scales, items selected from the empowerment and organizational support dimensions of the VSI factored loaded the highest. Again, the decision to reduce the number of items within each dimension stems from a desire to improve the instrument's return rates (Mangione, 1995).

Perceived Fit

Cable and Judge (1996) and Cable and DeRue (2002) utilized three items to measure the perceived fit of job seekers and MBA graduates respectively. For this investigation, the researcher modeled the works of others (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996) to develop three items to measure the perceived P-O fit of hospital volunteers. The three items follow: "I find there is a good fit between my personal values and the values and culture of the hospital where I volunteer," "The values and culture of the hospital match my personal values," and "I see similarities between the things I value in my life and the things the hospital where I volunteer values." The perceived questions use a 5-point Likert scale 1 = not at all and 5 = completely. To ensure the content validity of the modeled items, the researcher contacted peers and co-workers ($N = 10$) asking each person to match the modeled question to its corresponding original perceived fit question. Table 13 presents the perceived fit content validity results.

Table 13

Perceived Fit Content Validity Results ($N = 10$)

Modeled Question	Matched Correctly	Matched Incorrectly
Question 1	10	0
Question 2	10	0
Question 3	10	0

The investigator worked with Western Kentucky's Office of Institutional Research to develop the survey in a scantron format (*see Appendix B for copy of survey*).

Pilot Study

The researcher conducted a pilot study prior to the data collection for the main investigation. The pilot study helped ensure (a) survey instructions are written in a concise and understandable format, (b) the survey format is understandable and easy to complete, (c) the survey format will adequately collect the data sought as part of the main investigation, and (d) the researcher has an opportunity to pilot data transfer into SPSS. The sample for the pilot study included volunteers in another healthcare setting (i.e., animal shelter, assisted living center, or nursing home).

Procedures

The researcher began the pilot study followed by data collection for the main investigation upon approval from the Human Subjects Review Committees at the University of Louisville and Western Kentucky University. A list of potential hospitals and medical centers were generated using the Kentucky Hospital Association website (<http://www.kyha.com/hospitals.asp>). The researcher then searched each institution's website to ascertain if it met the sampling criteria. Hospitals selected to participate in the investigation were drawn from a convenience sample of Western Kentucky hospitals. Hospitals met the following criteria: (a) hospitals were within a 200-mile radius of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association data each hospital reported its number of beds between 140 and 450 total beds, (c) each hospital has an active volunteer program, and (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture. A letter was sent to hospital

administrators or volunteer program directors requesting permission for the researcher to sample their hospital's volunteers. All letters were followed up with a phone call seeking permission, explaining the investigation, gathering any necessary volunteer contact information, and scheduling times to administer the survey. Meetings were scheduled with all volunteer program directors or hospital administrators as necessary. Institutions that permitted this study to take place will be provided with a copy of the results. To ensure the confidentiality of volunteers participating in the survey, all volunteer contact information will be coded and kept separate from survey results. In addition, survey results will be published without reference to individual volunteers or institutions participating in the investigation.

Data collection occurred during a 7-month period (August 2008 through January 2009). The researcher worked with each participating hospital's volunteer program director/hospital administrator to schedule survey distribution to willing hospital volunteers. Surveys were distributed at a volunteer staff meeting in which the researcher read the survey's introductory letter (*see Appendix D for introductory letters*), distribute the study preamble (*see Appendix A for sample preamble*), and distribute surveys with number two pencils. All surveys were collected immediately upon completion of the instrument. In the event the hospital did not have regularly scheduled volunteer meeting, the researcher worked with each institution's volunteer director/hospital administrator to make the study preamble, survey introductory letters, surveys, and number two pencils available for completion by hospital volunteers for a 2-week period.

Mangione (1995) suggests incentives may help reduce survey nonresponse rates. Therefore, at each participating hospital, volunteers participating in the investigation (i.e.,

completing and returning the informed consent form and survey) will be eligible to enter a drawing for a gift certificate to a local restaurant. Upon completing and returning the survey, all participating volunteers had the option to complete a separate incentive drawing slip and place the slip in a fishbowl. The researcher asked hospital personnel to draw a name from the bowl and award the gift certificate. Gift certificate (\$20.00) drawing slips were not linked survey data collected.

After checking for incomplete responses, all survey data were entered into Excel tabulation. The researcher planned to randomly split the sample into two samples ($n = 250$) for cross validation purposes. Data were then entered into SPSS for further analysis to address the study's hypotheses.

Analysis

Survey data was inputted to SPSS Student Version 11.0 for statistical analysis. SPSS is a desktop computer program designed to perform comprehensive data analysis. The researcher uploaded data into SPSS from Excel. Frequencies and distribution calculation occurred for all demographic data collected. Correlation analysis was used to determine the existence of relationships between the independent variables and dependent variables. The investigations independent variable includes the organizational socialization tactics utilized by the hospital. The investigation has three dependent variables including perceived P-O fit, organizational commitment, and satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This investigation sought to understand the socialization of volunteers (i.e., unpaid organization members) into the cultures of hospitals. The participants selected to take part in this investigation were drawn from a convenience sample of Western Kentucky hospitals. Selected hospitals met the following criteria: (a) hospitals were within a 200-mile radius of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association data each hospital reported its number of beds between 140 and 450 total beds, (c) each hospital has an active volunteer program, and (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture. The research question framing this investigation follows:

What impact do organization socialization activities have on volunteer (i.e., unpaid) organization member perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction.

Three research hypotheses resulted from this question. These hypotheses included:

Hypothesis 1: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit.

Hypothesis 2: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction.

This chapter describes the results of the investigation providing an analysis of the data collected using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Student Version 11.0. Correlation analysis was used to determine the existence of relationships between the independent variables (i.e., socialization tactics utilized by the hospitals) and dependent variables (i.e., P-O fit, job satisfaction, and organization commitment). Gravetter and Wallnau (2000) suggest correlation techniques describe variable relationships in situations in which the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the variables. The subsequent chapter presents a discussion of the implications of the investigation's results.

Pilot Study Results

The researcher conducted a pilot study for the purposes of ensuring (a) the survey instructions were written in a concise and understandable format, (b) the survey format was understandable and easy to complete, and (c) the researcher had an opportunity to pilot data transfer to SPSS. The pilot study included participants from area health and human services organizations ($N = 12$) with characteristics similar to participants in the main study. The administration of the pilot study mirrored procedures that the researcher followed as part of the main investigation. The researcher did not encounter areas of concern during the administration of the pilot study or while transferring data to SPSS. Pilot study participants completed the survey in approximately 10 minutes. As part of the pilot study's administration the researcher noted that study participants tended to leave some demographic questions blank.

Characteristics of Main Investigation Study Participants

The survey was distributed to 230 volunteers at six different hospitals in Western Kentucky. Of the 230 volunteers who received the survey at various volunteer meetings, the researchers collected 180 usable surveys. An additional hospital was asked to participate in the investigation, but declined to participate. All survey participants did not indicate their age, gender, or length of service with the organization.

Demographic characteristics collected as part of the investigation included gender, length of volunteer service, and age. Study participants were predominately female as females represented 74.4% of individuals completing the survey. Males represented 25.6% of individuals returning the survey.

Table 14 summarizes the age of the individuals participating in the investigation. An examination on this table reveals a predominate number of study participants were 65 years of age or older. Respondents indicating they were 75 years of age and older represents the highest percentage of study participants. No survey respondents indicate that they were ages 15-19, 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39 or 50-54.

Table 14

Participant Ages

Age	<i>n</i>	Percentage
40-44 Years	1	.6
45-49 Years	2	1.1
55-59 Years	5	2.8
60-64 Years	13	7.3
65-69 Years	33	18.5
70-74 Years	38	21.3
75- or Older	86	48.3

Volunteer length of service data indicates that 33.5 % of the investigation's participants volunteered at their hospital for 10 or more years. Respondents indicating lengths of service of 4-6 years and 1-3 years represented the second and third most selected responses with 22.5% of the respondents indicating service of 4-6 years and 19.1% of the volunteers indicating 1-3 years of volunteer service. Only 1.7% and 2.9% of the participants completing the survey were either just recruited or volunteered at their hospital for less than 3 months respectively. Table 15 presents an additional description of volunteer length of service.

Table 15

Volunteer Length of Service

Service	<i>n</i>	Percentage
Just Recruited	3	1.7
Less than 3 Months	5	2.9
3-6 Months	8	4.6
6-12 Months	1	0.6
1-3 Years	33	19.1
4-6 Years	39	22.5
7-10 Years	26	15.0
10 or More Years	58	33.5

In general, hospital volunteer directors reported volunteers in their programs go through a mandatory orientation covering all of the same essential elements (i.e., safety,

confidentiality, conflicts of interest, health information privacy /HIPAA, infection control, and facility tours) of trainings that hospital employees receive. In addition, volunteer training may include being matched with a buddy that is experienced in the area where the volunteer will work.

Results of the Main Investigation

Prior to conducting the correlation analysis in SPSS to address each of the three research hypotheses, reliability analysis using SPSS was conducted for each scale utilized in the survey. Utilizing SPSS, the researcher calculated Cronbach's alpha scores for each socialization scale as well as the P-O fit, satisfaction, and commitment scales. Vogt (2005) suggests Cronbach's alpha represents, "A measure of internal reliability or consistency of items in an instrument or index" (p.71). Vogt continues that researchers can expect to see Cronbach's alpha scores ranging from 0 to 1.0. When scores are .70 and above the value suggests the items in the scale measure the same thing.

Cronbach's alphas for the scales measuring the independent variables range from .78 to .90. The P-O fit Scale's alpha equaled .90, the satisfaction scale's alphas equaled .82 and .78, and the Commitment Scale alpha equaled .86. Cronbach's alphas for the Socialization Scales ranged from -.01 to .80. Cronbach's alpha scores for the Sequential - Random Socialization Scale equaled .80 and the alpha for the Serial-Disjunctive Socialization Scale equaled .77. Cronbach's alpha scores for the Investiture-Divestiture Socialization Scale equaled .39. Cronbach's alpha scores for the Formal-Informal Socialization Scale equaled .30. Cronbach's alpha scores for the Collective-Individual Socialization Scale equaled - 0.01. Table 16 provides the Cronbach's alpha scores all scales utilized on the survey.

Table 16

Cronbach's Alphas

Scale	Number of Items	<i>a</i>
Commitment Scale	3	.86
P-O fit Scale	3	.90
Satisfaction with Empowerment	3	.82
Satisfaction with Org. Support	3	.78
Serial-Disjunctive Socialization	3	.77
Sequential-Random Socialization	3	.80
Investiture-Divestiture Socialization	3	.39
Formal-Information Socialization	3	.30
Collective-Individual Socialization	3	-.01

Initial Cronbach's alpha calculations for three socialization scales, the Collective - Individual Socialization Scale, the Formal-Individual Socialization Scale, and the Investiture-Divestiture Socialization Scales, revealed each scale should have one item dropped. After dropping an item from each scale the resulting alphas equaled .65, .58, and .75 for each scale respectively. Table 17 presents the Cronbach's alpha scores for all scales after the recommended item was deleted from the Collective-Individual Socialization Scale, the Formal-Individual Socialization Scale, and the Investiture-

Divesture Socialization Scale. Subsequent correlation analysis run as part of this research investigation utilized the scales presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Cronbach's Alphas after Scale Items Deleted

Scale	Number of Items	α
Commitment Scale	3	.86
P-O fit Scale	3	.90
Satisfaction with Empowerment	3	.82
Satisfaction with Org. Support	3	.78
Serial-Disjunctive Socialization	3	.77
Sequential-Random Socialization	3	.80
Investiture-Divestiture Socialization	2	.75
Formal-Information Socialization	2	.58
Collective-Individual Socialization	2	.65

The researcher used SPSS to conduct Pearson correlation analysis to detect relationships between organization socialization as measured using the socialization scales and the volunteers' perception of P-O fit, commitment, and job satisfaction as measured using the scales measuring the volunteers' perception of satisfaction of organizational support and empowerment. Table 18 summarizes the correlation between each of the investigation's variables.

Table 18

Pearson Correlations among Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Serial	1								
Sequential	.511*	1							
Collective	.400*	.562*	1						
Formal	.427*	.389*	.440*	1					
Investiture	.586*	.541*	.346*	.290*	1				
Commitment	.522*	.549*	.595*	.323*	.514*	1			
P-O Fit	.445*	.533*	.371*	.363*	.418*	.451*	1		
Empowerment	.628*	.601*	.461*	.405*	.609*	.638*	.669*	1	
Org. Support	.548*	.669*	.456*	.427*	.626*	.582*	.671*	.791*	1

^a $N = 180$; *Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

^b A positive correlation between socialization tactic and any other variable is to be interpreted as the relationships between the institutional end of the continuum and the variable. A negative correlation indicates a relationship with the individualized end (Jones, 1986).

Correlations presented in Table 18 of particular interest to this investigation consist of the relationships between each socialization tactic and commitment, P-O fit,

and job satisfaction as measured assessing perceptions of satisfaction with organization support and empowerment. When interpreting relationships between the different socialization scales, Jones (1986) suggests that the nature of the scales dictates that a positive correlation between a socialization tactic and another variable is interpreted as a relationship between the institutionalized end of the socialization continuum and the variable. As part of this investigation, the institutionalized socialization tactics measured include collective socialization tactics, formal socialization tactics, sequential socialization tactics, serial socialization tactics, and investiture socialization tactics. When encountering a negative correlation between one of the socialization tactics and another variable, this is interpreted as a relationship between the variable and the individual socialization end of the socialization continuum. As part of this investigation, the individualized socialization tactics measured include individual, informal, random, serial, and divestiture socialization tactics.

The first null hypothesis posits there is not a relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer (i.e., unpaid organization member) perceptions of P-O fit. Correlations presented in Table 18 suggest that there is a positive correlation between serial-disjunctive socialization tactics and P-O fit ($r = .445, p < .01$). Using Jones' (1986) recommendation, this correlation finding suggests a relationship between serial socialization tactics and P-O fit. A positive relationship is also found between sequential-random socialization tactics and P-O fit ($r = .533, p < .01$). This positive relationship suggests there is a relationship between sequential socialization tactics and P-O fit. Examining the relationships between collective-individual socialization tactics and fit reveals a positive relationships between the variables ($r = .371, p < .01$). This positive

relationship indicates there is a relationship between collective socialization tactics and P-O fit. A positive correlation exists between investiture-divestiture socialization tactics and P-O fit ($r = .418, p < .01$). This positive relationship suggests a correlation between investiture socialization tactics and P-O fit. Finally, a positive correlation occurred between formal-informal socialization tactics and P-O fit ($r = .363, p < .01$). This positive correlation suggests a relationship between formal socialization tactics and P-O fit. These relationships support rejecting the first null hypothesis.

The second null hypothesis states that there is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer (i.e., unpaid organization member) commitment. Research findings present in Table 18 support rejecting this null hypothesis as each of the socialization tactics positively related to commitment. The positive relationships between serial-disjunctive socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .522, p < .01$), sequential-random socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .549, p < .01$), collective-individual socialization and commitment ($r = .595, p < .01$), formal-informal socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .323, p < .01$), and investiture-divestiture socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .514, p < .01$) should all be interpreted as relationships between institutionalized socialization tactics and commitment.

The final null hypothesis suggests that there is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer (i.e., unpaid organization member) perceptions of job satisfaction. Research findings present in Table 18 also support rejecting this null hypothesis as each of the socialization tactics positively related to perceptions of satisfaction with empowerment and organizational support. A positive correlation existed between serial-disjunctive socialization tactics and satisfaction with

empowerment and satisfaction with organization support. These correlations as presented in Table 18 were $r = .628, p < .01$ and $r = .548, p < .01$ respectively. This positive correlation is interpreted as a relationship between serial socialization tactics and satisfaction with both empowerment and organization support. Sequential-random socialization tactics also positively related to satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .601, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .669, p < .01$). This positive relationship is interpreted as a relationship between sequential socialization tactics and satisfaction with empowerment and satisfaction with organization support. Collective-individual socialization tactics related to satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .461, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .456, p < .01$). This correlation suggests a relationship with the collective socialization tactics and volunteer satisfaction. Finally, both formal-informal socialization tactics and investiture-divestiture socialization tactics correlate with satisfaction with empowerment and satisfaction organization support. Formal-informal socialization tactics positively correlate with satisfaction with empowerment $r = .405, p < .01$ and satisfaction with organization support $r = .427, p < .01$. Investiture-divestiture socialization tactics correlate to satisfaction with empowerment $r = .609, p < .01$ and satisfaction with organization support $r = .626, p < .01$. Positive correlations in these instances should be interpreted as relationships between the formalization socialization tactics and investiture socialization tactics and satisfaction. Both these socialization tactics occur in Jones' (1986) classification of institutionalized socialization tactics.

Summary

This chapter reported the data collected and results of the statistical tests conducted to examine the three research hypotheses examining the relationship among organization socialization tactics; organization commitment, P-O fit, and job satisfaction. Research findings support rejecting the three null hypotheses as positive relationships were found between the institutionalized socialization tactics studied as part of this investigation and the P-O fit, commitment, and satisfaction. Specifically, serial socialization tactics related to volunteer perceptions of commitment ($r = .522, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .445, p < .01$), and satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .628, p < .01$) and organization support ($r = .548, p < .01$). A positive relationship was found between sequential socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .549, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .533, p < .01$), and satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .601, p < .01$) and organization support ($r = .669, p < .01$). A positive relationship was also found between collective socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .595, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .371, p < .01$) and satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .461, p < .01$) and organization support ($r = .456, p < .01$). Finally a positive relationship occurred between formal and investiture socialization tactics and commitment ($r = .323, p < .010$ and $r = .514, p < .01$ respectively), P-O fit ($r = .363, p < .010$ and $r = .418, p < .01$ respectively) and satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .405, p < .01$ and $r = .609, p < .01$ respectively) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .427, p < .01$ and $r = .626, p < .01$ respectively). A more detailed discussion of the research findings and their implications for hospital administrators, namely volunteer directors, occurs in chapter 5.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter discusses and summarizes the results, implications, and conclusions of a study that investigated the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of hospitals. The investigation extended the body of literature focusing on organization socialization, as volunteers have not been a prominent sample in recent organization socialization research (Allen & Meyer, 1990a; Ashford & Saks, 1996; Cooper-Thomas, van Vianen, & Anderson, 2004; Jones, 1986). A review of organization socialization research revealed study samples composed of recent college graduates, college students, or paid organization newcomers. Examining research focusing on P-O fit (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2002; Huang et al., 2005; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Westerman & Cry, 2004) uncovers a similar sampling pattern. As investigations examining volunteer behavior have focused on (a) differences between paid and unpaid (i.e., volunteer) organization members and their perceptions of organization life (Gerstein et al., 2004; Laczko & Hanisch, 1999; Liao-Troth, 2001; Newton, 1995; Pearce, 1983) and (b) volunteer motivation (Carlo et al., 2004; Clary et al., 1992; Clary et al., 1998; Ely & Kirk, 2002; Finkelstein et al., 2005), this investigation examined volunteer socialization. Understanding the implications of volunteer socialization into the cultures of hospitals proves beneficial to administrators involved in the socialization and retention of volunteers as they examine and allocate resources to current socialization activities.

The investigation focused on understanding the impact of organization socialization activities on the volunteer (i.e., unpaid organization member) perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction. Three research questions framed the overall investigation including:

Hypothesis 1: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of P-O fit.

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of P-O fit.

Hypothesis 2: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of organizational commitment.

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: When organizations employ institutionalized socialization tactics, there is a positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction.

Null Hypothesis 3: There is no relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer organizational member perceptions of job satisfaction.

Research findings support the work of others examining organization socialization activities and the impact of socialization activities on organization member perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction. Included within readers will find a summary of investigation methodology and study findings.

Additionally, the chapter provides a discussion of study implications, study limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Review of Methodology

The current investigation used a convenience sample of volunteers from Western Kentucky hospitals. Volunteers selected to participate in the investigation were selected from hospitals that met the following criteria (a) hospitals were within a 200-mile radius of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association data each hospital reported its number of beds between 140 and 450 total beds, (c) each hospital has an active volunteer program, and (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture. For the purposes of this investigation only hospital volunteers completed the questionnaire assessing organizational socialization tactics, organization commitment, perceived P-O fit, and satisfaction.

The researcher selected and received permission to use items from three different scales measuring organization socialization tactics (Jones, 1986), commitment (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), and volunteer satisfaction (Galindo-Kuhn & Guzley, 2001). The researcher also modeled questions from P-O fit research (Cable & De Rue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1996) to assess volunteer perceptions of value congruence. In addition, the questionnaire collected demographic information pertaining to volunteer age, gender, and length of service with the organization. See *Appendix B* for a sample of the questionnaire. Cronbach's Alpha results conducted for the scales in this investigation revealed α scores ranging from .58 to .90. Vogt (2005) suggests α measures internal reliability or

consistency of items in a scale with alpha scores ranging from 0 to 1.0. Vogt states scores over .70 suggest the items of the scale measure the same thing.

Study participation occurred on a voluntary basis after the researcher received permission from each organization's volunteer director to attend an upcoming volunteer meeting. At each meeting the researcher explained the investigation, asked for voluntary participation in the project, distributed the investigation preamble, questionnaire, pencils, and collected all completed questionnaires. Upon completion of the survey, each organization's volunteer director distributed and collected door prize drawing slips from all individuals in attendance. The volunteer director then drew for a \$20 gift card provided by the researcher at each meeting.

The investigation's independent variables included organization socialization tactics. The dependent variables included organization commitment, P-O fit, and job satisfaction. The researcher entered data from returned questionnaires into SPSS for analysis. To address each hypothesis the investigator employed correlation analysis.

Summary of Study Findings

A total of six different Western Kentucky Hospitals agreed to participate in the investigation. One organization asked to participate in the investigation declined. At volunteer meetings of these organizations the researcher distributed surveys to 230 volunteers. Of the 230 volunteers who received surveys, the researcher collected 180 useable surveys, yielding a 78.2% return rate. Females represented 74.4% of individuals completing the questionnaire and males represented 25.6% of individuals completing the questionnaire. The largest percentage (48.5%) of volunteers completing the instrument indicated they were 75 years of age or older. Individuals indicating they were 70 to 74

years of age represented the second largest age classification selected with 21.3% of survey participants selecting this age classification. The frequency distribution of volunteer length of service revealed the largest percentage of volunteers worked with their hospital for 10 or more years. A small percentage of volunteers selected the length of service classifications of just recruited or less than 3 months as these classifications were selected by 1.7% and 2.9% of survey participants.

As the goal of the investigation included examining relationships among organization socialization tactics employed by these institutions and volunteer perceptions of organization commitment, P-O fit, and job satisfaction, the researcher utilized correlation analysis. When analyzing the independent variable, organization socialization tactics employed by the hospital, with each of the dependent variables, P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction, the results revealed significant positive relationships among the socialization tactic and each independent variable. Jones (1986) suggests a positive correlation among the socialization tactic and another variable reveals a relationship between the institutionalized socialization tactic and the variable. As part of this investigation the institutionalized socialization tactics investigated included collective, formal, sequential, serial, and investiture socialization tactics (Jones, 1986). Based on Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979), definitions of each socialization tactic *collective socialization* tactics provide common learning experiences in a group setting while *formal socialization tactics* separate organization newcomers while they learn their new role within the organization. *Sequential socialization tactics* provide identifiable stages of learning while *serial socialization tactics* use experienced organization members to assist in the training process by serving

as role models to newcomers. Finally, *investiture socialization tactics* help validate new organization members' characteristics and values.

Extrapolating from the definitions provided by Van Maanen (1978) and Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and research findings relating to the null hypotheses in the current investigation, results reveal organization socialization tactics that provided common learning experiences separated from the seasoned organization members (i.e., *collective socialization tactics*) positively related to volunteer perceptions of organization commitment ($r = .595, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .371, p < .01$), satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .461, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .456, p < .01$). Similarly, socialization tactics that separated new organization volunteers from others while they learned new organization roles positively (i.e., *formal socialization tactics*) related to commitment ($r = .323, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .363, p < .01$), satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .405, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .427, p < .01$).

Socialization tactics that provided new volunteers identifiable stages of learning (i.e., *sequential socialization tactics*) also positively related to perceptions of volunteer commitment ($r = .549, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .533, p < .01$), satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .601, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .669, p < .01$). While organization socialization tactics that allowed new volunteers to work with seasoned volunteers who model organization roles (i.e., *serial socialization tactics*) positively related to commitment ($r = .522, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .445, p < .01$), satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .628, p < .01$), and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .548, p < .01$). Finally, socialization tactics utilized by hospitals in this

investigation that validated new volunteer values and characteristics (i.e., *investiture socialization tactics*) positively related to commitment ($r = .514, p < .01$), P-O fit ($r = .418, p < .01$), satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .609, p < .01$), and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .626, p < .01$). These findings suggest that the three null hypotheses proposing that a relationship does not exist between organization socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organization commitment, P-O fit, and job satisfaction should be rejected.

Study Findings and Implications

The first research hypothesis investigated relationships among organization socialization tactics employed by the hospitals who participated in the investigation and volunteer perceptions of value congruence between the organization and its members, or P-O fit as defined by Chatman (1989). The null hypothesis proposed that a relationship would not exist among institutional socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit. As summarized above, a positive relationship existed among the institutional socialization tactics examined in this investigation and the volunteers' perception of value congruence or P-O fit. Specifically, we see the following relationships (a) *collective socialization tactics* positively related to volunteer perceptions of P-O fit ($r = .371, p < .01$), (b) *formal socialization tactics* related to P-O fit ($r = .363, p < .01$), (c) *sequential socialization tactics* positively related to perceptions of volunteer P-O fit ($r = .533, p < .01$), (d) *serial socialization tactics* positively related to P-O fit ($r = .445, p < .01$), and (e) *investiture socialization tactics* positively related to P-O fit ($r = .418, p < .01$). Hence, when the hospitals in this investigation provided socialization experiences, that provided common learning experiences in which new volunteers were separated

from others while learning, experienced identifiable phases of learning, had the opportunity to learn from experienced members who acted as role models, and had their values validated the potential existed for P-O fit or value congruence to increase.

This positive relationship between institutionalized socialization tactics employed by the organization and volunteer perceptions of P-O fit confirms previous research conducted by Kim et al., (2005). Kim and colleagues found not only did institutionalized socialization tactics relate to P-O fit perceptions, but when newcomers positively framed their socialization experiences, they experienced greater P-O fit perceptions than peers who negatively framed the socialization process. The findings also support the positive relationship that Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004) found between investiture socialization tactics and P-O fit perceived by organization members after 4 months of organization membership. The findings presented in the current investigation do not concur with the work of Cable and Parsons' (2001) who found that formal and collective socialization tactics do not enhance P-O fit perceptions. But, the findings of this investigation do support Cable and Parsons finding that sequential socialization tactics do contributed to P-O fit perceptions.

Many researchers have demonstrated the importance of P-O fit. For instance, Chatman (1991) found that P-O fit positively associated with organization member job satisfaction and decreased intention to leave the organization. Similarly, O' Reilly et al. (1991) found P-O fit positively related to organization member job satisfaction and normative commitment (i.e., obligation to stay) while negatively relating to organization turnover and intention to leave. Cable and Judge (1996) also found another important aspect of organization - organization member value congruence is the fact that P-O fit

positively related to willingness to recommend the organization to others. Other researchers have also found worthy aspects of P-O fit including the mediating the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction in instances where LMX is low (Erdogan et al., 2002) and the ability of P-O fit to enhance organization member satisfaction with the organization CEO and contribution to extra effort to work (Huang et al., 2005).

Implications pertaining to the relationships found between socialization tactics and P-O fit, or organization-organization member value congruence, of particular interest to volunteer directors stem from the ability of the director to positively influence volunteer P-O fit and the positive associations other researchers have found between P-O fit and other organization outcomes. By providing socialization experiences that positively related to P-O fit, volunteer directors have the opportunity to develop a pool of volunteers who may potentially recommend the organization to others (Cable & Judge, 1996). This is an important fact, as Becker and Dhingra (2001) found social ties of church members influenced decisions to volunteer. A willingness by the volunteer to recommend the organization to their friends assists the volunteer director in *word-of-mouth* volunteer recruitment. Additionally, Huang et al. (2005) found an association between P-O fit and extra effort to work. This extra effort to work may result in increased productivity as volunteers fulfill their roles within the organization. Finally, Cable and Judge (1996) found a positive relationship between P-O fit and decreased intention to leave. This relationship potentially helps volunteer directors retain committed volunteers who believe in the organization's values, may recommend the organization to their peers, and potentially exert extra effort while fulfilling their roles within the organization. Considering the resources (i.e., time, expertise, and monetary) needed to train volunteers

and expenses associated when faced with situations in which a pool of new volunteers must be trained to fill roles of volunteers who leave, the organization building socialization practices that enhance P-O fit will be economically beneficial to the organization. The savings achieved via potential reductions in volunteer training activities as volunteer intention to leave decreases and the need to continuously train new volunteers decreases, in increased volunteer productivity, and volunteer word of mouth recruitment via a willingness to recommend the organization to their peers could be reallocated to other organization endeavors.

The second research hypothesis examined the relationship among institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of organization commitment. The null hypothesis predicted that there would not be a relationship between these tactics and volunteer perceptions of organization commitment. For the purposes of this investigation, organization commitment was identified as defined by Meyer and Allen's (1991) description of affective commitment of feelings of attachment, involvement, or identification with the organization. As summarized in the previous section we see that research findings support rejecting this null hypothesis. Namely, we find the research results suggest the following positive relationships between socialization tactics and organization commitments. *Collective socialization tactics* positively related to volunteer perceptions of organization commitment ($r = .595, p < .01$). *Formal socialization tactics* related to commitment ($r = .323, p < .01$). *Sequential socialization tactics* also positively related to perceptions of volunteer commitment ($r = .549, p < .01$). *Serial socialization tactics* positively related to commitment ($r = .522, p < .01$). *Investiture socialization tactics* positively related to commitment ($r = .514, p < .01$). Therefore,

when the hospitals in this investigation provided socialization experiences that provided common learning experiences in which new volunteers were separated from others while learning, experienced identifiable phases of learning, had the opportunity to learn from experienced members who acted as role models, and had their values validated, the potential existed for perceptions of organization commitment to increase.

The positive relationship among institutionalized socialization tactics and organization commitment found in this investigation supports the works of other researchers. Ashford and Saks (1996) found institutionalized socialization tactics positively related to job satisfaction, organization commitment, and organization identification. Mignerey et al. (1995) found that institutionalized socialization tactics related positively to increased organization commitment, and newcomer information and feedback-seeking behaviors. Cooper-Thomas et al. (2002) concur that institutionalized socialization tactics predict not only organization commitment, but also job satisfaction.

Other researchers have demonstrated the value of having a pool of committed organization members. For instance, the work of Meyer et al. (1989) and Preston and Brown (2004) suggest that affective organization commitment positively associated with performance. Namely, Meyer et al. (1989) found affective commitment associated with manager performance while Preston and Brown (2004) found that affective commitment positively associated with volunteer board member performance. Cuskelly and Boag (2001) found that volunteer sports administrators who continue their association with their organization were more committed than those who left the organization. Mowday et al. (1979) found that organization commitment negatively related to organization member intention to leave and positively related to job involvement and job satisfaction.

An important implication of the associations among institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteers perceptions of organization commitment not only stem from the ability of the organization to positively influence organization commitment, as new volunteers begin to understand the hospital's culture, but are also found in the associations established by other researchers between organization commitment and other organization outcomes. Namely, providing organization socialization activities that enhance volunteer commitment may also help develop a pool of committed volunteers that potentially continue their involvement with the organization for a longer timeframe (Cuskelly and Boag, 2001; Mowday et al., 1979). As is the case with the positive relationships found among institutionalized socialization and P-O fit, the volunteer director again has the opportunity to use organization socialization practices to assist in the retention of committed volunteers as Mowday et al. (1979) found a negative relationship between organization commitment and intention to leave the organization. Additionally, these volunteers may also perform their specific duties at a higher level (Meyer et al., 1989; Preston & Brown, 2004) resulting in potential increases in productivity and/or enhancing the image of the organization within the community as volunteers who perform their duties at a higher level may exceed the expectations of the hospitals constituents.

The final research hypothesis examined the relationships among institutionalized socialization tactics employed by the hospital and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction. When interpreting the implications of this investigation relating to job satisfaction, the reader should remember the concept of job satisfaction is interpreted through the context of the hospital volunteer fulfilling their role within the organization

without being monetarily compensated for their services. The specific aspects of job satisfaction examined included satisfaction with empowerment and satisfaction with organization support. The null hypothesis posited that a relationship did not exist among institutionalized socialization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction. As summarized in the previous section of this chapter a positive relationship existed between in the institutionalized socialization tactics employed and the volunteer's perception of job satisfaction.

Expressly, this study found find that (a) *collective socialization tactics* positively related to volunteer perceptions satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .461, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .456, p < .01$); (b) *formal socialization tactics* related to satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .405, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .427, p < .01$); (c) *sequential socialization tactics* positively related to perceptions of volunteer satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .601, p < .01$) and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .669, p < .01$); (d) *serial socialization tactics* positively related to satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .628, p < .01$), and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .548, p < .01$); and (e) *investiture socialization tactics* positively related to satisfaction with empowerment ($r = .609, p < .01$), and satisfaction with organization support ($r = .626, p < .01$). Based on these findings, this study found that when the hospitals in this investigation provided socialization experiences that provided common learning experiences in which new volunteers were separated from others while learning, experienced identifiable phases of learning, had the opportunity to learn from experienced members who acted as role

models, and had their values validated, the potential existed to increase each volunteer's satisfaction with empowerment and organization support.

The positive relationship identified in this investigation between institutionalized organization tactics and volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction confirm the works of other researchers examining the relationship between organization socialization and job satisfaction. For instance Jones (1986) found that institutionalized socialization tactics related to greater job satisfaction. This finding was confirmed by Allen and Meyer (1990a). Likewise, Ashford and Saks (1996) found that institutionalized socialization tactics positively related to job satisfaction. Finally, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2002) found the institutionalized socialization tactics predicted not only organization commitment, but also organization member job satisfaction.

Researchers have demonstrated the importance of job satisfaction as they have examined organization life. Testa (2001) found when food service employees perceived greater job satisfaction; this facilitated not only organization commitment, but also potentially increased employees' effort to work. Yui et al. (2001) found in their investigation of YMCA volunteers that when volunteers perceived higher levels of work satisfaction they also found their work was more fulfilling and reported lower levels of exhaustion. Additionally, these volunteers perceived higher levels of satisfaction and YMCA center integration, and they also continued their organization involvement for a longer period of time.

The findings from this study suggest that through institutionalized socialization activities volunteer directors potentially have the ability to positively influence volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction during the socialization process. When volunteers

experienced socialization that provided common learning experiences, the potential exists to increase volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction. In addition, when the hospitals in this investigation provided socialization experiences, in which new volunteers were separated from others while learning their new role, this potentially increased volunteer job satisfaction perceptions. Finally, when socialization experiences provided distinct phases of learning, provided experienced volunteers to model volunteer roles for organization newcomers, and socialization experiences provided confirmation and validation of the volunteer's existing values, volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction increased.

Again, volunteer directors have a means to positively influence their pool of volunteer workers by building volunteer perceptions of job satisfaction through the organization socialization activities they provided to new volunteers. Examining the works of others who have investigated relationships between job satisfaction and other variables reveals increased organization member perceptions of job satisfaction may be very beneficial to the organization. For instance, Testa (2001) found that increased job satisfaction may also facilitate additional organization commitment and extra effort to work. Increasing perceptions of volunteer job satisfaction may also contribute to feelings that the volunteer's work within the organization fulfilled expectations and may contribute to the volunteer's willingness to continue service with the organization when coupled with integration into the organization (Yui et al., 2001). In this instance not only do institutionalized socialization tactics potentially increase job satisfaction, the tactics also contributed to volunteer expectations of fulfillment through their organization roles with increased commitment and increased effort. These findings again contributed to volunteer

recruitment efforts and potentially relate positively to the director's ability to keep a pool of satisfied hospital volunteers.

As the findings of this investigation suggest positive relationships among socialization practices that (a) provide common learning experiences (i.e., *collective socialization tactics*), (b) separated workers from others while learning (i.e., *formal socialization tactics*), (c) allow newcomers to experience identifiable phases of learning (i.e., *sequential socialization tactics*), (d) allow for opportunities to learn from experienced volunteers acting as role models (i.e., *serial socialization tactics*), and (e) validate new volunteers values (i.e., *investiture socialization tactics*) all positively related to organization commitment, job satisfaction, and P-O fit, the researcher recommends these practices continue. Continuation of socialization practices that build P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction potentially leads to several beneficial organization outcomes as identified by other researchers. For instance, O'Reilly et al. (1991) found organization-organization member value congruence (i.e., P-O fit) positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related intention to leave while Cable and Judge (1996) found P-O fit also related to greater organization commitment. Meyer et al. (1989) found affective commitment or feelings of attachment, involvement and identification with the organization associated positively with manager performance. Similarly, Preston and Brown (2004) found positive associations with volunteer board member performance and affective commitment. Finally, Testa (2001) found when food service employees perceived greater job satisfaction, this also facilitated organization commitment and potentially greater effort to work.

Study Limitations

The investigation did possess potential limitations to the generalizability of investigation findings.

1. The participants of this investigation consisted of a convenience sample of those volunteers who chose to participate. Additionally, volunteers participating in this investigation were selected from hospitals that meet the following criteria: (a) hospitals were within a 200-mile radius of Western Kentucky University, (b) based on current Kentucky Hospital Association data, each hospital reported its number of beds between 140 and 45 total beds, (c) each hospital had an active volunteer program, and (d) hospital volunteers participate in some type of training/socialization into the organization's culture.
2. The sample consisted of a homogeneous group of volunteers working for hospitals in Western Kentucky only. Individuals volunteering for other human services organizations did not participate in the investigation. Additionally, the sample primarily included individuals who had indicated they had volunteered for the organization for 10 or more years. Few volunteers participating in the investigation selected the length of service categories of just recruited or less than 3 months of volunteer service. Finally, majority of the volunteers participating in this investigation were 65 years of age or older. Few participants of the investigation indicated they were under 65 years of age or younger.

3. The investigation's response rate suggests another limitation to the generalizability of the findings of the study. Initially, the investigator desired to obtain a sample of 500 usable completed surveys. This sample would then be randomly split into two samples of ($n = 250$) for purposes of cross validation of research findings. The numbers of volunteers working within hospitals selected to participate in the investigation did not yield enough useable samples to allow the researcher to cross validate the investigation's findings.
4. Study participants relied on their ability to recall their socializations experiences when completing the questionnaire.
5. The generalizability of the results is limited by the nature of the roles fulfilled by the hospital volunteers participating in the study. The range of roles filled by these individuals do not included high stress positions within the organization.
6. Social desirability or the tendency for individuals to present themselves in a good light or avoid looking bad (Bickman & Rog, 1998) may present another limitation of the investigation. Volunteers participating in this investigation may have answered survey questions in such a manner that made their hospital and/or volunteer director look good regardless of their true feelings.

Recommendations for Future Research

Other avenues of research pertaining to the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of health and human service organizations exist. The researcher makes the

following recommendations for future research investigating the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of organizations. Future research may explore whether increases in volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction yield increases in length of volunteer service with the organization and/or better volunteer performance of their duties.

This investigation dealt mainly with the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of hospitals; however, many other health and human service organizations utilize volunteers to extend services. Therefore, future research may also examine the socialization of volunteers into the cultures of other health and human service organization to determine if institutional socialization tactics produce similar results. Future research may also employ a longitudinal design allowing the researcher to focus on recently recruited volunteers and those who have just completed organization socialization programs.

In addition, this investigation focused primarily on the socialization activities undertaken by the institution; future research may also examine the role of volunteers in their socialization into organization culture focusing on how their behaviors such as information and feedback-seeking behavior, positive framing, volunteer self-esteem, and volunteer tolerance for ambiguity or uncertainty influence socialization outcomes. Additionally, future research may also follow the works of Comer (1991) or the works of Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992). These researchers investigated the role of individual action as part of organization socialization processes. As such, these investigations could begin investigating the types of information (i.e., task, group or social, organizational) sought by volunteers during organization socialization, the channels (i.e., the organization

via handbooks or manuals, co-workers, supervisors) through which new volunteers seek their information, and the tactics (i.e., observation, questioning co-workers or supervisors, other third parties) the new volunteers employ to gather their information. Future research may also examine other aspects of volunteer job satisfaction as Galindo-Kuhn and Guzley (2001) also identified participation efficacy and group integration as dimensions of their Volunteer Satisfaction Index. Finally, future research might also explore the effects of relationships between the volunteers and their supervisor and how these influence volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, or job satisfaction during organization socialization.

Summary

Volunteers fulfill vital roles within health and human service organizations. As such volunteers provide the "Equivalent of 10.5 million full-time employees" (Smith, 2001, p. 20). Globally, volunteers enhance the economies of western and European nations contributing approximately \$64 billion and \$16 billion to the economies of the United Kingdom and Canada respectively (Smith, 2001). Research findings from this investigation indicated that when hospitals in this investigation utilize socialization tactics that provide common learning experiences in environments that separate new volunteers from others as they learn their new role, provide specific stages of learning, allow experienced volunteers to act as role models for new volunteers, and confirm the values and characteristics of new volunteers, these characteristics positively associate with volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, and job satisfaction as measured by volunteer satisfaction with organization support and empowerment. Additional research might focus on how individual actions during their entry into the

culture of the hospital interact with organization socialization tactics to influence volunteer perceptions of P-O fit, organization commitment, or job satisfaction.

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APENDIX A
Study Preamble

Volunteer entry into hospital culture: Relationships among socialization, P-O fit,
organizational commitment and job satisfaction

Date _____

Dear _____

You are being invited to participate in a research study by answering the attached survey about the socialization of volunteers into the culture of hospitals. The survey collects information about the kind of socialization/training you experienced and your perceptions of value congruence (P-O fit), job satisfaction and organization commitment. There are no known risks for your participation in this research study. The information collected may not benefit you directly. The information learned in this study may be helpful to others. The information you provide will provide future hospital administrators with an understanding of the importance of volunteer socialization/training and any relationship between the type of training utilized and volunteer perceptions of value congruence (i.e., P-O fit), job satisfaction, and organization commitment. Your completed survey will be stored at Western Kentucky University Department of Education Administration, Leadership, and Research. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes of your time to complete.

Individuals from the Department of Education Administration, Leadership, and Research at WKU and/or the University of Louisville, the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the Human Subjects Protection Program Office (HSPPO), and other regulatory agencies may inspect these records. In all other respects, however, the data will be held in confidence to the extent permitted by law. Should the data be published, your identity will not be disclosed.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. By completing this survey you agree to take part in this research study. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to be in this study you may stop taking part at any time. If you

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Page 1 of 2

Initials: _____ **Date:** _____

decide not to be in this study or if you stop taking part of at any time, you will not lose any benefits for which may qualify.

If you have any questions, concerns, or complaints about the research study, please contact: Tricia Jordan at (270) 871-6669 or Dr. Jeanne Fiene at (270) 745-2942.

If you have any questions about your rights as a research subject, you may call the Human Subjects Protection Program Office at (502) 852-5188. You can discuss any question about your rights as a research subject, in private, with a member of the Institution Review Board (IRB). You may also call this number if you have other questions about the research, and you cannot reach the study doctor, or want to talk to someone else. The IRB is an independent committee made up of people from the University community, staff of the institutions, as well as people from the community not connected with these institutions. The IRB has reviewed this research study.

If you have concerns or complaints about the research or research staff and you do not wish to give your name, you may call 1-877-852-1167. This is a 24 hour hot line answered by people who do not work at the University of Louisville.

Sincerely,

Signature of the Investigator

Signature of the Co-Investigator

APPENDIX B

Volunteer Survey

Survey of Volunteer Opinions

Use No. 2 Pencil Only

Instructions: Included is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they volunteer. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now volunteering, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by using the scale provided.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
2. I feel like "part of the family" at my organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
3. The organization has a great deal of personal meaning to me.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
4. When I was a new volunteer I was extensively involved with other new volunteers in common, job related training activities.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
5. There is a sense of "being in the same boat" amongst new volunteers in this organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
6. Most of my training has been carried out apart from other new volunteers.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
7. I did not perform any volunteer activities until I was thoroughly familiar with appropriate procedures and work methods.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
8. Much of my knowledge related to volunteering has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
9. I have been through training experiences that provided me with a thorough knowledge of job related skills.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
10. I feel that experienced volunteers have held me at a distance until I conformed to their expectations.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
11. Almost all of the volunteers have been supportive of me personally.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
12. My fellow volunteers have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
13. This organization puts new volunteers through an identifiable sequence of learning.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
14. The movement from different organizational roles and functions builds upon clearly defined experiences within the organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
15. There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one volunteer assignment leads to another in this organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
16. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing experienced volunteers.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
17. I have received guidance from experienced volunteers as to how I should perform my service.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
18. I have access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
	Very Dissatisfied			Very Satisfied			
19. The chance I have to utilize my knowledge and skill in my volunteer work.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
20. The access I have to information concerning the organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
21. The freedom I have in deciding how to carry out my volunteer work.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
22. The availability of getting help when I need it.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
23. The support I receive from people in the organization.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
24. The degree to which the organization communicates its goals and objectives to volunteers.....	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
25. I find there a good fit between my personal values and the values and culture of the hospital where I volunteer.....	Not at all			Completely			
	①	②	③	④	⑤		
26. The values and culture of the hospital match my personal values.....	①	②	③	④	⑤		
27. I see similarities between the things I value in my life and the things the hospital where I volunteer.....	①	②	③	④	⑤		

Gender Length of Service (please mark one)

(M) ☐ Just Recruited ☐ 1-3 Years

(F) ☐ < 3 months ☐ 4-6 Years

☐ 3-6 Months ☐ 7-10 Years

☐ 6-12 months ☐ 10 or more years

Age (please mark one)

☐ 15-19 Years ☐ 40-44 Years ☐ 60-64 Years

☐ 20-24 Years ☐ 45-49 Years ☐ 65-69 Years

☐ 25-29 Years ☐ 50-54 Years ☐ 70-74 Years

☐ 30-34 Years ☐ 55-59 Years ☐ 75 Years or older

☐ 35-39 Years

Thank you for participating in our survey!

APENDIX C

Permission Emails

Hi Tricia, yes please go ahead and use them, good luck in your research, Gareth

From: DTJordan [mailto:dtjordan@peoplepc.com]

Sent: Sunday, October 21, 2007 7:27 PM

To: Jones, Gareth

Subject: Request to utilize Scales Measuring Socialization Tactics for Dissertation

Dear Dr. Jones,

While conducting research for my dissertation I discovered you have completed research in the field of organizational behavior. Namely, you have developed and validated a measure organization socialization tactics. I am writing today to inquire if I may incorporate items from your scales measuring socialization tactics in my dissertation examining the socialization of hospital volunteers.

I am currently preparing my research proposal for defense. The proposed investigation specifically examines the organizational socialization of unpaid (i.e., volunteer) organizational members. I am seeking to understand if socialization tactics, utilized in the socialization of paid organizational members, have similar outcomes when used with a population of volunteers. As such, I am examining the following variables (a) socialization tactics, (b) organizational commitment, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) person-organization fit (P-O fit).

I would like to request permission to use items from your socialization scales as part of my dissertation instrument.

Thank you for your consideration of my request. If you have further questions, please feel free to contact me at jordata@wku.edu or dtjordan@peoplepc.com so we may discuss your concerns.

Sincerely,

Tricia Jordan

Doctorial Candidate

Western Kentucky University / University of Louisville

Dear Tricia,

I have attached the 40-item VSI for your use. It is advised that you not reduce the number of items as it is a faceted measure with 8 items tapping each of 5 dimensions of volunteer satisfaction. If you adopt use of the VSI, my co-author and I would like to receive a copy of your final work.

Sincerely,

Roseanna Galindo-Kuhn

Director, Volunteer Services

Enloe Medical Center

Chico, CA

roseanna.galindo-kuhn@enloe.org

(530) 332-4575

(530) 893-6922 fax

"The miracle is this - the more we share, the more we have."

From: DTJordan [mailto:dtjordan@peoplepc.com]

Sent: Sunday, October 21, 2007 5:57 PM

To: RGuzley@csuchico.edu; Volunteers

Subject: Request to utilize VSI items in research for dissertation

Dear Dr. Guzley and Ms. Galindo-Kuhn,

While conducting research for my dissertation I discovered you have completed research in the field of volunteer satisfaction. Namely, you have developed and validated the Volunteer Satisfaction Index (VSI). I am writing today to inquire if I may incorporate items from your scales measuring volunteer satisfaction in my dissertation examining the socialization of hospital volunteers.

I am currently preparing my research proposal for defense. The proposed investigation specifically examines the organizational socialization of unpaid (i.e., volunteer) organizational members. I am seeking to understand if socialization tactics, utilized in the socialization of paid organizational members, have similar outcomes when used with a population of volunteers. As such, I am examining the following variables (a) socialization tactics, (b) organizational commitment, (c) job satisfaction, and (d) person-organization fit (P-O fit).

I would like to request permission to use items from your Volunteer Satisfaction Index as part of my dissertation instrument.

Thank you for your consideration of my request. If you have further questions, please feel free to contact me at jordata@wku.edu or dtjordan@peoplepc.com so we may discuss your concerns.

Sincerely,

Tricia Jordan

Doctorial Candidate

Western Kentucky University / University of Louisville

APPENDIX D

Survey Letters

Insert Date

Insert Name Hospital Administrator

Insert Hospital Name

Insert Address

Insert City, State Zip

I am writing today to ask your help in a study of hospital volunteers being conducted as part of my doctoral research at Western Kentucky University and the University of Louisville. I am requesting the opportunity to survey your <insert hospital name> current volunteers. Through this survey I am seeking to understand the relationship among socialization tactics employed by the hospital and volunteer perceptions of commitment, job satisfaction, and value congruence (i.e., does the individual perceive their values match the values of the hospital).

Results of the survey will provide insight into the processes that hospitals use to socialize incoming volunteers and relationships among these processes and valued outcomes such as organizational commitment, satisfaction, and value congruence. By understanding these relationships, hospital administrators may better utilize human and fiscal resources to recruit and socialize incoming volunteers.

Each hospital volunteer will have the opportunity to choose to participate in this research project. Individuals may end their participation in the survey at any time. All answers will be kept completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which individual answers will not be linked or identified by name.

As a token of my appreciation all volunteers who choose to participate in the research project will be eligible to enter a drawing for a gift certificate to a local restaurant. Hospital's that permit the researcher to contact their current volunteers will be provided a copy of the investigation's results.

I will be following up this letter with a phone call within the next 7 to 10 days to discuss your organization's participation in this project. Thank you for your time and consideration. It is only with the generous help of individuals like you that my research can be successful.

Sincerely,

Tricia Jordan
Western Kentucky University /
University of Louisville
Doctoral Candidate

Survey Introduction

Today I am asking your help in a study of hospital volunteers being conducted as part of my doctoral research at Western Kentucky University and the University of Louisville. I am requesting that you participate in a survey of current hospital volunteers. Through this survey I am seeking to understand the relationship among socialization tactics employed by the hospital and volunteer perceptions of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and value congruence (i.e., do you perceive your values match the values of the hospital).

Results of the survey will provide insight into the processes that hospitals use to socialize incoming volunteers. Specifically, we will have a better understanding of relationships among these processes and valued outcomes such as organizational commitment, satisfaction, and value congruence. By understanding these relationships, hospital administrators may better utilize human and fiscal resources to recruit and socialize incoming volunteers.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. In addition, you may end your participation in this survey at anytime. All answers are kept completely confidential and will be released only as summaries in which individual answers will not be linked or identified by name.

I will be distributing a number two pencil, study preamble further explaining the investigation and providing you with my contact information, and a copy of the survey. I would greatly appreciate your participation. If you choose to participate, please sign and return the informed consent document. Then take a moment to complete the survey by shading in the oval corresponding to the answer that you choose for each question. The survey should take approximately 10 -15 minutes to complete

As a token of my appreciation of your participation in this project, you may choose to participate in a drawing for a gift certificate to a local restaurant <insert name>. If you would like to participate in the drawing, after you return your survey and consent form please take a moment to sign your name on the slip of paper provided and drop it in the box. We will have the drawing after everyone has completed the survey.

Again, thank you for your assistance. If you have any questions please feel free to ask.

CURRICULUM VITAE

NAME: Tricia Ann Jordan

ADDRESS: 155 Audubon Loop
Madisonville, KY 42431

DOB: Waterloo, Iowa- July 22, 1969

EUDCATION
& TRAINING: B.A., Community Recreation
University of Northern Iowa
1988 – 1991

M.S., Recreation & Sports Administration
Western Kentucky University
2000 – 2002

M.A., Communication
Western Kentucky University
2004 – 2006

Ph. D. Education Administration, Leadership, & Research
University of Louisville / Western Kentucky University
2002 – 2009

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