

ROLE OUTCOMES OF SCHOOL DIVISION SOCIALIZATION TACTICS FOR  
MIDDLE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN VIRGINIA

by

John David Cochran

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in

Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

APPROVED:

---

Claire Cole Curcio, Chair

---

Lisa G. Driscoll, Co-Chair

---

Jean B. Crockett

---

Stephen R. Parson

---

Douglas E. Arnold

November 29, 2001  
Blacksburg, Virginia

Key words: Socialization, School Divisions, Principals  
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Claire Cole Curcio, Committee Chair

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(ABSTRACT)

This study investigated how school divisions in Virginia socialized new middle school principals, and the effects this socialization had on the principals' role. It also examined the effects of school division characteristics and principal traits on the selection of socialization tactics and on role outcomes. Consistent with theory, the results suggest that the choice of different socialization tactics lead to different role outcomes. Specifically, the tactics concerned mainly with the social aspects of newcomer principal adjustment were most influential in moderating levels of role conflict and role ambiguity, and to a lesser degree in determining role orientation. The results also suggest that the size and wealth of school divisions effect the selection of some socialization tactics. Further, the results suggest that the age, gender, and ethnicity of principals influence the determination of role orientation, and moderate the levels of role conflict and role ambiguity.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

"We embark at birth on a lifelong education-- first under the direction of others, but soon on a voyage in which we are the captain. We determine the cargo, the route, and the destination" (Sheehan, 1996, p. 34). As an adult learner, I have experienced the truth of Dr. Sheehan's words. I chose to enter the Danforth Program at Virginia Tech. At the completion of this course work, I chose to continue in the doctoral program. I may well be the captain of my ship, but I would stress that I am *only* the captain. Left to my own devices, I would have been the captain of a small, rubber raft adrift in a large ocean. Instead, I am indebted to an educational community and to a support group that made the voyage a cruise on a luxury liner!

I would like to thank the faculty and staff of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. It is a privilege to be associated with this prestigious institution. In particular I thank two professors, Christina M. Dawson, and Stephen R. Parson, who contributed so graciously to my growth through the Danforth Regional Program of Principal Preparation. Beyond the professional guidance of the faculty, it was the support and encouragement of my Roanoke cohort (1996-1998) that enabled me to survive the rigors of work and study. Thanks especially to Terry, Dean, and Lou Ann.

In every story of adventure on the high seas, there is the disaster of shipwreck and the thrilling tale of a rescue. At a time when my doctoral process was in danger of sinking, a group arrived to help me chart a new course. They supplied me with encouragement and support so that my stores were ample for the remainder of the voyage. They were my committee, and I cannot thank them enough. My committee members included: Claire C. Curcio, Lisa G. Driscoll, Jean B. Crockett, Stephen R. Parson, and Douglas E. Arnold. In particular, Dr. Curcio and Dr. Driscoll are worthy of special mention. Each gave unselfishly of their time when their own lives were full of change.

My lighthouse throughout the journey has been my family. My wife, Anna, gave constant encouragement and support when the gale winds were in my face. She provided numerous kinds of technical assistance that made the finished product much better than would have been true otherwise. Our children, David and Elizabeth, each manned an oar and taught me the finer parts of English grammar. Neither would allow me to abandon ship. My mother, Geneva, a retired schoolteacher, instilled in me the value of education and wholly supported the endeavor.

Many others contributed to the successful completion of my dissertation including a host of readers, numerous fellow principals, and several school divisions. I would like to thank Martinsville City Schools and Pittsylvania County Schools for their support. Thanks to Paulette Gardner for always being cheerful and always being helpful.

Dave Cochran  
Martinsville, Virginia

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## CHAPTER ONE

### THE PROBLEM

#### The Background for the Study

Several years ago, much attention was directed towards the essential role of principals in school effectiveness (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Today, with the increasing focus on the relationships between student achievement and school climate, the principal is held accountable for the school's performance (Mizell, 1994). Principals can expect increased scrutiny of their performance (Educational Research Service, 2000).

#### The Statement of the Problem

The performance for which principals will be held accountable was found by Heck (1995) to depend, at least in part, upon the organizational socialization of new principals that takes place in school systems. Organizational socialization can be defined as the process by which someone new to the organization is taught and learns "the ropes" of a particular organizational role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Heck stated "organizational socialization directly affected administrative performance" (p. 31). Duke (1988) and Glasman (1990) reported few school systems had programs to socialize new principals. In a recent study of school systems, less than one-half had a formal induction or mentoring program for new principals (Educational Research Service, 1998).

Perhaps the problem lies in the fact that so little is understood about the socialization process and how it affects the beginning principal's job performance (Heck, 1995). There is little information documenting how organizational socialization may affect beginning principal performance across a variety of role outcomes (Marshall, 1992; Schmidt, 1990). Role outcomes are the effects of the socialization process upon the role agreements, upon the participants, and upon the organization in the process (Hart, 1993). According to Wanous (1992), one focus of the teaching and learning that takes place in organizational socialization is the new role. While the new role has implicit or explicit agreements tied to what tasks are performed, when they are performed, and how they are performed (Feldman, 1976), these agreements are subject to acceptance, modification, or rejection, in whole or in part (Feldman, 1976; Schein, 1971).

The problem to be addressed by the present study concerns the ways organizational socialization influences principal performance as related to role outcomes. Specifically, the present study will look at the influence of different types of socialization tactics.

In selecting a population for study, middle school principals in Virginia were selected; they are the least researched group of principals owing to the fact that they work in the most recent configuration of schooling models, the middle school (Rettig & Canady, 2000). Middle school students range in age from 10-14 years and exhibit wide diversity in maturation, sharing characteristics with both elementary school children and secondary school students (Jenkins & Shacter, 1975). Thus, it will be an assumption in this study that principals in middle schools are

not appreciably different from their colleagues at either of the other two levels of school organization.

### The Purpose of the Study

The initial purpose of this study is to learn how middle school principals are socialized in Virginia. A second purpose for this study is to attempt to determine the relationship between the ways middle school principals are being socialized and the effects this socialization is having on the principals' roles. The present study will also seek to determine the possible moderating effect that personal variables brought by the principal to the process might have, and the moderating effect that contextual variables brought by the school division to the process might have. Baron and Kenny (1986) defined a moderating effect as one in which the strength of relationship between two variables is a function of the level of the moderator. This study will examine, for example, whether the years of experience that one veteran principal brings to a new principalship influence the socialization process when compared to the novice principal entering the principalship for the first time. In this example, experience would be a moderating variable.

### The Design of the Study

Given these stated purposes, middle school principals will provide information about how they were socialized and their perceptions related to their job role during the socialization process. The present study will replicate a study by Jones (1986) in which he was able to elicit this kind of data from a group of business school graduates as they accepted employment. The Jones study has been frequently used with success, sometimes with adaptations, as the basis for further research in the business field, but has not been used in the field of education. (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Black, 1992). Jones and the other researchers cited have conducted their studies among employees in the larger business community. This study extends Jones' research by examining the relationship between socialization practice and role outcomes among a group of educators. Because the instruments in the Jones study are built upon the theoretical model of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) that is non-specific with regards to type or place of employment, it is assumed these instruments will function equally well in an educational context. Van Maanen and Schein were able to show "some recognizable and pervasive socialization processes used across virtually all organizational settings and with all kinds of individuals" (p. 218). The theoretical foundations, methods, and results of the Jones' study will be discussed in the review of literature that follows in Chapter Two.

### Delimitations

#### Research Limitations

One limitation that is inherent in using the Jones (1986) methodology is that it relies upon self-reported measures. Questions are naturally raised as to the accuracy and generalizability of the participants' perceptions and their willingness to respond honestly. Future studies might

include data from additional sources, such as a peer group or supervisors (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Wanous & Colella, 1989).

A second limitation is that in following the Jones (1986) methodology, the present study relies upon theoretical assumptions not fully explained by empirical research (Allen & Meyer, 1990). An example (presented in more detail in the literature review) is the reversal by Jones of the investiture-divestiture classification theorized by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). While the rationale of Jones for making the change appears sound, there is only limited empirical evidence for his approach, or for the Van Maanen and Schein theory. Future studies will need to provide evidence of the validity of the Jones classification.

A third limitation of the present study is that it considers only one aspect of the socialization process, socialization tactics. Socialization tactics are defined as mechanisms for the structuring of newcomers' experiences, whether formal or informal, whether deliberately or unconsciously applied, that impart information about the norms and expectations associated with the new job (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). "Socialization tactics," far from being pejorative, is the preferred term in the literature of organizational socialization and contains the sense of securing a strategic objective (Hart, 1993; Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). By focusing on socialization tactics, the present study evaluates principal role outcomes of the organizational socialization process based upon what the school division has done without considering the influence that the local school context may bring to bear. Future studies will need to be designed to include variables from the local school context (Heck, 1995).

A fourth limitation of the present study will be the period of time for which socialization will be reported. The first section of the research instrument asks participants to respond regarding the first year of their present principalship. Those who were appointed prior to the 1998-1999 school year are then requested to stop with the first section and return their questionnaires. This fourth limitation creates parameters for defining current socialization practice in Virginia.

### Research Assumptions

There are five assumptions that are basic to the present study. First, it is assumed that the target population of middle school principals is not likely to be socialized in a way that is different from other principals at other levels. Therefore, it is assumed that any findings from the present study will be transferable to other groups of principals. It is further assumed that principals, not school divisions, have major control over the socialization of assistant principals (Marshall, Mitchell, & Scott, 1992; Valverde, 1980). Therefore, assistant principals will not be included in the target population.

Second, it is assumed that because the Virginia school divisions included in the study can be described by a full range of demographic variables, they are not different from local education agencies across the United States. Therefore, any findings of the present study may be transferable to other local education associations.

Third, it is assumed that if a relationship is found between the type of organizational socialization used by a school division and the principal role outcomes, school divisions could use this information to intentionally design organizational socialization processes that would be in harmony with desired outcomes. Further, it is part of this assumption that the descriptive information provided by this study, if disseminated, will have an influence on how school divisions plan for the socialization of newcomer principals. It is assumed that predictive information from this study will be used by school administrators at the division level to plan for the organizational socialization of newcomer principals.

Fourth, it is assumed that the methodologies and instruments replicated from the Jones (1986) study will be reliable when used among educators. This assumption is based upon the rationale discussed previously.

Fifth, it is assumed that the terms newcomer, beginner, rookie, novice, and new or beginning, when used as an adjective before the name of a particular type of employee, all refer to a person or persons within the initial period of employment. The present study will follow the research findings of Duke, Isaacson, Sagor, and Schmuck (1984) that this period of initial employment in which socialization is intense is approximately one year in length.

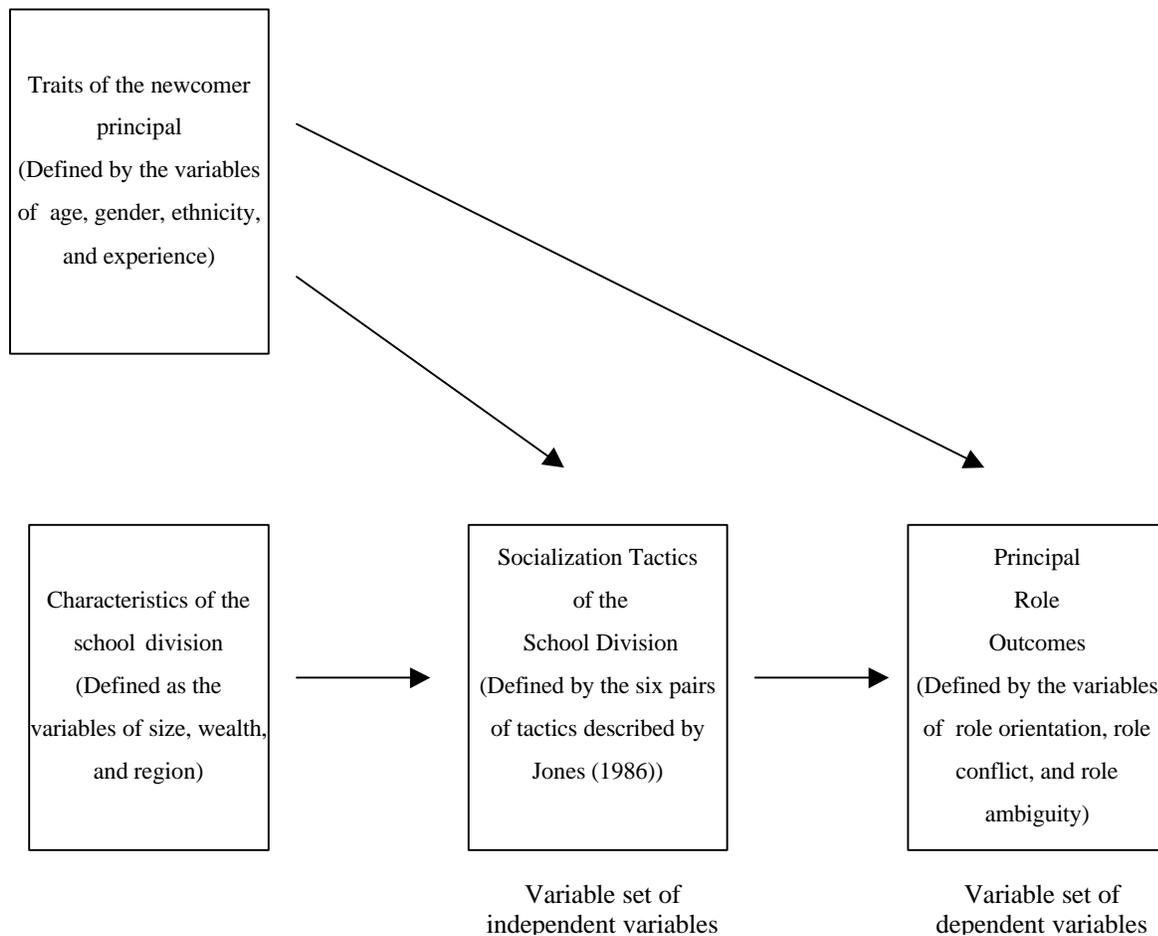
### Research Questions

Four research questions will guide the present study. These four research questions are summarized conceptually in the model (Figure 1) that follows. The research questions are:

1. What choice of socialization tactics is employed by the school divisions in Virginia to provide for the organizational socialization of middle school principals?
2. Is there a relationship between the types of socialization tactics employed by the school divisions and the role outcomes among principals?
3. Is there a relationship between the size, wealth, and geographical region of Virginia public school divisions and the socialization tactics employed in the organizational socialization of middle school principals?
4. Does age, gender, ethnicity, or experience account for any significant difference with regards to the role outcomes of the principals involved in the present study, or with regards to the use of socialization tactics?

### Definitions

In the section that follows constitutive and operational definitions are provided for each construct. Terms are more fully developed in the review of the related literature in Chapter Two. The section will begin with the terms related to socialization tactics, proceed to the terms related to role outcomes, and conclude with the terms related to the demographics of principals and school divisions.



**Figure 1.** Theoretical model for the study. In this model, the characteristics of the school division have a relationship to the socialization tactics employed by the school division to influence the role outcomes among principals. The traits of the newcomer principals are shown to have an influence on both the socialization tactics and principal role outcomes.

## Constitutive and Operational Definitions for Socialization Tactics

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) developed a theory of how employees are socialized by employers that included a framework of socialization tactics. The authors recognized twelve different tactics available to employers for the organizational socialization of new employees. Van Maanen and Schein arranged these twelve tactics into six pairs of tactics; each pair forms a tactical dimension. While the two tactics that make up each tactical dimension appear as opposites, there is considerable range between them so that they may be thought of as ends of a continuum. Each tactical pair is defined below according to the theory of Van Maanen and Schein. Each pair is discussed in detail in the review of the literature. The six pairs of tactics are operationally defined by the first 30 items (Jones, 1986) on the questionnaire (Appendix B). There are six 5-item scales based on a Likert-type format.

### Collective v. Individual

Collective tactics involve the movement of a group of newcomers through the same induction process together. Individual tactics are those that process people through organizational socialization individually and in relative isolation from other newcomers. These tactics are defined operationally by items 1-5 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Formal v. Informal

Formal processes of organizational socialization segregate the newcomer from other organizational members and make this newcomer status clear to all involved. Informal tactics do not differentiate the newcomer from other organizational members. These tactics are defined operationally by items 6-10 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Investiture v. Divestiture

Investiture tactics uphold the skills and job "know how" of the newcomer. Divestiture tactics reject all skills and "know how" that have been accepted before by other organizations. These tactics are defined operationally by items 11-15 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Sequential v. Random

Sequential tactics require that the newcomer complete a series of specific steps in order to reach the target role. Random socialization tactics are often ambiguous, unclear, or change frequently. These tactics are defined operationally by items 16-20 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Serial v. Disjunctive

Serial tactical processes involve the use of a mentor or role model. Disjunctive tactics are marked by the absence of mentors or role models in the process of organizational socialization. These tactics are defined operationally by items 21-25 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

## Fixed v. Variable

Fixed tactics move the newcomer through a series of learning experiences for which there is a clear timetable. Variable tactics do not inform the newcomer as to "how much" or "how long" of an experience is enough to satisfy the demands of learning the role. These tactics are defined operationally by items 26-30 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

## Constitutive and Operational Definitions for Role Outcomes

### Role Orientation

The way in which employees carry out their assigned roles and adjust to the various tasks assigned to them is called role orientation (Jones, 1986). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) identified two polar extremes to which a newcomer's response to the job role may gravitate. In a custodial orientation, the newcomer accepts the role as it has been traditionally practiced. In an innovative orientation, the newcomer rejects the purpose of the job and the procedures for performing it as practiced by other role occupants (Van Maanen & Schein). The newcomer redefines the purpose of the role and reinvents the procedures for performing it. Role orientation is defined operationally as either innovative or custodial by items 31-35 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Role Conflict

Role conflict can be defined as the stress that arises when an employee and an employer have different expectations related to the purpose and performance of the employee's role (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Role conflict is defined operationally by items 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, and 48 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

### Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is defined as a lack of clarity in the job role (Rizzo, et al., 1970). It is defined operationally by items 36, 37, 39, 41, and 44 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

## Constitutive and Operational Definitions for the Demographics of Principals

### Age

Age is defined as the number of years old of the participant. It is defined operationally by item 49 on the questionnaire (Appendix B). Participants identify themselves on the survey within age groups: (a) 29 and younger, (b) 30-34, (c) 35-39, (d) 40-44, (e) 45-49, (f) 50-54, (g) 55-59, and (h) 60 and older.

## Gender

Gender identifies whether the participant is male or female. It is defined operationally by item 50 on the questionnaire (Appendix B). In this nominal level scale, males are coded with the numeral 1, and females are coded with the numeral 2.

## Ethnicity

The participants will self-select ethnicity from among the five Federal racial/ethnic categories: a) Asian, b) Black, c) Hispanic, d) Native American, or e) White (Virginia Department of Education, 2000). It is defined operationally by item 51 on the questionnaire (Appendix B). In this nominal level scale, the groups are assigned the numerals 1 through 5 in the same order they are listed here.

## Experience

Within the scope of the participant's career as a principal, the number of times the participant was newly assigned to a school as its principal will constitute the measure of experience. It is defined operationally by item 52 on the questionnaire (Appendix B).

## Constitutive and Operational Definitions for the Characteristics of School Divisions

### Size

The size of the Virginia school division will be defined as the reported total for Fall Membership for the Commonwealth of Virginia for the 2000-2001 school year. Each school in a division reports its Fall Membership as the student membership on the last school day in September of the school year. The operational definitions are the membership figures available on-line (Virginia Department of Education, 2000a) and reported in Appendix C.

### Wealth

The expression for wealth of the Virginia school division will be defined as its Composite Index. The formula for computing the Composite Index includes local property values, local gross income, local retail sales, local population, and local membership within the schools as compared to state totals in each of these same categories. The operational definitions are the figures available on-line (Virginia Department of Education, 2000b) and reported in Appendix C.

### Region

The region in which a Virginia school division is located is defined by its inclusion in one of the eight regions in Virginia called the Superintendent's Study Group Regions (see the map in Appendix D). The operational definition for region will consist of the school division in which the participant is employed, and the corresponding region identified from the table in Appendix

D. Information on the employing school division accompanies the data obtained in the section on the study population.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

#### Conceptual Overview of Organizational Socialization

In the section that follows, the roots of organization socialization will be traced to the perspectives of several social scientists. The general process of socialization within societies will be defined. The emergence of organizational socialization as a branch of general socialization will be presented. In the work of Schein (1990) on culture, a construct will be reviewed that ties these themes together.

#### Socialization Defined

Brim and Wheeler (1966) defined socialization as that process through which persons acquire the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that enable them to function at varying degrees in their society. They stated that the function of socialization was to turn the "human raw material" into good working members of society (p. 5). The authors suggested that the content of the socialization process consisted of an understanding of the different positions within the social structure and the attendant role and behavior prescriptions. Brim and Wheeler viewed this process as an on-going one that extended throughout adulthood, and not as a task limited to childhood.

Bandura (1986, 1997) constructed a theoretical basis for research into the socialization process. His social learning theory or social cognitive theory asserts social learning can be explained by the processes in which people acquire behaviors and attitudes through observing and interacting with others and modeling what they have observed. This social learning on the part of those who observe and learn is then transferable to new situations in which the learner responds in a manner similar to the way the model would, even though the learner did not observe the model's behavior in this new situation.

#### From Socialization as Adults to Organizational Socialization

Brim (1966) argued persuasively that the social development of individuals continues through the years so that the person is always in a state of "becoming." Building on the work of Brim, Van Maanen (1976) pointed out that individuals are required to adjust to social role demands throughout the life cycle. Van Maanen made specific application of this truth by applying it to the work that people do. By directing attention to the setting in which most people work, the organization, Van Maanen revealed a special division of general adult socialization known as organizational socialization. He defined organizational socialization as the process by which the individual learns the values, norms, and behaviors prescribed by the organization.

This definition of organizational socialization has received further elaboration by Feldman (1976, 1981), who described it as the process by which recruits are transformed from outsiders to effective organizational members. For Feldman, organizational socialization

involved not only new work, but also new work associates, and new work practices. Newcomers are required to undergo a multiple socialization process including new skills, new norms and values, new friends, and new patterns of behavior.

### Organizational Socialization and the Concept of Culture

Schein (1990) defined culture as learned responses to a set of major internal and external tasks faced by every group of humans. Examples of internal tasks included: (a) a common language and conceptual system to be used by the group; (b) criteria for inclusion, intimacy, and friendship; and (c) the allocation of rewards and punishments. Examples of external tasks included: (a) the core mission and primary tasks of the group, (b) the goals to be pursued by the groups, (c) the means for achieving the goals, (d) the means for evaluating results, and (e) remedial strategies if goals are not reached. The dynamics of culture cover all areas of group life for Schein. Culture is equally observable in the universal issues faced by a society and in the job issues raised in an organization that employs persons to work. Therefore, culture is perpetuated and reproduced in the organizational socialization of new members who enter the group.

### Organizational Socialization in the Workplace

In this section, the major theoretical models of organizational socialization will be discussed. A summary of the research in the field will be presented. Individual variables and contextual variables in the process of organizational socialization will be reviewed. Within this section, the discussion will also include moderating variables as well as the outcomes of socialization.

### Theoretical Models in Organizational Socialization

Fisher (1986) described the literature on organizational socialization as fragmented. He concluded the research had proceeded in piecemeal fashion, and an integrated theory did not exist. Since Fisher's criticism, Saks and Ashforth (1997) summarized the research and attempted to set forth an integrated model. The outline of Saks and Ashforth consists of: (a) the model of Van Maanen and Schein (1979), (b) uncertainty reduction theory, (c) social learning theory, (d) cognitive and sense making theory, and (e) the multi-level process model of the authors. A review of the work of Saks and Ashforth will be presented in the paragraphs below with one modification. Immediately following the model of Van Maanen and Schein, a review of an adaptation of the Van Maanen and Schein model by Jones (1986) will be inserted.

### The Theory of Van Maanen and Schein (1979)

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) offered a typology of socialization tactics that represents the closest thing in the literature to a testable theory of organizational socialization. The two authors wrote that the theory delineates "a set of interrelated theoretical propositions about the structure and outcome of organizational socialization processes" (p. 214).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) suggested six bipolar tactics: (a) collective versus individual socialization processes, (b) formal versus informal socialization processes, (c) sequential versus random socialization processes, (d) fixed versus variable socialization processes, (e) serial versus disjunctive socialization processes, and (f) investiture versus divestiture socialization processes. In the paragraphs that follow, these six tactical dimensions will be discussed in some detail.

Collective v. individual. In collective versus individual socialization, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) identified whether the newcomers pass through a process of socialization as individuals or whether all newcomers are processed by the organization as a group. The collective process is like an army boot camp in which everyone gets a haircut, everyone wears green, and everyone marches to the mess hall. Individual socialization involves a process unique to the individual newcomer. Individual socialization is typical for many professional offices. Adding associates in a law firm, new dentists to a dental office or school administrators to the principal's office are examples of the latter.

Formal v. informal. In formal socialization, new members are segregated from the normal workspace (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Specific orientation and job-training programs are examples. In more informal processes, a newcomer is put into the actual work setting with little attention being drawn to the fact that the person is new. Principals have typically been inducted through this informal type of process (Duke, et al., 1984).

Sequential v. random. In sequential versus random socialization, the process is sequential if it involves a series of clear and definable steps leading to the target goal (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Physicians are socialized sequentially as they go to college, enter medical school, gain an internship, go through residency, pass the medical exam, and then begin practice. Principals also pass through a sequential process that includes teacher certification and experience, additional education, an administrative internship or assistantship, followed by principal certification. Random processes occur in roles like that of a general manager. In a random process, several assistant managers may be vying for the general manager position. Selection for this upper level position is based on criteria that may not be clear to the assistant managers competing for the general manager job.

Fixed v. variable. In fixed versus variable socialization, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) divided practices based upon whether newcomers move from newcomer to accepted member along a time line or in no known chronological sequence. In fixed socialization, the time parameters are concrete. Included in this type of process are practices with probationary periods and training programs. With variable socialization, the organization does not design a clear timetable of events for moving the newcomer towards full acceptance. The process is left open to chance and the astuteness of the newcomer. Principals generally follow this latter process (Duke, et al., 1984).

Serial v. disjunctive. In serial versus disjunctive socialization, processes characterized by the use of role models are serial (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The term “serial” denotes a process in which information about the job is handed down from old-timer to newcomer in a

deliberate manner. Apprenticeship and mentoring programs are examples. Disjunctive processes are those in which role models are deliberately withheld. The new employee is left alone to figure things out. For example, in a study of 403 school superintendents, The Educational Research Service (1998) reported that just under half of the superintendents indicated that their school districts used a formal mentoring program.

Investiture v. divestiture. In investiture versus divestiture socialization, Van Maanen and Schein (1979) described investiture tactics as those that assume the newcomer arrives with desired skills and qualifications to be confirmed. A new physician arrives at the hospital for the first time and is immediately put to work. The hospital staff confirms and supports the doctor's skills and qualifications. Likewise, a new principal generally assumes full responsibility following appointment to the role (Educational Research Service, 2000). On the other hand, a recruit arriving at army basic training will be stripped of everything and told he is "nothing." This stripping away is divestiture.

Having reviewed the theory of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) in the preceding paragraphs, the adaptations of Jones (1986) to the work of Van Maanen and Schein are reviewed in the section that follows. Included in the review is a description of the empirical research Jones conducted using his adapted theory.

#### The Jones (1986) Adaptation of Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) Theory

Figure 2 shows how Jones (1986) constructed a classification of socialization tactics from Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) theoretical framework. Using the six dimensional pairs of tactics described in the preceding paragraphs, Jones divided the twelve tactics into three groups of four based upon a characteristic commonality: context, content, or social aspects. The first group of four tactics was concerned mainly with the context in which organizations present information to newcomers. A collective context means newcomers were socialized within a group. Jones (1986) found collective context tactics produce a status quo response to the job role, called a custodial role orientation. He based his judgment upon the idea that standardized group learning produces a standardized response. Individual context tactics were found by Jones to produce a creative response to the job role, called an innovative role orientation. The basis of Jones' judgment in this case was that individual learning allows for heterogeneity in responses.

Jones (1986) also included formal and informal tactics under the context category. In a formal setting, newcomers are segregated from experienced members of the organization while they learn. In this way, the newcomers hear only the official version of organizational life. This increases the likelihood they will develop custodial roles, according to Jones. By contrast, informal practice takes place on the job within the presence of the regular work force. Newcomers socialized in this manner hear far more than the official company policy. In the interaction with older members of the work force, they learn the company myths, traditions, and laws for survival. This informal practice gives newcomers more latitude towards personalization of the job role.

Tactics concerned mainly with:	<b>Institutionalization</b>	<b>Individualization</b>
CONTEXT	Collective Formal	Individual Informal
CONTENT	Sequential Fixed	Random Variable
SOCIAL ASPECTS	Serial Investiture	Disjunctive Divestiture

Figure 2. Jones (1986) Classification of Socialization Tactics

The second group of four tactics concerns the content of the information to be communicated to the newcomers in the Jones (1986) model. Sequential tactics provide newcomers with clear information concerning the sequence of experiences they will go through in the organization. Fixed tactics provide an exact timetable for the completion of each sequential activity or experience. In contrast to sequential tactics, random tactics do not offer a sequence of stages for the sharing or receiving of information from the organization. Contrasted with fixed tactics, variable tactics provide no information about when a newcomer might reach a certain point in the process of socialization. Jones found random and variable tactics do not reveal a future path and increase uncertainty, thereby encouraging innovative response to the job role. Jones disagreed with Van Maanen and Schein (1979) who hypothesized the opposite effect for variable tactics. According to Van Maanen and Schein, variability increases anxiety, which pushes persons towards a custodial role orientation.

The third group of four tactics deals with the social aspects of information delivery to the newcomers as organized by Jones (1986). Van Maanen and Schein (1979) believed that divestiture resulted in a custodial response because organizations intend such tactics to mold newcomers into organizational forms. They suggested that serial tactics produce a custodial role, because experienced members of the organization serve as role models for newcomers. Jones was willing to accept the case for serial tactics producing custodial responses but rejected the notion that divestiture produces a custodial role. He found that divestiture may cause newcomers to question the definitions of situations offered by others, thus stimulating an innovative role orientation.

Jones (1986) tested his classification system and hypotheses with a population of 282 MBA students from two successive graduating classes at a major midwestern university. They completed two questionnaires, one after employment but prior to starting the job and the other approximately five months after entry. The questionnaire completed prior to starting considered only self-efficacy. The second questionnaire measured the six socialization tactic pairs as developed by Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and six outcome variables: role orientation, role conflict, role ambiguity, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and commitment. Out of the population of 282 graduates, 102 persons participated. Of these, there were 73 men and 29 women with an average age of 24.7 years.

Of the two questionnaires employed by Jones (1986), elements of the second are of particular interest because they will be used with only slight modification in the present study. The second questionnaire was designed to measure (a) socialization tactics, (b) role orientation, (c) role conflict, (d) role ambiguity, (e) commitment to the organization, (f) job satisfaction, and (g) intention to quit. Appendix A contains the scales used by Jones.

On this second questionnaire Jones (1986) created the first six scales of five items each to measure socialization tactics as operationally defined by Van Maanen and Schein (1979). Jones constructed the instrument by including each facet of each tactic as described by Van Maanen and Schein as an item in a scale. The socialization practices were paired for each scale based on the nature of the practices. Although the different ends of the scales bear different names, they are not bipolar. The scales are based on a Likert-type format. For example, one scale measures

formal practice and informal practice. Neither the scale, nor the nomenclature, is intended to suggest mutually exclusive types, but to suggest degrees to which the practice shares features defined as formal or informal. A school division may plan a socialization process for principals that includes elements classified in this study as formal and some classified as informal. The scales allow for degrees of practice to be evaluated by taking the sum of the five items in each scale.

Role orientation in the questionnaire of the Jones (1986) study was measured on a scale of five items using a Likert-type format. The format offered seven responses ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Scores on each of the five items were summed. A high score on the role orientation scale indicated an innovative role orientation. A low score indicated a custodial role orientation.

Role conflict and role ambiguity were measured in the Jones (1986) study by scales developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). Jones chose a shortened form of a scale developed by Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) to measure commitment to the organization. Jones measured job satisfaction with the 7-point faces scale of Dunham and Herman (1975). Intention to quit appeared on the questionnaire of Jones in the form of two questions: “I will probably look for a new job in the coming year,” and “I scan the newspapers and other sources for prospective jobs.” Among these scales, only the Rizzo et al. scales are of concern to the present study.

Jones (1986) conducted an analysis to investigate the relationship between the socialization tactics and the personal and role outcomes using canonical correlation analysis (see Figure 3). This methodology was chosen because there were multiple dependent and multiple independent variables. The methodology was an appropriate choice because it developed conservative linear combinations of dependent variables that maximized correlations between each set of the linear combinations. In Figure 3, the structure coefficients are the beta weights used to form the respective dependent (X) and independent (Y) linear combinations. Applying the standardized weights to the respective variables produced the canonical variables. Canonical variables are produced when two sets of variables, X and Y, are weighted to obtain the largest possible correlation between the two linear combinations (Pedhazur, 1997). The results of this analysis give two significant canonical functions, with the first accounting for most of the variance. The first canonical function represents an institutional pattern of socialization tactics. The second canonical function represents an individual pattern.

Relating these results to the structure coefficients of the dependent variables reveals that for the first canonical set, low role conflict and low role ambiguity load the heaviest. On the independent variable side, investiture, serial, sequential, and fixed tactics load the heaviest. Considering the dependent variables on the second canonical set, role orientation is the only dependent variable loading heavy. Among the independent variables in the second canonical set, individual tactics, random tactics and variable tactics load highest, in that order. These results suggest an innovative orientation is the main result of individualized tactics. By contrast, institutionalized tactics produce custodial roles.

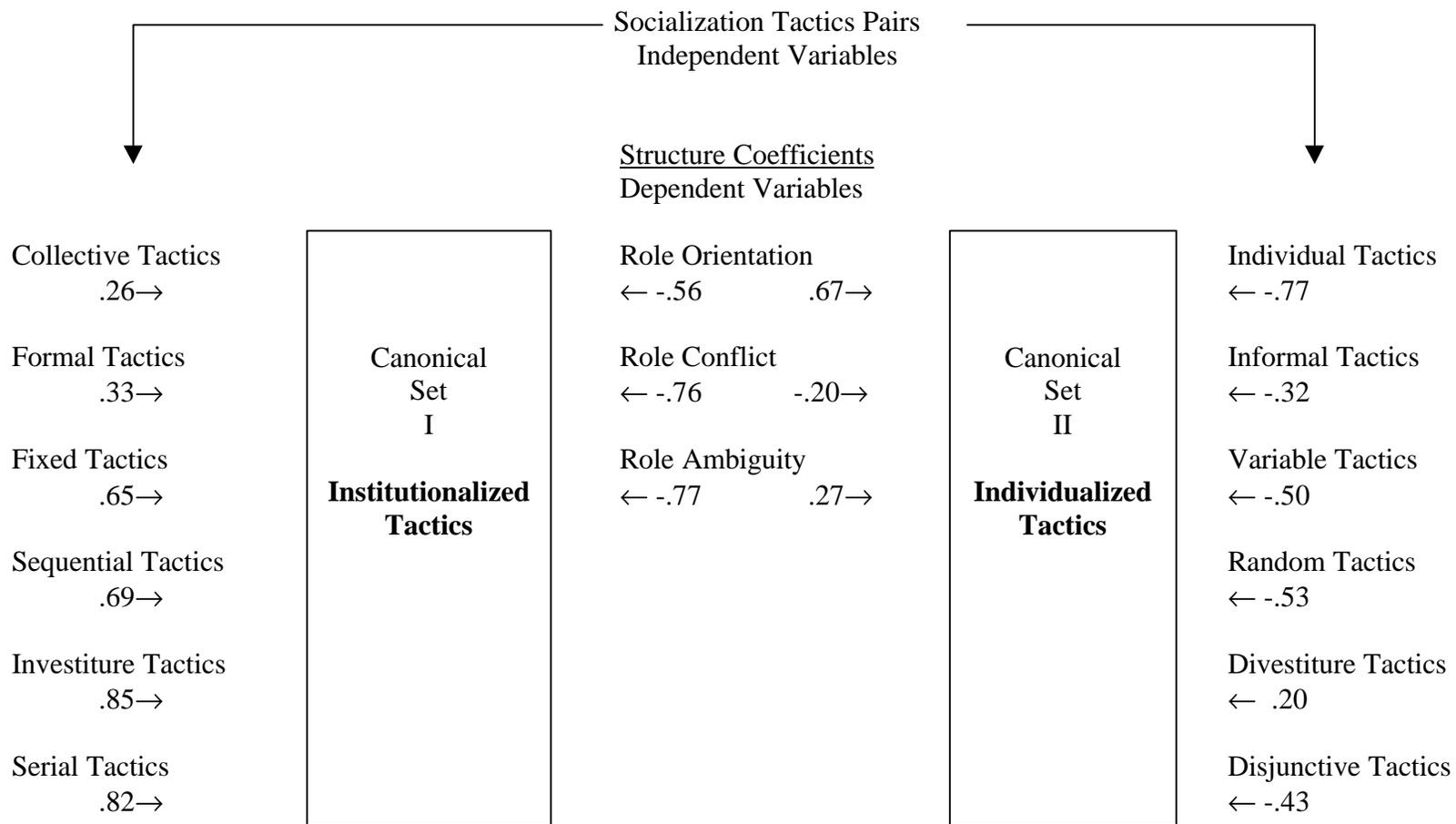


Figure 3. Results of Jones (1986) Canonical Analysis of the Relationship of Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes. Adapted from “Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers’ adjustments to organizations,” by Gareth R. Jones, 1986, Academy of Management Journal, 29, p. 272.

In mediating personal adjustments to organizations, investiture and serial tactics are most important as indicated by their respective structure coefficients,  $R = .85$  and  $R = .82$ , in canonical set one. Fixed and sequential tactics follow. These data suggest that the social tactics rather than the context or content tactics have more influence on a newcomer's transition.

Having considered the adaptation of Jones (1986) to the work of Van Maanen and Schein (1979), and his empirical research using the adapted model, we return in the following paragraphs to the review of theoretical models of organizational socialization as outlined by Saks and Ashforth (1997).

### Uncertainty Reduction Theory

A common framework for research in organizational socialization has been uncertainty reduction theory (Lester, 1987). Following this line of thinking, newcomers experience high levels of uncertainty during the process of entering a new organization. The newcomers are motivated to lower their level of uncertainty so that the workplace is more predictable and more understandable. Uncertainty is reduced through the information shared through both formal and informal communication channels. Since socialization programs systematically and intentionally share information, these programs can reduce uncertainty and anxiety and thus impact the adjustment of newcomers (Louis, 1980).

Uncertainty reduction theory has been the basis for research on socialization tactics, training, and information seeking. Mignerey, Rubin, and Gorden (1995) found that socialization tactics influenced the availability and acquisition of information that newcomers required to reduce their uncertainty. Baker (1995) discovered that role certainty was a latent factor among socialization tactics. Saks (1996) found that both the amount and the usefulness of entry training were related to lower levels of anxiety.

### Social Learning Theory

Social learning theorists, like Bandura (1977), focused attention on what people do rather than on attributes they have. Expectations are important, for what goes on in our mind influences what we do. Bandura emphasized the importance of observational learning. He also concentrated on the current social environment and its influence on behavior rather than focusing upon the past.

Several research studies have relied upon the concept of the social learning theory as it relates to being an advocate for the self. Examples are studies dealing with self-efficacy (Jones, 1986; Saks, 1995). Saks and Ashforth (1996) found a component of social cognitive theory in their study of behavioral self-management. Mossholder, Bedeian, and Armenakis (1981) found that self-esteem lessened the impact of role ambiguity on job satisfaction.

## Cognitive and Sense Making Theory

Louis (1980) cited disillusionment among new members of organizations arising out of the inadequacies of approaches to organizational entry. His contribution was a new perspective that emphasized the role of surprise, contrast, and change in a process of making sense of the entry experience. Katz (1980) found newcomers used social interactions to construct situational definitions of organizational realities and role identities. Weick (1995) found job entry was a chance to develop a cognitive map of the organizational surroundings.

## The Multi-level Process Model of Saks and Ashforth (1997)

Citing the lack of a coherent theory that integrates the major concepts in organizational socialization, Saks and Ashforth (1997) attempted the development of such a coherent theory. First, contextual factors taken at the extra-organizational, organizational, group, and job level are likely to influence socialization factors. Socialization factors would include socialization tactics, orientation, mentoring, and training programs at the group level, and proactive strategies at the individual level. These socialization factors along with cognitive sense making are predicted by the two authors to influence the acquisition of information. Information acquisition results in uncertainty reduction and learning. Learning influences proximal outcomes such as role clarity, skill acquisition, and social integration. Proximal outcomes have an influence on distal outcomes such as higher morale, stronger cohesion, and greater job satisfaction.

### Summary of Research in Organizational Socialization

It is the opinion of researchers that the empirical work in the field of organizational socialization is both broad and fragmented (Fisher, 1986; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Wanous & Colella, 1989). Van Maanen (1976) and Fisher have written comprehensive reviews of the literature. Wanous and Colella divided socialization research into three categories: a) descriptive studies, b) stage models, and c) studies based upon the mechanism through which organizational socialization is attempted. Definitions and descriptions for each of the three categories of research will follow.

### Descriptive Studies

Much of the early research into organizational socialization was descriptive in nature including Cohen's (1973) study of Harvard MBAs; Bray, Campbell and Grant's (1974) study of AT&T managers; and Duke, and colleagues' (1984) study of principals. This type of research involved observing and interviewing newcomers as they entered the organization. Attention was given to the experiences that functioned to socialize newcomers. From the data gathered in this way, a descriptive narrative was produced. Some descriptive studies were written in first person (Hart, 1988). The limitation of this type of research was its subjectivity and lack of empirical data (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous & Colella, 1989).

## Stage Models

One common approach in the study of organizational socialization is to view the process as a series of stages through which newcomers pass (Wanous & Colella, 1989). Numerous models have been presented (Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976; Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1976; Wanous, 1992). According to research only two of the models have been empirically tested (Buchanan; Feldman). Wanous presented a summarization of the various schemes in a three-stage model: a) facing and accepting reality, b) arriving at a clear understanding of the job role, and c) finding oneself within the organizational context.

## Mechanisms through Which Organizational Socialization Is Attempted

Wanous and Colella (1989) organized the mechanisms through which organizational socialization takes place into four categories: a) socialization tactics, b) social learning theory, c) early job challenge, and d) mechanisms influencing attitude change. A brief review of each category follows.

Socialization tactics. Numerous studies have identified and discussed the socialization tactics frequently employed in entry experiences (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen, 1976; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous 1980). Wanous listed five practices: a) training, b) education, c) apprenticeships, d) debasement experiences, and e) cooptation. Van Maanen and Schein produced a typology of socialization tactics that represents one of the best-developed theoretical models of socialization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). The Van Maanen and Schein model was previously introduced.

Social learning theory. Weiss (1977) used the social learning theory perspective to study the development of work behaviors. Weiss hypothesized that a subordinate's modeling of his superior's behavior would be related to the subordinate's perception of the superior's success, competence, and power to reward. The hypothesis was empirically tested by having subordinates rate their superior's success, competence, power to reward, and their own self-esteem. The dependent variable in the study was the degree to which subordinates modeled superiors' behavior as measured on an instrument of self-rated leadership styles. As hypothesized, Weiss found a positive correlation between the perception of the superiors' competence and the similarity of subordinate and superior leadership styles. Self-esteem was found to moderate this effect.

Early job challenge. Wanous and Colella (1989) defined the mechanism of early job challenge as high organizational expectation. Berlew and Hall (1966) and Bray, Campbell, and Grant (1974) empirically tested this mechanism in separate studies involving AT&T managers. The researchers demonstrated that early job challenge was positively correlated with later success in the areas of pay and promotion. This finding is in line with other goal-setting theories that suggest high personal goals will result in higher performance than easy personal goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981).

Mechanisms producing attitude change. The mechanism of organizational socialization looks at how attitudes change upon contact with a new organization or a new role within an organizational relationship.

Lieberman (1956) conducted a three-year longitudinal study of factory workers who at one time had been promoted to foreman or elected as a steward and later returned to worker status. A control group was composed of workers who had not been promoted. Upon returning to the worker role, those persons who had been foremen were more sympathetic towards management and less sympathetic towards the union. Lieberman found stewards' attitudes did not change as much as did those of the foremen.

Schein (1967) compared the attitudes of 37 MBA students to those of faculty members and business executives. Attitudes were measured on 19 scales reflecting the content area of a managerial role. Student attitudes were measured upon entry and at graduation. Schein found that the students' initial attitudes fell between faculty and executive attitudes. By graduation, student attitudes showed a marked movement closer to the attitudes of the faculty. This was especially true in content areas covered in the first academic year.

Van Maanen (1975) studied the attitude changes of police recruits for the first nine months of their careers. He looked at three factors: (a) motivation, (b) commitment to the organization, and (c) need satisfaction as experienced by the recruits. Data for the study consisted of recruit surveys, observations, interviews, and the performance ratings from both recruit training and after they had been on the job. Van Maanen found that motivation declined over time. Motivation was negatively related to supervisor's performance ratings, but not related to training ratings. Commitment also declined and was positively related to performance ratings, and not related to training ratings. Need satisfaction was stable over time, positively related to performance ratings, but not related to training ratings.

These three examples of research on mechanisms that produce attitude changes document that the newcomer is likely to experience a change in attitudes. The studies also show that during the entry period the organization exerts an influence on newcomer attitudes. However, it is not shown just how these changes come about.

### Individual Variables in the Organizational Socialization Process

Jones (1983) focused attention on the fact that most organizational socialization research approached the subject from the direction of the newcomer's adjustment to the organization as a response to early experiences or socialization tactics. Jones cautioned that this approach was inadequate. He argued that the socialization process could not be adequately explained until it is analyzed from the interactionist perspective that accords to newcomers an active role in mediating personal and role outcomes. According to Jones, two factors must be included in the research process: the influence of individual differences and the influence of the attributional processes involved in organizational learning.

In their review of organizational socialization research, Saks and Ashforth (1997) presented four types of individual difference variables. Each of these types is treated in the discussion that follows.

### Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy has been one of the most prominent individual difference variables to appear in the research in recent years (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Bandura (1977) defined self-efficacy as the conviction that the individual can behave in such a way as to produce successful outcomes. The variable of self-efficacy has been shown by research to be positively correlated to the ability to cope, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance and negatively correlated to anxiety and turnover (Bauer & Green, 1994; Jones, 1986; Laker & Steffy, 1995; Saks, 1994, 1995).

### Motivational Orientation

In his work role transitions theory, Nicholson (1984) maintained that a newcomer's desire for feedback positively predicts the openness to changing the self to fit the new situation, whereas a newcomer's desire to control positively predicts change of the role to suit the individual. Other studies provide mixed support for the Nicholson theory. Black and Ashforth (1995) found the desire for feedback was positively related to self-change, but found the desire for control unrelated to role change. Ashforth and Saks (1995) found that desire for feedback was positively related to self-change at four months, but not at ten months. They also found that the desire to control was unrelated to either self-change or role change. Ashforth and Black (1996) found that the desire to control was positively related to self-reported performance and negotiation of job changes.

### Previous Work Experience

Louis (1980) postulated that organizational entry involves surprises and the need to make sense of their meaning. Louis reasoned that experience would positively influence the socialization process by reducing the time necessary for transition and attendant anxiety. Jones (1983) advanced a similar reasoning. However, subsequent research offers only mixed support. Meglino, DeNisi, and Ravlin (1993) offered candidates for a correctional officer position a realistic job preview and found those with experience less likely to accept the position. Adkins (1995) found little correlation between previous experience and adjustment among mental health specialists. Pinder and Schroeder (1987) found that the amount of sameness or difference between a former job and a new job accounted for more influence than the simple measure of previous experience. Bauer and Green (1994) found a positive correlation between previous research experience and doctoral students' current research activities and professional involvement. Saks (1995) found that previous work experience among business school graduates was positively correlated to role development.

## Demographic Variables

The organizational socialization experiences of newcomers will be different for among other reasons the variables of gender, race, and age. Judge, Cable, Boudreau, and Bretz (1995) found that women and minorities had lower career attainment than white males. Women and minorities are afforded fewer opportunities for promotion (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990). Older workers also experience restrictions in upward mobility (Cleveland, Festa, & Montgomery, 1988; Morrow, McElroy, Stamper, & Wilson, 1990). Gattiker and Larwood (1988) showed that age was negatively correlated with salary and current job tenure.

Hitt and Barr (1989) found that women were given lower favorability ratings and recommended for lower starting salaries than were men in a study on the effects of age, race, and gender on manager's ratings for job applicants. Barnum, Liden, and DiTomaso (1995) found that minorities received lower pay than white men in a study of the effects of age, race, and gender on pay for a sample of non-managerial workers did.

Hurley and Giannantonio (1999) examined the effects of race, age, and gender on managerial career attainment in a sample of over 7,000 managers. They found gender and race for women, African-Americans, Asian-Americans, and Hispanics negatively related to career attainment, but found no significant relationship between career attainment and age. One minority group, older Asian-Americans, achieved greater career attainment. The study also examined the three-way interaction of race, gender, and age on career attainment. None of the three-way interactions of race, gender, and age were significantly related to career attainment.

## Contextual Variables Influencing Organizational Socialization in the Workplace

The demographics of organizations are of interest to the researcher in the field of organizational socialization (Wagner, Pfeffer, & O'Reilly, 1984). Examples of these demographic variables would include: (a) power, (b) the presence of various systems of succession within the organization, (c) size, (d) stability, (e) organizational environment, (f) organizational performance, (g) precipitating events, and (h) implicitly held theories within the organization (Hart, 1993).

Grusky (1961) examined the relationship between the size of the organization and leader succession. Using extant data from several publications, Grusky systematically selected two groups of firms differing in size and took as evidence of succession changes in names for essential job titles for the 10-year-period from 1949-1959. He was able to conclude that leader succession was positively related to the size of the organization.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1977) analyzed the variance in city budgets among 30 U. S. cities over a 17-year period. They looked at the amount of variance that was attributable to the budget year, the characteristics of the city, or to the behavior of the mayor. Their findings indicated a relationship existed among the variables of budget, leadership, and the particular organizational setting (city).

## Outcomes of Socialization in the Workplace

Regarding the outcomes of the socialization process, the first question to be considered will be whether a relationship exists between a socialization tactic and an outcome or among combinations of tactics and outcomes. Since the practices are being used with people, each capable of different and various responses, the same practice might elicit totally different responses in different people (Schein, 1990). Second, although tactics were presented independently, they are seldom used independently or in isolation from one another. Consideration must be given to the possibility of the interaction of tactics (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The statistical measurement used in research must be capable of including numerous dependent and independent factors and the interactions among them.

Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell (1968) described what happens when an organization attempts to impress its pattern upon an individual and the individual attempts to make an impression upon the organization, too. The authors called the first process the socializing process. The second process they termed the personalizing process. The authors proposed that friction is the result of the interaction that socializing and personalizing processes cause. Outcomes are the result of this interaction.

Schein (1990) recognized three kinds of outcomes resulting from the interaction of the socializing process with the personalizing process as it pertains to the worker's approach to doing the job. The first outcome is what he calls custodial orientation. Custodial orientation is the result of the newcomer's total acceptance of all the norms being offered by the organization. It involves the complete learning of all organizational assumptions for life and work. Second, Schein called another of the outcomes creative individualism. Creative individualism involves the acceptance of the core doctrines of the organization, but it also involves the rejection of all the peripheral doctrines. The socialized newcomer is free to work in the new setting; however, the newcomer retains the freedom to be creative with the organization's tasks and how to go about doing them. Schein named this feature role innovation. Third, the individual rejects all of the organizational assumptions, an outcome called rebellion. The rebellious worker will soon leave the organization or, if forced by circumstance to stay, remain subversive.

Bryant (1974) discussed the idea of a rebellious worker. He cited several reasons why individuals fall into what he identified as work-role sabotage. These several reasons are (a) personal ineptness, (b) the inadequacy of the role, (c) insufficient preparation to conform to the expectations of the role, (d) frustrations which arise because facilities or resources are inadequate to do the job, and (e) intentional sabotage of the role.

Bryant (1974) added that sometimes role sabotage may represent an adaptive behavior and can even be functional somewhat. It may be the foolish behavior of the saboteur that illuminates the parameters of acceptable and unacceptable behavior. A form of deviant behavior may also act as a buffer between other members of the group and a harsh superior. The role saboteur may also be a symbol for a value such as individualism in the face of oppression. It may be the only way to strike back. While these functions exist, it does not mean they are anything other than deviant violations of social work norms.

Differences in role orientation are not the sole outcome of the interaction between the socializing process and the personalizing process cited by Getzels et al. (1968). Rizzo et al. (1970) contributed to the discussion by investigating the influence of stress arising when employer and employee expectations differ as to how the job should be done. They identified this inequity as role conflict. According to their theory, when the behaviors expected of an individual are not met, stress is the result. The individual develops a level of dissatisfaction and performs less efficiently.

Rizzo et al. (1970) also investigated a similar stress that occurs when the individual does not know the set of tasks that ought to be performed, the amount of authority to be exerted, or how evaluation is to take place. They called this overall lack of clarity in the job role, role ambiguity. The result of role ambiguity is likely to be a reluctance to make decisions.

Having identified the outcomes of role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations, Rizzo et al. (1970) created a factorially independent scale designed to measure role conflict and ambiguity (see Appendix A). The scale of Rizzo et al. was originally designed for use in identifying management needs in a large manufacturing firm. In this study, two samples of employees were systematically selected. Sample A (N = 199) was chosen at random from the central office staff, main plant personnel, and 35% of the respondents from among the research and engineering personnel. Sample B (N = 91) was composed of the remaining 65% of the research and engineering employees not placed in sample A. The samples were so divided to permit representative sampling of the entire firm and maximum sampling of the research and engineering division. The original instrument composed of 350 items was administered in groups of 10 to 50 volunteers.

The scales of Rizzo et al. (1970) were subjected to factor and item analysis. Role conflict and role ambiguity emerged as separate dimensions. The scales derived based on the factor analysis of sample A were independent from both samples A and B. In the factor analysis Factor I was named role conflict. It accounted for 32 % of the common variance. Factor II was named role ambiguity and accounted for 26.3 % of the common variance.

Rizzo et al. (1970) next calculated the correlations with other variables for role conflict and role ambiguity. The specific organizational practices that tend to be associated with high role conflict and high role ambiguity are: (a) goal conflict, (b) inconsistency, (c) delay in decisions, (d) distortion and suppression of information, and (e) violations of the chain of command. The specific organizational practices that tend to be associated with low role conflict and low role ambiguity are: (a) emphasis on personal development, (b) formalization, (c) adequacy of communication, (d) planning, (e) top management receptivity to new ideas, (f) coordination of workflow, (g) adaptability to change, and (h) adequacy of authority. In the opinion of the authors, these patterns generally fit with what one would predict from role theory.

## Organizational Socialization in the Educational Workplace

Having examined the literature of organizational socialization as it relates to the workplace in general, the discussion that follows will highlight some of the literature of organizational socialization specific for the educational workplace. In this discussion teachers play a large role owing to both their numbers and significance. This fact requires the mention of the term teacher induction used frequently in the literature. Schlechty (1985) defined induction in terms of the acquisition of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values needed to carry out an occupational role. The Dayton, Ohio, City Schools (1987) defined induction as the process for developing among newcomers the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values essential to carrying out their roles. Induction, therefore, does not differ in meaning from the earlier definition of organizational socialization adopted in this study. For the purpose of this review of the literature, the two terms will be treated as similar.

### Conceptual Frameworks

Commenting on early induction theory, Lawson (1992) stated it was believed that entry into the teaching profession was essentially a linear socialization process with few contextual influences. Induction programs were conceptualized as a way of improving the inadequacies in teacher education programs in preparing teachers for the realities of the classroom (McDonald, 1982). Veenman (1984) spoke of beginning teachers experiencing a kind of shock upon entering the classroom.

Following this pragmatic framework, Newcombe (1990) suggested the purposes that induction programs for teachers serve might be used to highlight the perspectives found in the literature. He listed five such purposes: (a) address needs, (b) improve teaching skills, (c) integration into the school community, (d) resolve concerns, and (e) foster development. Addressing needs, improving skills, and resolving concerns reflect thinking typical of the basic tenets of uncertainty reduction theory. Integrating into the community reflects the kind of social learning and thinking characteristic of social learning theorists. Addressing needs, improving skills, and fostering development are reflected in the thinking of the cognition and sense making theorists. While the literature of teacher induction was born of practical concerns, it arose from the rich theoretical traditions of socialization research (Johnston & Ryan, 1980; Newcombe, 1990; Veenman, 1984).

Within the university system, a chief conceptual framework for the induction process has been the need for faculty members to understand both teaching and research roles (Boice, 1991; Fink, 1984; Johnston, 1997). Stress under this system is immense (Tierney, 1997). The need for both constructive criticism and support has given rise to formal programs of induction on university campuses (Johnston, 1997).

### Summary of Research into the Organizational Socialization of Educators

In the paragraphs that follow, a brief summary of the research into the organizational socialization of educators is presented. The roots of organizational socialization among

educators are traced. Research involving stage models is summarized. Finally, research into the mechanisms used in the socialization to educational positions is reviewed.

### Problem-based Beginnings

McDonald (1982) found it common to assign beginning teachers to difficult classrooms and expect them to behave as veterans. It is not surprising that Arends (1998) discovered the most significant problems identified by new teachers and mentors were classroom management and discipline. Induction programs for teachers were conceptualized as a way to address this situation (McDonald, 1982).

While interest in teacher socialization has increased and its conceptual basis broadened, Lawson (1992) found it was still viewed as a means for helping the beginning teacher address problems. Research suggests the problems faced by newcomer teachers to be classroom discipline (Lagana, 1970), motivating students to perform (Adams & Martray, 1980), dealing with parents (McIntosh, 1977), and individualizing instruction to meet student needs (Blase, 1980).

Research has also documented the outcomes that are the result of the pressures faced by beginning teachers. Lagana (1970) found that beginning teachers move towards authoritarianism. McArthur (1978) documented that beginning teachers adopt a custodial role orientation. Beginning teachers also were found to become more realistic (Adams, 1982).

On university campuses, stress among new faculty is well documented by research (Fink, 1984; Turner & Boice, 1989; Whitt, 1991). The cause of stress was cited as lack of adequate time to accomplish the work (Fink; Whitt), juggling teaching and research responsibilities (Fink), and balancing long-term goals in research against short-term work demands (Turner & Boice). Among the actions institutions might undertake to reduce the stress are programs of induction (Sorcinelli, 1992).

### Stages in the Socialization Process

The stages cited within the process of teacher induction differ from those mentioned previously in the section on general organizational socialization stages. Robinson (1998) noted the stages in the process of teacher socialization are (a) the signing of a teaching contract, (b) the process of orientation, and (c) the establishment of the teacher as a professional. Orientation was described as involving training in curriculum and effective practice, opportunities to observe teaching professionals, and being paired with a mentor (Serpell, 2000). Lortie (1975) found that early socialization began as prospective teachers had early contacts with their own teachers. These teachers were role models, albeit unconsciously for the prospective teachers. Hoy (1968) found that this period of early socialization was followed by the college preparation phase that stresses theory and ideal practice. There is general agreement that the subsequent phase is that of practice teaching (Veenman, 1984).

Working from a developmental perspective, Fuller and Bown (1975) used an empirical framework to show how beginning teachers move through stages based upon critical concerns. They recognized an initial stage based upon survival concerns such as controlling the class, developing rapport with students, and facing evaluation. The authors recognized a second stage that focused on teaching concerns. This second stage included mastery of specific teaching skills, frustrations with instructional materials, and the limitations imposed by specific methods of instruction. Fuller and Bown found a third stage composed of concern for the student. This third stage centered on issues involving how students learn, their emotional needs, and relating to them as individuals.

Stout (1982) identified three stages in his study of the socialization of school board members. In stage one the beginning board member discovered the traditions associated with membership and began personalizing the role. In stage two, the new board member became knowledgeable of the more technical aspects of the job. In stage three the beginning board member learned to identify the various groups involved in the business of school district education, and developed a familiarity with their actions.

### Mechanisms Used in Teacher Induction

Perez, Swaim, and Hartsough (1997) conducted a study using two groups, one composed of 141 experienced educators involved with beginning teacher training, and a group of 39 newly appointed teachers. The results of the study revealed that in the opinion of the participants the most effective mechanisms for induction were interactive activities and a program of apprenticeship and mentoring. Included in interactive activities were lesson observation and conferencing, coaching, team teaching, second year teacher buddies, and teacher portfolio assessment.

Lewis (1980) found five support activities that were commonly recommended: (a) reduced workload, (b) release time, (c) discussions with other beginning teachers, (d) observing experienced teachers, and (e) a formally assigned mentor. Grant and Zeichner (1981) surveyed 72 beginning teachers and produced the following list of common induction mechanisms: (a) formal support including contracts, orientation, and inservice training; (b) informal support including volunteer coworkers offering information, assistance, or listening; and (c) job support including release time, mentoring, and reduced class size.

At the university level, Tierney (1997) conducted interviews with beginning faculty members and concluded that they were socialized into their organizations by being involved in the microscopic aspects of the organizational culture. This mechanism can be characterized as the "sink or swim" process. Johnston (1997) examined a program at an Australian university by case study method. The university established a center that offers a comprehensive program of activities and support for faculty members from the time of their appointment onward. Initial sessions provide orientation related to the university's expectations and the support services that are provided. Thereafter, participants attend weekly seminars on a wide range of professional development topics.

## Individual Difference Variables

Working within an educational framework, Tierney (1993) observed that each individual brings to an organization a unique background and unique insights. He argued for socialization programs based upon this observation. The author challenged organizations to consider the contributions different individuals make. In the section that follows the individual difference variables in educational organizational socialization research will be discussed.

Self-efficacy. Smylie (1990) noted that self-efficacy was probably one of the most significant factors influencing a teacher's work. According to Smylie, teacher self-efficacy is the belief that is held by individual teachers that they are capable of acting in such a way as to produce student learning and development. This definition corresponds with the theory of Bandura (1986).

In his study of 191 participants, Smylie (1990) found that teacher self-efficacy increased as a result of student teaching. Researchers have found a high degree of correlation between self-efficacy and teacher behavior, student achievement, and individual and organizational change (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Dembo & Gibson, 1985). Self-efficacy was also found in planned educational change (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977).

Demographics. The number of teachers completing formal induction programs is on the rise (Arends, 1998). Research attempting to differentiate among participants in these programs has been cursory contrasting only the difference between urban and rural needs (Serpell, 2000). Serpell found that future research needs to recognize differences among inductees, especially with respect to minority beginning teachers.

## Outcomes Related to Organizational Socialization in the Educational Workplace

In research on teacher socialization, Lortie (1975) found many newcomer teachers were left to "sink or swim." This type of socialization process leaves to chance the accomplishment of desired outcomes. Huling-Austin (1985) documented four main types of desired outcomes: (a) improve teacher performance, (b) increase retention of new hires, (c) support personal and professional well-being among newcomer teachers, and (d) satisfy mandates related to the socialization of beginning teachers. Odell (1987) concluded that the main outcome of teacher socialization should be teacher expertise.

Research cited below has also documented the outcomes of teacher organization socialization as it relates to the role orientation of the teacher. Some critical shifts have been documented during the initial socialization that occurs during the practice teaching component of teacher preparation. The socialization that occurs during practice teaching produces a custodial orientation (Jones, 1982; Packard, 1988). This clinical experience in teacher preparation programs also produces teachers who are more authoritarian and rigid (Emans, 1983). Hoy and Woolfolk (1990) found that the beginning teachers' sense of self-efficacy increased during student teaching.

The job-related experiences of newcomer teachers was found to make them more authoritarian (Lagana, 1970). The research also noted a shift towards a more custodial role orientation during this period of time (McArthur, 1978). Adams (1982), Blase and Greenfield (1982), and Lortie (1975) noted in their research movement from idealism to a more realistic view.

Fink (1984, 1990) found most institutions of higher education using a "sink or swim" approach to organization socialization. One outcome of this approach was found to be teaching by newcomer faculty members that did not engage students in the higher level thinking skills (Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1989). Stress among beginning faculty was also found to be high (Fink, 1984; Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1989; Whitt, 1991). Outcomes associated with this stress were described as ill health, bouts of fatigue, tensions in the home, and feelings of failure (Sorcinelli, 1988; Turner & Boice, 1989).

### A Summary of Organizational Socialization in the Educational Workplace

In the preceding section, the conceptual frameworks used in organizational socialization in the educational workplace were highlighted. Research in the area was summarized. Both the stages in the process and the mechanisms used in the process were presented for review. The impact of individual differences was noted, as was the need for more intense research in the area of demographics. Finally, various outcomes associated with organizational socialization in the educational workplace were summarized.

### The Organizational Socialization of the Principal

The literature relating to the organizational socialization of principals will be reviewed in the section that follows. Included in this review will be the application of theoretical or conceptual models, a summary of research, the influence of individual variables on the socialization of newcomer principals, and outcomes associated with the organizational socialization of principals.

### Applying Theoretical Models

Enormous attention has been directed across the last several decades to the instructional leadership role of the principal with a consensus that this is indeed a primary role (Block, 1983; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). However, reality does not match this consensus. Bartell and Willis (1987) found that most secondary principals in their study were not perceived as fulfilling this function. Research has confirmed that principals will need additional resources if they are to fulfill the role of instructional leader (Gies, 1986).

Another body of literature exists as effective schools research and was summarized by Robinson (1985). The term, "effective," used to describe both schools and their principals, carries the meaning of students achieving above expected levels (Educational Research Service, 2000). Research on effective principals describes how these principals act in their unique settings, but offers little insight into how contextual factors shaped their leadership (Duke, et al.,

1984; Hurley, 1990). Hallinger and Murphy (1986) noted both the importance of the school context, and how seldom it is considered in evaluating the principal's work.

Organizational socialization theory (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979) provides the theoretical framework for studying how the school context influences the principal's leadership behavior. For Van Maanen and Schein, the behaviors and perspectives learned during organizational socialization are essential and they are learned within the work setting. Social learning is highly contingent upon the context. Thus, organizational socialization provides a conceptual framework to understand the influence upon principals from superintendents (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980), from teachers (Corbett & Rossman, 1988), and from parents, students, other principals, community persons, and orientation materials (Duke, et al., 1984; Wolcott, 1973).

### Summary of Research in the Organizational Socialization of Principals

One of the first studies to look at the organizational socialization of a principal was Wolcott's (1973) ethnographic account of a beginning principal's experience. From his study, Wolcott suggested the process of socialization is ongoing from the initial contact required to gain appointment through the early years on the job. Wolcott documented the lack of integration between university coursework and the skills required of a successful administrator.

Duke, et al. (1984) conducted an early descriptive study on the organizational socialization of beginning principals by inviting 46 principals to an all-day workshop at which they wrote and talked about their experiences. The researchers found that most of the principals in their study felt the end of their socialization coincided with the end of their first year as principals. Duke and his colleagues found teachers in the faculty to be the greatest source of influence in the principal's first year. Only four of the 46 principals in the study indicated they had received a formal orientation to their district. Of the 46 principals, 23 reported that they received written job descriptions. In response to questions about the greatest first-year surprises, 19 principals cited "lack of preparation" for the job. An equal number cited "insufficient time."

A longitudinal study by Cosgrove (1986) included the views of both newcomer and experienced principals, as well as those of a control group of continuing principals. Data were collected from five schools experiencing a change in principals, and five in which the principal was continuing to serve. Cosgrove concluded from her study that the effects of leader change in schools go beyond the first year of the principal's tenure, and that teachers exert the greatest influence upon newcomer principals.

In a variety of studies cited below, additional data related to the organizational socialization of beginning principals was documented. Technical problems were found as important in the first year as relational problems (Lortie, Crow, & Prolman, 1983). The job context was found to be a major determinant in the principal's behavior (Greenfield, 1985). Most principals reported that they learned about the role of a principal from actual experience (Peterson, 1986). The effects of organizational socialization on shaping the new administrator's performance are greater than the influence of previous formal training (Heck, 1995). Hurley

(1990, 1992) found that newcomer principals receive strong messages about the need to attend to student personnel issues, particularly discipline.

### Individual Variables in the Organizational Socialization of Principals

Cosgrove (1986) noted in her research that individual differences among principals accounted for the majority of differences among the 10 schools she observed in her study. The differences in leadership styles and decision-making process were apparent to the researcher.

As noted by Heck (1995), personal demographics may influence the organizational socialization process of new administrators. Heck included in this set of variables: (a) age, (b) experience, (c) education, (d) gender, (e) school level of training, and (f) experience as a principal. Leithwood and Musella (1991) found a positive relationship between longer classroom experience and instructional leadership performance. The two researchers also noted a stronger relationship between both instructional leadership and the nurturing of students and female administrators. Salley, McPherson, and Baehr (1979) found no significant relationship between age and experience as a principal. Fowler (1984) found men seeking administrative positions tended to major in administration, whereas women seeking the same type of positions tended to major in counseling or curriculum.

Research by Greenfield (1977) led him to conclude that organizational socialization occurs mainly through informal and unplanned experiences. Such informal contact would include observation and casual conversation (Garberina, 1980). Because women and minorities do not have equal access to these informal socialization opportunities, they are at a disadvantage in the competition for administrative positions (Marshall, 1979; Valverde, 1980).

Shea (1984) found that having a mentor was more important to women candidates aspiring to positions of educational leadership than to aspiring men. Mentoring was found to be a significant development in the career development of women administrators (Leizear, 1984). Covell (1979) reported that the barriers to administrative appointment for women are real and not just perceived. Research has shown that the attitudes related to women principals has a relationship to the number of women on the school board (Forlines, 1981), to the previous experience of working with a female administrator (Mack, 1981), and to the gender of the respondents (Ibeawuchi, 1980).

Ortiz (1982) found that minorities were underrepresented in educational administration. Ortiz also documented that minority administrators were most likely to be placed in schools in which the majority of students had similar ethnic backgrounds. Gaertner (1980) found the administrative career path in the state of Michigan held a disproportionate number of white males.

### The Outcomes of Organizational Socialization among Principals

Two factors affect the present understanding of how organizational socialization is related to outcomes among newcomer principals. The first of these factors is the limited number

of studies related to the organizational socialization of principals (Duke, et al., 1984; Greenfield, 1985; Heck, 1995). The second factor affecting an understanding of the outcomes of organizational socialization among principals is the limited feedback received from superiors. Participants in the Duke and colleagues' study reported going for periods of months without significant contact with superiors. Greenfield reported little feedback to beginning principals on how they were perceived by superiors.

Greenfield (1985) reported the most frequent outcome associated with newcomer principals was a custodial role orientation. Cosgrove (1986) found evidence of content innovation in her study of five schools with newcomer principals. Leithwood, Steinbach, and Begley (1992) found evidence of growth in the development of the principal's role as instructional leader during the socialization period.

Hurley (1990) found that one outcome of organizational socialization was the establishment of priority concerns among new principals based upon the perceived expectations of teachers and central office superiors. Student discipline was perceived to be a priority for teachers and 55% of principals reported that they changed their behaviors to accommodate this perception. The same percentage of principals stated that they changed their behavior to match central office expectations in the areas of time spent on discipline and school climate.

#### Summary of the Organizational Socialization of Principals

In the preceding section the literature on the organizational socialization of principals has been reviewed from the perspective of its theoretical frameworks and from actual practice revealed through research. Individual variables that influence the process have been presented. Known outcomes associated with the process have been reviewed. In the chapter that follows, the methodology that was used in the present study is presented.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

In this section, the population is identified, the method of obtaining and contacting the population is explained, and the procedures used to conduct the study are described. Instruments are discussed with regard to their selection, validity, reliability, and scoring. The methods of analysis are explained.

#### Population

The population for this study was all principals of schools carrying the designation of “middle school” in their official titles within the Commonwealth of Virginia for the school year 2000-2001. A list of these schools, the school addresses, and the names of the principals were obtained on-line using the Internet (Virginia Department of Education, 2001).

#### Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process consisted of an initial mailing to the participants’ school address that included a cover letter, the questionnaire, and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. At the end of the second week, a postcard was sent thanking those who returned the questionnaire and encouraging those who had not returned it to do so. In the fourth week, a follow-up letter was mailed to those who had not returned the survey and a second questionnaire was included in the mailing (Dillman, 1978).

Nonresponders can threaten the external validity of the study. To deal with this issue, the technique of Lehman (1963) was used to check for external validity. Following this methodology, surveys were mailed on the same day and each survey returned was stamped with the date it was received. Next, beginning with the date upon which the first returned survey was received, surveys were divided into five samples corresponding to the first five one-week periods when completed surveys were received. Then, the mean of the individual scale scores for the six independent variables was analyzed by sample group. These six study variables were compared while holding time of response constant to see if the strength of relationship varies between early responders and late responders. The data was placed on a line graph and the pattern examined. According to Lehman, the ideal pattern is a straight line with zero slope indicating the strength of the relationship remains constant among early and late responders. Using Lehman's technique of creating line graphs to look for patterns, inferences were made regarding nonresponders based on trends observed in the data.

#### Instrumentation

A two-page questionnaire was developed by adopting or modifying extant scales developed by other investigators. These scales were used with the permission of their authors. In the following sections, each of the scales used in the present study is discussed in terms of construction, validity, reliability, and scoring. For each of the respondents, and for all of the

measures, missing data was handled by using the mean score from the scale as a substitute for the missing value.

### Scales Measuring Socialization Tactics

#### Construction

Jones (1986), using the terms of Van Maanen and Schein (1979), constructed the 30 items measuring socialization practices (see Appendix A). He divided the items into six dimensions: (a) collective versus individual, (b) formal versus informal, (c) sequential versus random, (d) fixed versus variable, (e) serial versus disjunctive, and (f) investiture versus divestiture. Five items comprise each of the six scales. Jones operationally defined the scales with care to ensure that the different facets of each tactic figured as an item in each scale. While the separate ends of the scales bear different names, this is for clarity. The scales are not bipolar, but are built on a Likert-type format with a 7-point range from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The use of this format is consistent with the theory of Van Maanen and Schein that described the paired tactics as poles with a continuum between them.

In the present study, several word changes were made to the scales to better fit the educational setting. The use of the term “division” was substituted for the terms “organization” and “departmental” to refer to the local education agency in Virginia. In other states, the terms “district” or “system” might have been used to refer to the local education agency for public schools. In item 1, the phrase “in the last six months” was omitted due to the difference in participants. The participants in the Jones (1986) study were recent college graduates available to that research at the beginning of their work experience. In addition, in the same item, the term “recruits” was changed to “newcomers” to better fit the educational setting involving principals. In item 23, the term “administrators” was substituted for “organizational members” because it better describes the group from which a principal’s mentor might be selected.

#### Validation

Intercorrelations among the variables reported by Jones (1986) appear in Table 1. A high degree of intercorrelation can be seen among five of the six scales measuring socialization tactics. Van Maanen & Schein (1979) suggested the practices would be highly correlated. This pattern of correlation supports and provides a measure of construct-related validity for the scales by confirming the predictions made by the hypotheses (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996). According to Jones, further evidence for the construct-related validity of the scales exists in the form of comparisons of the intrascale reliability estimates ( $\alpha$ ) and the interscale Pearson correlations to empirically distinguish the socialization tactics from other constructs (Buchanan, 1974). Jones found that in each case the intrascale reliability estimates are greater in magnitude than the interscale Pearson correlations.

The socialization scales (Jones, 1986) used in the present research instrument were judged for content validity by nine graduate students in the doctoral program of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State

**Table 1**  
**Intercorrelations Among Study Variables <sup>a,b</sup> As Researched by Jones<sup>c</sup> (1986)**

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Role Orientation	20.2	7.36	(.89)												
2. Role Conflict	26.6	9.16	.51	(.61)											
3. Role Ambiguity	19.6	7.30	.43	.50	(.85)										
4. Commitment	47.9	11.90	-.28	-.61	-.37	(.71)									
5. Job Satisfaction	5.3	1.41	-.28	-.59	-.43	.79	--								
6. Intention to quit	5.2	3.27	.33	.34	.29	-.64	-.56	(.81)							
7. Investiture v. divestiture	26.6	5.91	-.30	-.51	-.54	.60	.65	-.37	(.79)						
8. Serial v. disjunctive	24.8	7.03	-.53	-.47	-.59	.49	.53	-.31	.60	(.78)					
9. Fixed v. variable	20.6	7.30	-.47	-.42	-.53	.30	.42	-.34	.41	.66	(.79)				
10. Sequential v. random	22.6	7.55	-.52	-.44	-.51	.38	.44	-.38	.32	.70	.80	(.78)			
11. Collective v. individual	21.3	8.54	-.35	-.07	-.28	.06	.09	-.18	.14	.57	.54	.64	(.84)		
12. Formal v. informal	18.2	6.40	-.28	-.24	-.27	.16	.19	-.20	.03	.44	.57	.64	.70	(.68)	
13. Self-efficacy	37.9	7.33	.16	.19	-.09	-.21	-.18	.26	-.03	-.20	-.13	-.17	-.13	-.08	(.71)

*The values in parentheses are the intrascale reliability estimates (α).*

**Note.** <sup>a</sup>N=102; correlation coefficients above .16 are significant at  $p < .05$ ; those above .23, at  $p < .01$ .

<sup>b</sup>Given the nature of the scaling procedure, a positive correlation between a socialization tactic and any variable is to be interpreted as the relationship between the institutional end of the continuum and the variable. A negative correlation indicates a relationship with the individualized end. Thus, for interpretive purposes, an active role orientation is positively correlated with divestiture or negatively correlated with investiture. This is the case for all tables.

<sup>c</sup>The intrascale reliability estimates ( $\alpha$ ) are given as the diagonal function.

<sup>d</sup>Adapted from “Socialization Tactics, Self-Efficacy, And Newcomers’ Adjustments to Organizations,” by G. R. Jones, 1986, *Academy of Management Journal*, 29, p. 271.

University. The judges independently attempted to associate the question with its proper domain, judged the strength of the association between the question and its domain, and gave the question a clarity rating. When asked to select the domain, in which the item best fit, the judges agreed with the author (Jones) of the scales in 58.7% of their choices. When asked how strongly the item was associated with its domain, the judges gave an average score of 3.22 on a 4-point scale with 4 being very strong. When asked to rate the clarity of the items, the judges gave an average score of 2.55 on a 3-point scale with 3 being clear.

### Reliability

For the scales used by Jones (1986), Table 1 contains the intrascale reliability estimates ( $\alpha$ ) for the items of socialization practices as its diagonal function. The range of alpha coefficients for the socialization practice scales is from .68 to .84. These reliability coefficients fall in the moderate range and are acceptable for research purposes (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1996).

For the conduct of this study, the reliability of the scales for the socialization tactics was calculated. Seventeen alumni from the principal preparation programs of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University participated in a test-retest of the research instrument. Each individual is involved in school administration at a level other than middle school principal. Seventeen tests and 14 retests were returned for an 82% return rate. Table 2 contains the test-retest reliability coefficients for individual items in the study questionnaire. The coefficients for individual items ranged from a low of .09 for question 15 to a high of .94 for question 22. Table 3 contains the test-retest reliability coefficients for the scales used in the research instrument. Higher reliability coefficients were obtained for the scales as compared to the individual questions. All reliability coefficients for the scales exceeded .50 except for the scale measuring Formal v. Informal socialization tactics that was .28. This last observation is important because scale scores, not scores from individual questions, are most important to this research.

### Scoring

The six areas of socialization practice were each measured with five items. Participants responded on a 7-point scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The scores from the five items were summed. Reverse scoring is used on negatively stated items (Items 4, 9, 13, 15, 19, 23, 24, 25, 29, and 30). The possibility existed for scores ranging from a low of 5 to a high of 35. Items were designed to indicate practices hypothesized to be institutional on the high end of the scale and practices hypothesized to be individual on the low end of the scale.

### Role Orientation

#### Construction

Jones (1986) created the five items composing the role orientation scale using the theory that an innovator will attempt to alter the procedures for performing the role or the purpose of the role. He designed the items so that a high score indicates an innovative orientation. A low score

Table 2

Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for Individual Items in the Study Questionnaire

Question	Pearson Correlation	Question	Pearson Correlation	Question	Pearson Correlation
1	.647*	17	.815**	33	.819**
2	.577*	18	.410	34	.745**
3	.477	19	.509	35	.362
4	.422	20	.479	36	.290
5	.173	21	.479	37	.736**
6	.713**	22	.939**	38	.199
7	.510	23	.805**	39	.631*
8	.683**	24	.479	40	.361
9	.724**	25	.708**	41	.818**
10	.221	26	.452	42	.607*
11	.705**	27	.362	43	.520
12	.908**	28	.304	44	.456
13	.748**	29	.436	45	.882**
14	.812**	30	.460	46	.384
15	.088	31	.299	47	.528
16	.504	32	.441	48	.473

Note. N=17. Missing data with pair wise exclusion- 3.

\*p < .05 (SPSS, 1999). \*\*p < .01 (SPSS, 1999)

Table 3

Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for the Scales in the Study Questionnaire

Scale	Items	Coefficient
<hr/>		
Socialization Tactics		
Collective v. Individual	1-5	.830**
Formal v. Informal	6-10	.276
Investiture v. Divestiture	11-15	.660*
Sequential v. Random	16-20	.790**
Serial v. Disjunctive	21-25	.862**
Fixed v. Variable	26-30	.574*
Role Orientation	31-35	.582*
Role Conflict	38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48	.775**
Role Ambiguity	36, 37, 39, 41, 44	.572*

Note. N= 17. Missing data with pair wise exclusion-3.

\*p < .05 (Ary, et al., 1996). \*\*p < .01 (Ary, et al., 1996)

indicates acceptance of the work role as it is received. Jones labeled the low score, custodial orientation. Items 31-35 comprise the role orientation scale on the research instrument used in the present study.

### Validation

Jones (1986) documented the construct validity of the items in this scale. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) theorized that the practices categorized as institutionalized will produce custodial role orientations, and that the practices categorized as individualized will produce innovative role orientations. The correlation coefficients between role orientation and each of the socialization practices are seen in Table 1. Given the scoring procedure, a positive correlation between a socialization practice and role orientation is interpreted as the relationship between role orientation and the institutional end of the scale. For example, an innovative role orientation is positively correlated with divestiture and negatively correlated with investiture. A study of Table 1 indicates the data provide the construct-related evidence for the validity of the measure based upon the predictability of the results according to the hypotheses (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996).

### Reliability

In the Jones (1986) research, the alpha coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) for the scales of role orientation was .89 as reported in Table 1 as the diagonal value. This reliability coefficient falls close to the high range and is acceptable for research purposes (Ary et al., 1996). Table 3 shows the reliability coefficient for the role orientation scale to be .582 in the test-retest reliability study of the research instrument as previously described.

### Scoring

Participants respond to each of the five items measuring role orientation on a 7-point scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Scores for the five items are summed. The total may range from a low of 5 to a high of 35. Low scores are associated with custodial role orientation, while high scores are associated with an innovative role orientation.

## Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

### Construction

Rizzo, et al. (1970) constructed the scales used to measure role conflict and role ambiguity as part of one instrument for use in complex organizations. The basis of the scales was classical organization theory stressing the importance of chain of command and unity of command. According to the theory, a clear and single flow of authority from the top should be more satisfying to the organizational members and more effective to the organization. Every employee should receive orders from only one superior, and there should be one leader and one plan for each organizational activity meeting the same organizational objective. Furthermore, every position should have a clear set of recognizable tasks and responsibilities. When these

conditions are not met, role theory states that the person will experience dissatisfaction and perform at less than optimum.

Rizzo, et al. (1970) defined role conflict in terms of the dimensions of congruency-incongruency, where congruency or incongruency was related to a set of standards tied to performance. Incongruency leads to conflict. The scale was constructed to test congruency-incongruency in several areas of experience. Some examples from the scale follow: "I have to do things that should be done differently" is an item that measures conflict between personal values and the job role. "I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it" is an item that measures conflict between having adequate and inadequate resources. "I receive incompatible requests from two or more people" is an item that measures conflict arising from an unclear chain of command.

Rizzo et al. (1970) constructed the scale to measure role ambiguity in complex organizations. They worked from a theory developed by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) that stated role ambiguity will result when the employee lacks necessary information in an organizational position. The employee will use coping behaviors which may consist of (a) attempts to solve the problem, (b) attempts to avoid the source of stress, or (c) defense mechanisms that distort the reality of the situation. According to the theory of Kahn and colleagues, ambiguity should increase the probability that the person will be dissatisfied and perform less efficiently.

Rizzo et al. (1970) defined role ambiguity in terms of the existence and clarity of cues to guide the behavior of the employee. From this definition they created a scale. Items on the scale reflected these domains: (a) certainty about duties, authority, allocation of time, and relationships with others ("I feel certain about how much authority I have."); (b) the existence and clarity of cues, policies, and directives ("Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job."); and (c) the ability to predict sanctions as an outcome of behavior ("I know exactly what is expected of me.").

Items 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, and 48 comprise the role conflict scale on the research instrument used in the present study. Items 36, 37, 39, 41, and 44 comprise the role ambiguity scale on the research instrument used in the present study.

### Validation

Schuler, Aldag, and Brief (1977) and House, Schuler, and Levanoni (1983) conducted validation research that concluded the Rizzo et al. scales are satisfactory measures of the two distinct constructs, role conflict and role ambiguity. Schuler and colleagues conducted their analysis across six samples composed of 1573 employees in four different organizations. Among the data reported are factor congruencies between the samples that exceed .80. All internal consistency reliabilities are above .70 except one at .56. The Rizzo et al. scales were correlated with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) across samples. A comparison was then made with the five facets of job satisfaction as measured by the JDI and the constructs of role conflict and role ambiguity. Researchers were looking for similarities in relative magnitude across

samples. This yielded a coefficient of concordance which was highly significant ( $W=.61$ ;  $X^2=32$ ;  $p<.001$ ) and suggested good construct validity. House and colleagues conducted their study with 272 employees of a large utility company. The researchers were addressing concerns with regards to the wording of scale items on the original form of the measure. Forty-nine new items were constructed. Participants completed questionnaires with old and new forms of the items. Completed questionnaires were subjected to factor analysis. Role ambiguity factors were correlated with the original scale at .88. Role conflict factors were correlated with the original scale at .94. House, et al. concluded that use of the original version may still be warranted.

### Reliability

The Rizzo, et al. (1970) questionnaire was administered to two samples. The first consisted of 199 central office and main plant employees of a firm. The second sample was composed of 91 members of the research and engineering division of the firm not in the first sample. The researchers found the Cronbach's alpha for the measure of role conflict in the two samples to be .82. Likewise, the Cronbach's alpha measure of role ambiguity in the two samples was .78 and .81. Table 3 shows the reliability coefficients for the role conflict scale to be .775 and the role ambiguity scale to be .572 in the test-retest study of the present research instrument as previously described.

### Scoring

Participants responded to each role item on a 7-point scale from very false to very true indicating the degree to which the condition existed in their experience. Very false was scored as one while very true is scored as seven. The researchers were then able to sum the scores for each construct.

### Demographic Data

A set of questions was developed to elicit four items of demographic information from the participants. These first four items are related to personal information: age, gender, ethnicity, and number of career start-ups as a principal. A fifth item, the school division in which the participant is employed, was included as part of the information obtained for the population. The following three facts can be obtained from this fifth item: (a) the size of the district measured by Fall Membership (see Appendix C), (b) the wealth of the district as expressed by the Local Composite Index (see Appendix C), and (c) the region of the state in which the principal serves corresponding to the Superintendents' Study Groups (see Appendix D).

## Method of Analysis

In this section, each of the four research questions is discussed according to the method used to analyze the data. Data was in the form of responses from the participants to items on the questionnaire. The methods of analysis are shown in Figure 4 and discussed below.

### Question 1: The Socialization Tactics Employed by School Divisions

The first research question was, How do the school divisions in Virginia provide for the organizational socialization of middle school principals by their choice of socialization tactics? Participants supplied this information in the form of answers to the first 30 items on the questionnaire. Descriptive statistics were compiled on the raw data obtained from the study questionnaire. The mean, standard deviation, variance, and range were displayed in a table in chapter four.

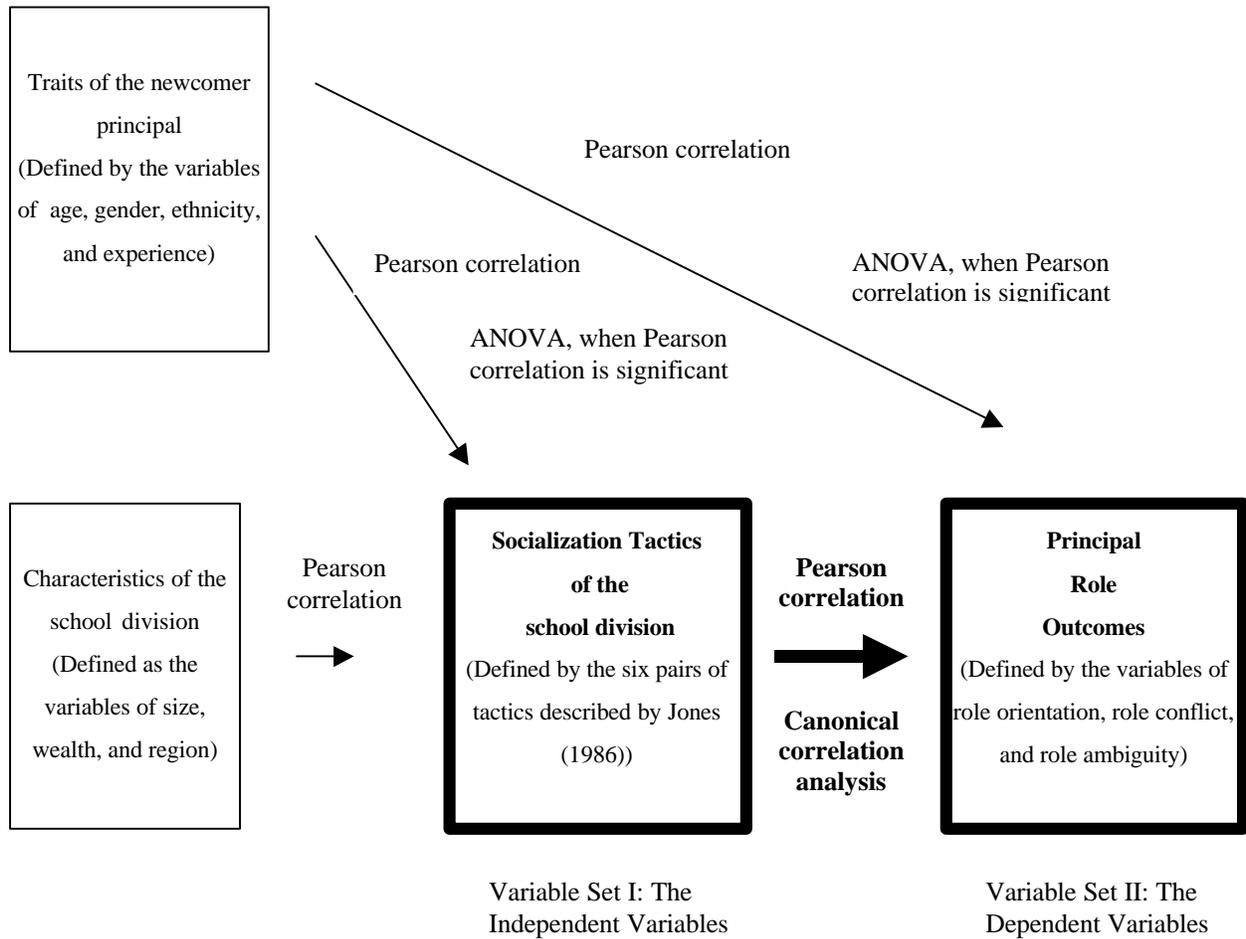
### Question 2: The Relationship between Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes

Research question two was, Is there a relationship between the six pairs of socialization tactics employed by school divisions and the three role outcomes among principals? Two statistical methods were used to determine whether a relationship exists between these two variable sets (see Figure 4). An intercorrelation of the variables was analyzed using the Pearson  $r$ . The intercorrelations were arrayed in a table in chapter four. Statistical significance was noted at the  $p < .05$  and  $p < .01$  levels.

Canonical correlation analysis was performed on the six Socialization Tactics (independent variables) and the three Role Outcomes (dependent variables). This was an appropriate procedure since multiple dependent variables and multiple independent variables were involved in the research (see Figure 4). Walker (1998) cited the value of canonical correlation analysis as a technique for data exploration rather than as a technique for hypothesis testing. According to Walker, canonical correlation analysis compares a linear combination of the dependent variable and a linear combination of the independent variable by computing a series of canonical functions that best summarize the relationship. The term "canonical" derives from the technique of extracting from a square matrix. It extracts the same number of functions as the smallest number of variables in any one variable set. Each successive function describes a lesser amount of the variation, and generally, only the first canonical function is meaningful. Results obtained from the canonical correlation analysis were arrayed in a table in chapter four.

### Question 3: The Relationship between School Division Characteristics and Socialization Tactics

Research question three was, Is there a relationship between the size, wealth, or geographical region of Virginia public school divisions and the socialization tactics employed in the organizational socialization of middle school principals? Analyzing research question three involved the use of the Pearson  $r$  correlation to determine whether a relationship exists between school division characteristics and the choice of socialization tactics (see Figure 4). Results are arrayed in a table in chapter four.



**Figure 4. Methods of Analysis.** In this figure, the theoretical model is adapted to show that the focus of the study is the relationship between socialization tactics and role outcomes as indicated by the heavier lines. Secondary interests include the relationships between school division characteristics and socialization tactics, and between principal traits and both socialization tactics and role outcomes. Each arrow indicates a suspected relationship. Beside each arrow is the statistical method used to test for this relationship.

#### Question 4: The Relationship between Principal Traits and both Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes

Research question four was, Does age, gender, ethnicity, or experience account for any significant difference with regards to the role outcomes of the principals involved in the present study, or with regards to the use of socialization tactics? Pearson  $r$  correlations were used to determine whether a relationship exists between principal traits and socialization tactics, or between principal traits and role outcomes. In addition, ANOVA was used to further analyze variables indicated by Pearson correlation to have a significant relationship (see Figure 4). Results are arrayed in tables in chapter four.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

In this chapter, the results are presented from analysis of the data. The participants are described. The issue of non-responders is addressed. Descriptive statistics for the six Socialization Tactics, as required for research question one, are included. Descriptive statistics for the Role Outcomes are provided. Test results analyzing the relationship between variables, and between sets of variables, are described. These test results are related to research questions two, three, and four.

#### Describing the Population

##### The Participants as a Group

The principals of Virginia's 302 middle schools were included in the survey. Surveys were mailed and received during a six weeks period that included three separate mailings. There was a 60% rate of return. Of 183 survey instruments returned, five surveys were rejected because they were inappropriately marked, for a usable return rate of 59%. The remaining 178 surveys were entered as data for the study. Within this group, 100 principals came to their present positions before the 1998-1999 school year. This group of principals completed a partial survey documenting only their starting date, and their present school division. The remaining 78 principals accepted their current assignments in or after the 1998-1999 school year. They completed the full survey.

##### Demographics of the Participants

Each of the 78 principals completing the full survey also was asked to self-report demographic data regarding respondent age, gender, ethnicity, and experience. A comparison of demographic data from the present study with demographic data compiled by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2001) is arrayed in Table 4 and provides a point of reference supporting the generalizability of the results of the present study.

##### Age

Among the 78 principals 27% identified their age as falling between 45-49 years (n = 21). The 40-44 age group (n = 18) and the 50-54 age group (n = 18) were each comprised of 23% of the principals responding. The 55-59 age group (n = 10) equaled 13% while those 35-39 (n = 7) made up 9% of the principals. The 30-34 age group (n = 3) equaled 4%. One principal (1%) was identified as less than 30. None of the principals were 60 years of age or over.

##### Gender

Gender among the participating principals included 58% male principals (n = 44) and 42% female principals (n = 33).

Table 4

Comparison of Study Population with All Virginia Principals<sup>a,b</sup>

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Study Population</b>	<b>All Principals</b>	<b>New Hires</b>
Male	58.0	53.3	56.5
Female	42.0	46.8	43.4
Asian	0.0	0.2	0.0
Black	13.0	20.6	18.2
Hispanic	0.0	0.4	1.2
Native American	0.0	0.1	0.0
White	87.0	78.8	80.5

Note. <sup>a</sup>Values are expressed as percentages

<sup>b</sup>Data for "All Principals" and "New Hires" taken from a 1998 statistical file on the state of Virginia compiled by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in November 2001, Washington, D. C.

## Ethnicity

Only two of the five ethnic groups listed on the survey were self-identified by the respondents. Black principals (n = 11) equaled 13% of the respondents, while white principals (n = 65) equaled 87% of the respondents.

## Experience

Question 52 on the survey attempted to secure from participants a record of their experience by asking the number of new principalships in this or any school division. However, the wording of the question apparently led to confusion about what was intended. Consequently, only 49 responses were received into the data. Within that response set, 30 principals identified their current position as their first principalship, and 11 principals identified their current position as their second principalship. Four principals identified their current position as their third principalship. For one principal the current position was the fourth principalship. For another principal, the current position was the fifth principalship. Two participants identified their current position as their sixth principalship.

## Nonresponders

Lehman (1963) suggested that inferences could be made about the significance of nonresponders regarding the strength of the relationship of the research variables by studying their patterns on line graphs of the variables over time. Mean scores for the six independent variables were graphed across the five weeks in which surveys were received. The patterns did not suggest the strength of the relationship of the research variables would be significantly altered if all 302 surveys were received in time following the trend established by the participants who responded at an early date through those participants who responded at a later date (Appendix E). This technique provides the present study with a measure of external validity.

While none of the six variables examined matched Lehman's (1963) ideal pattern of a straight line with zero slope, neither did any of the six variables exhibit patterns to suggest the data from nonresponders would significantly increase or decrease the relationship of the research variables. In addition, the lines of the six independent variables did not exhibit patterns that were erratic; a pattern that would indicate no inferences could be made.

## Question 1: Descriptive Statistics for the Six Socialization Tactics and the Three Role Outcomes

In the section that follows, descriptive statistics are presented for the six socialization tactics. Descriptive statistics for the study variables are arrayed in Table 5. This section includes a separate analysis of each of the six socialization tactical pairs. The discussion continues with an analysis of the tactics viewed within groups of tactics. The section concludes with an analysis of the role outcome variables.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for All Variables in the Study

Variable	<u>N*</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Range	Variance
<b>Socialization Tactics</b>					
Collective v. Individual	78	19.21	7.62	29	58.06
Formal v. Informal	78	16.28	4.18	19	17.45
Investiture v. Divestiture	78	29.44	4.53	24	20.56
Sequential v. Random	78	19.69	6.97	27	48.58
Serial v. Disjunctive	78	24.03	7.01	30	49.09
Fixed v. Variable	78	16.88	6.54	27	42.73
<b>Role Outcomes</b>					
Role orientation	77	18.82	5.94	25	35.31
Role conflict	77	31.01	10.92	45	119.20
Role ambiguity	77	26.73	5.50	25	30.20
<b>School Division Characteristics</b>					
Size	78	24,426	29,805	155,599	8.88E+08
Wealth	78	.4021	.1332	.5763	1.774E-02
Region	78	na	na	na	na
<b>Principal Traits</b>					
Age	77	44.55	7.13	35	50.78
Gender	77	na	na	na	na
Ethnicity	76	na	na	na	na
Experience	49	1.71	1.26	5.00	1.58

Note. na = Not applicable.

\* Differences in N are the result of missing data.

## Descriptive Statistics for the Socialization Tactical Pairs

The first research question was, What choice of socialization tactics is employed by the school divisions in Virginia to provide for the organizational socialization of middle school principals? In the following section, results are reported concerning this research question.

### Collective v. Individual

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 1-5 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 19.21. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for highly individualized tactics to a score of 35 for highly collective tactics. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals perceived that school divisions used socialization tactics that were slightly more individual than collective.

### Formal v. Informal

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 6-10 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 16.28. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for highly informal tactics to a score of 35 for highly formal tactics. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals perceived that school divisions used tactics that were considerably more informal than formal.

### Investiture v. Divestiture

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 11-15 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 29.44. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for strong divestiture practice to 35 for strong investiture practice. Placing the mean score of participants on this continuum indicated that these principals perceived that investiture was the socialization tactics being used by school divisions.

### Sequential v. Random

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 16-20 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 19.69. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for highly random tactics to a score of 35 for highly sequential tactics. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals reported school divisions used socialization tactics that were slightly more random than sequential.

### Serial v. Disjunctive

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 21-25 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 24.03. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for highly disjunctive tactics to a score of 35 for highly serial tactics. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals reported school divisions used socialization tactics that were more serial than disjunctive.

### Fixed v. Variable

The result for this measure was determined by the answers to questions 26-30 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score for this item was 16.88. The continuum of measure ran from a potential score of 5 for tactics that are highly variable to a score of 35 for tactics that are highly fixed. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals reported school divisions used tactics that were more variable than fixed.

### Descriptive Statistics for the Tactics within Groups

In the preceding paragraphs, socialization tactical pairs were viewed separately. Within the classification system of Jones (1986), the socialization tactics can also be viewed as operating in groups (see Figure 2). This view gives the results a larger perspective.

### Institutional Tactics v. Individual Tactics

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) developed the six socialization tactical pairs used in the present study based on whether the tactics contributed to a custodial role orientation or an innovative role orientation. Tactics theorized to produce a custodial role orientation were referred to as institutionalized tactics. Tactics theorized to produce an innovative role orientation were referred to as individualized tactics.

In the present study, a mean score was derived for each of the six socialization scales (see Table 4). Each mean score was placed on the scoring continuum (5 - 35) for that particular tactical pair. The results from four of the six tactical pairs were found to be individualized tactics. Mean scores indicate that school divisions used socialization practices that were Individual, Informal, Random, and Variable. The results from two of the six tactical pairs were found to be institutionalized. Mean scores indicate that school divisions used tactics that were Investiture and Serial.

### Context, Content, and Social Aspects Tactics

In a classification system developed by Jones (1986), socialization tactical pairs can also be group based upon the chief concern measured by the tactical pair (Figure 2). Collective v. Individual and Formal v. Informal tactics are concerned with the context in which socialization

takes place. Sequential v. Random and Fixed v. Variable tactics are concerned with the content of the socialization process. Investiture and Serial tactics are concerned with the social aspects of the process.

In the present study, the mean score for Investiture (29.44) was farthest from the center of the continuum (20). The mean score for Serial Tactics (24.03) was found above the center of the continuum. The mean scores for Individual tactics (19.21) and Informal tactics (16.28) were found below the center of the continuum. The mean scores for Random tactics (19.69) and Variable tactics (16.88) were also below the center of the continuum. Examining the differences in the mean scores of these tactical groupings demonstrates another way to describe the socialization tactics being used by school divisions. The mean scores for the social aspects tactics were a greater distance from the center of the continuum than were the scores for either the content or the context tactics. In addition, the mean scores for these social aspects tactics were found on the Institutional side of the continuum. Mean scores for the context tactics and mean scores for the content tactics were found on the Individual side of the continuum. The full significance of viewing the socialization tactics in this way will be discussed in chapter five.

### Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Variables

#### Role Orientation

The measure for role orientation was determined by answers to questions 31-35 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score was 18.82. The continuum of measure for this variable ran from a score of 5 for a role orientation highly custodial to a score of 35 for a role orientation that is highly innovative. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals felt their adjustment to the role of a principal to be somewhat custodial.

#### Role Conflict

The measure for role conflict was determined by answers to questions 38, 40, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, and 48 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score was 31.01. The continuum of measure for role conflict ran from a score of 8 for a low level of role conflict to a score of 56 for a high level of role conflict. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals felt their adjustment to the role of principal to be slightly free of conflict.

#### Role Ambiguity

The measure for role ambiguity was determined by the answers to questions 36, 37, 39, 41, and 44 on the survey. For the 78 principals that reported, the mean score was 26.73. The continuum of measure for role ambiguity ran from a score of 5 for feelings of high ambiguity to a score of 35 for a clear understanding of the role. Placing the mean score of principals on this continuum indicated that principals felt relatively clear about what was expected of them in the principal's role.

In the preceding section, descriptive statistics were reported that addressed research question one. The report told what school divisions have been doing to socialize newcomer principals. In the three sections that follow, an analysis of the data is reported to answer research questions two, three, and four.

## Question 2: The Relationship between Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes

The second of the four research questions is concerned with the relationship between the Socialization Tactics (independent variables) and the Role Outcomes (dependent variables). In this section the relationship between tactics and outcomes will be described by using the methodologies of Pearson  $r$  correlation and canonical correlation analysis. Then, an analysis of the theoretical model (Figure 1) is provided.

### Correlations

The intercorrelations among the study variables are displayed in Table 6. An examination of the intercorrelations between the six scales of socialization tactics reveals a significant degree of correlation. This finding is consistent with the theory of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) as discussed earlier in the review of the literature. Jones (1986) theorized, and then found, that two of the variables, investiture and serial, which he named social aspects, would be highly correlated. He also theorized and found that sequential and fixed tactics, which he called content tactics, would be highly correlated. By finding similar patterns of correlation, the results of the present study support the theory and findings of Jones.

With the exception of the scale measuring role orientation ( $\alpha = .14, p < .05$ ), the intrascale reliability estimate ( $\alpha$ ) for each of the scales of the dependent and independent variables was significant. The alpha scores are listed in parentheses as the diagonal values in Table 5.

Concerning the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation, the intercorrelations among the variables do not show a clear pattern of relationship between role orientation and either the institutional or the individual methods of socialization (see Table 6). Relating the socialization tactics to role conflict does reveal a significant pattern of relationship. Role conflict is identified with the individual end of all six of the continua measuring socialization tactics. Except for the relationship between informal practice and role conflict ( $r = -.21, p < .05$ ), these relationships are statistically significant. The same significant relationship is seen in the correlation of socialization tactics and role ambiguity. Lower amounts of role ambiguity are associated with the institutional methods of socialization.

The mean score for role orientation was 18.82 on a scale of 5-35 with a score of 35 being associated with a highly innovation role orientation and with a score of 20 being the center of the continuum (see Table 6). A mean score of 18.82 is indicative of a slightly custodial approach to the job. Given the scores on the scales of the socialization tactics, theory would suggest a pattern of higher correlation with role orientation than was found. The canonical correlation analysis

Table 6

Intercorrelations Among the Study Variables in the Study<sup>a,b</sup>

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Role orientation	18.82	5.94	(.14)								
2. Role conflict	31.01	10.92	.35	(.46)							
3. Role ambiguity	26.73	5.50	-.08	-.54	(.43)						
4. Collective v. Individual	19.21	7.62	-.01	-.27	.40	(.47)					
5. Formal v. Informal	16.28	4.18	.08	-.21	.33	.32	(.43)				
6. Investiture v. Divestiture	29.44	4.53	.00	-.50	.63	.36	.23	(.49)			
7. Sequential v. Random	19.69	6.97	.04	-.30	.47	.52	.48	.53	(.69)		
8. Serial v. Disjunctive	24.03	7.01	-.08	-.51	.54	.55	.38	.71	.64	(.56)	
9. Fixed v. Variable	16.88	6.54	.06	-.43	.50	.29	.33	.39	.59	.49	(.44)

*Intrascale reliability coefficients (α) are provided in parentheses*

Note. <sup>a</sup> N=78; correlation coefficients above .23 are significant at  $p < .05$ , those above .32 at  $p < .01$ . Reliability coefficients (alpha) are shown in parentheses.

<sup>b</sup> Given the nature of the scales, a positive correlation with any socialization tactics is a measure of the relationship with the institutional end of the continuum. A negative correlation coefficient is a relationship with the individual end of the continuum.

that follows might give a clearer picture of the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation.

The other two scores for role outcomes, role conflict and role ambiguity, fit the pattern predicted by socialization theory. In the results (see Table 6), individualized socialization programs are associated with relatively high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity. Socialization tactics that are individual, informal, random, variable, and involve divestiture are generally associated with higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity than are tactics that are collective, formal, sequential, serial, fixed, and involve investiture. The results support the socialization theory upon which the theoretical model is based.

### Canonical Correlation Analysis of the Variables

In an effort to further define the relationship between the socialization tactics and the role outcomes, the dependent and independent variables were investigated using canonical correlation analysis. This was an appropriate procedure since multiple dependent variables and multiple independent variables were involved in the research. Canonical correlation analysis is a valuable tool for exploring data (Walker, 1998). This statistical technique compares a linear combination of the dependent variable and a linear combination of the independent variable by computing a series of canonical functions that best summarize the relationship.

In Table 7 values are given for three canonical roots, the number of roots being equal to the number of variables in the smallest set of variables. The first canonical correlation, or the correlation between the first pair of canonical variables, is  $R = 0.77$ . This value represents the highest possible correlation between any linear combination of the socialization tactic variables and the role outcome variables. Canonical correlations are also given for the second and third roots, but these are judged as insignificant. The reason the second and third are judged insignificant is demonstrated by the  $F$  values. The first approximate  $F$  value of 4.54 corresponds to the test that all three canonical correlations are equal to zero. Since the p-value is small (0.0001), the null hypothesis can be rejected at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  level. The second approximate  $F$  value of 0.26 corresponds to the test that both the second and third canonical correlations are zero. Since the p-value is large (0.7442), the null hypothesis cannot be rejected and the conclusion must be drawn that only the first canonical correlation is significant at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  level.

The three canonical functions have Eigenvalues of 1.50, 0.07, and 0.03, respectively. Eigenvalues of canonical correlation analysis indicate how well the functions differentiate the groups. The larger the Eigenvalues, the better the groups are discriminated. In the present study in which only the first canonical function is significant, the Eigenvalues for the first function (1.50) accounts for 94% of the variance.

Within Table 7, there is also a value labeled as Wilks' Lambda (0.36). This test helps to determine how many discriminant functions are significant. If the overall Wilks' Lambda is significant, but none of the remaining functions is significant, then only the first function is

Table 7

Results of Canonical Analysis of the Relationships of Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes

Canonical Roots	Eigenvalues	Wilks' Lambda	F	Canonical Correlations	Coefficients of Redundancy
1	1.50	0.36	4.54**	0.77	0.56
2	0.07	ng <sup>a</sup>	0.68	0.26	0.00
3	0.03	ng <sup>a</sup>	0.51	0.17	0.00

Results for Canonical Set I

Variable	Standardized Canonical Coefficients	Canonical Correlations
Dependent variables		
Role orientation	.30	.22
Role conflict	-.49	-.74
Role ambiguity	.62	.91
Independent variables		
Collective v. individual	.17	.52
Formal v. informal	.20	.48
Investiture v. Divestiture	.62	.85
Sequential v. random	-.21	.64
Serial v. disjunctive	.07	.77
Fixed v. variable	.48	.76

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

<sup>a</sup>Value not given using SAS

reported. The Wilks' Lambda reported in Table 7 has an  $F$  value of 4.54 with 18 degrees of freedom and is significant at the  $p = 0.05$  level. Therefore, we are able to reject the null hypothesis that all correlations are equal to zero.

Table 7 also contains the measure of redundancy that is particularly useful for assessing the practical significance of the canonical roots. The coefficients of redundancy tell us how much of the actual variability in one set of variables is explained by the other set of variables.

Only the first canonical set is significant. It is reported in Table 7. Examining the standardized canonical coefficients for the dependent variables reveals that role ambiguity ( $R = .62$ ) and role conflict ( $R = -.49$ ) load heaviest. These two dependent variables contributed heaviest to the role outcome canonical variable. This finding suggests that principals perceived role ambiguity and role conflict to be important outcomes of their socialization process.

Among the independent variables, investiture tactics ( $R = .62$ ) and fixed tactics ( $R = .48$ ) load heaviest. These two independent variables contributed heaviest to the socialization tactics variable. In the study, the principals whose socialization was influenced most strongly by investiture had the greatest impact on the canonical variable. By examining the canonical correlations in Results for Canonical Set I (Table 7), it is revealed that the canonical variable for the dependent variables does represent all three variables. Role ambiguity ( $R = .91$ ) is the most influential followed by role conflict ( $R = -.74$ ). (Because of the scaling procedures, the measure for role ambiguity equates higher scale scores with less ambiguity, while the scale for role conflict equates higher scale scores with higher role conflict.) The canonical correlation for role orientation ( $R = .22$ ) suggests the variable plays a less influential part. Examining the canonical correlations for the independent variables reveals that all six tactical pairs are represented by the socialization tactic variable. Within the canonical variable, investiture ( $R = .85$ ) and serial ( $R = .77$ ) tactics are the most influential. They are followed in influence by fixed ( $R = .76$ ) and sequential ( $R = .64$ ) tactics. Collective ( $R = .52$ ) and formal ( $R = .48$ ) tactics complete the set and are the least significant.

### Question 3: The Relationship between School Division Characteristics and Socialization Tactics

Pearson  $r$  correlation was used to analyze whether a relationship exists between the characteristics of school divisions and the socialization tactics selected for the socialization of newcomer principals. Results are discussed in the section that follows. Correlations are arrayed in Tables 8.

#### School Division Size

When school division size, as measured by membership figures, was correlated with the six pairs of socialization tactics, only one significant relationship was found. The Pearson  $r$  correlation between school division size and collective tactics was  $r = .23$ ,  $p < .05$ . This finding would not be inconsistent with expectations given the potentially larger number of newcomers in larger divisions. School division size in Virginia was also significantly correlated with school

Table 8

Pearson *r* Correlations for School Division Characteristics and Socialization Tactics

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. School division size								
2. School division wealth	.28*							
3. School division region	-.28*	-.24*						
4. Collective	.23*	.22*	-.09					
5. Formal	.12	-.08	-.13	.32**				
6. Investiture	.16	.07	-.00	.36**	.23*			
7. Sequential	.13	.06	-.15	.52**	.48**	.53**		
8. Serial	.08	-.05	-.16	.55**	.38**	.71**	.64**	
9. Fixed	.05	-.03	-.16	.29*	.33**	.39**	.59**	.49**

Note. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

division wealth having a coefficient of  $r = .28, p < .05$ , and with geographic region having a coefficient of  $r = .28, p < .05$ . The larger and wealthier school divisions were located in a band of characteristically urban settings along the Eastern half of the Virginia, stretching from the Washington area of Northern Virginia through Richmond, and ending in the southeast (See Appendix D: Regions I, II, III, IV).

#### School Division Wealth

The Pearson  $r$  correlation between school division wealth and the socialization tactics was  $r = .22, p < .05$ . Because the relationship between school division size and school division wealth was a significant one, it is not surprising that there was also a significant relationship between division wealth and collective socialization tactics.

#### School Division Region

There was no significant relationship between the region of the state in which the school division was located and its choice of socialization tactics. As stated above, region was related to size and wealth.

#### Question 4: The Relationship between Principal Traits and both Socialization Tactics and Role Outcomes

Pearson  $r$  correlation was used to analyze whether a relationship exists between principal traits and the socialization tactics selected by school divisions, or between principal traits and role outcomes. In cases in which a significant correlation was found, further analysis was conducted using ANOVA. The results are discussed in the section below. Correlations are arrayed in Tables 9 and 10.

#### Age

The dependent variable of age was correlated with the role outcomes of role orientation, role conflict, and role ambiguity. The relationship between age and role orientation was the only one that was significant. The correlation coefficient for the relationship was  $r = .23, p < .05$ . Of the 78 principals responding, 77 were between the ages of 30 and 59. Comparing age and the mean scores for role orientation showed that the 28 principals in the 50-59 age group scored with a higher level of innovation than did the 38 principals in the 40-49 age group. The 40-49 age group scored higher in innovation than did the 10 principals in the 30-39 year old group.

Table 9

Pearson *r* Correlations for Principal Traits and Role Outcomes

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age						
2. Gender	-.04					
3. Ethnicity	-.06	.05				
4. Experience	.25	-.16	.16			
5. Role orientation	.23*	-.27*	.19	-.01		
6. Role conflict	-.05	-.11	.02	.04	.35**	
7. Role ambiguity	.09	.02	.07	.01	-.08	-.54**

Note. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10

Pearson *r* Correlations for Principal Traits and Socialization Tactics

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age									
2. Gender	-.04								
3. Ethnicity	-.06	.05							
4. Experience	.25	-.16	.16						
5. Collective	.11	.02	-.25*	.08					
6. Formal	.07	.01	.01	.02	.32**				
7. Investiture	.02	.14	.31**	-.07	.36**	.23*			
8. Sequential	-.04	.01	.05	.02	.52**	.48**	.53**		
9. Serial	-.10	.06	.05	-.09	.55**	.38**	.71**	.64**	
10. Fixed	-.07	.05	.27*	-.06	.29*	.33**	.39**	.59**	.49**

Note. \* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

### Gender

When the variable for gender was correlated with the three role outcomes, only one relationship was significant. The Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficient for gender and role orientation was  $r = .27$ ,  $p < .05$ . Examining the mean scores on the continuum for role orientation (5-35), where higher numbers reflect a more innovative role orientation, revealed male principals ( $n = 44$ ) scored at a mean of over 20 while female principals ( $n = 33$ ) scored at a mean of 17.

### Ethnicity

The data revealed no significant relationship between the principals' race and any of the three role outcomes.

When principal traits were correlated with the socialization tactics of school divisions, race was found to have a significant relationship to three of the socialization tactics. Race was correlated with individual socialization tactics at an  $r = .25$ ,  $p < .05$  level. Race also correlated at a significant level ( $r = .31$ ,  $p < .01$ ) with investiture. Race was also significantly related to fixed tactics with a Pearson  $r$  correlation coefficient of  $r = .27$ ,  $p < .05$ .

Race and the six socialization tactics were analyzed using an ANOVA. The relationship between race and three of the six socialization tactics was found significant. The effect of collection was statistically significant,  $F(1, 74) = 5.004$ ,  $p = .028$ . The effect of investiture was statistically significant,  $F(1, 74) = 7.790$ ,  $p = .007$ . The effect of fixed tactics was statistically significant,  $F(1, 74) = 5.631$ ,  $p = .020$ . These results are summarized in Table 11.

### Experience

The principals' experience, expressed as the number of new principalships each principal had entered, was not found to have any significant relationship to role outcomes or to school division socialization tactics.

Table 11

Analysis of Variance between Ethnicity and the Socialization Tactics

Source		<i>df</i>	SS	MS	F
COLLECTIVE	Between Groups	1	270.370	270.370	5.004*
	Within Groups	74	3998.512	54.034	
	Total	75	4268.882		
FORMAL	Between Groups	1	.184	.184	.010
	Within Groups	74	1310.448	17.709	
	Total	75	1310.632		
INVESTITURE	Between Groups	1	149.371	149.371	7.790**
	Within Groups	74	1418.985	19.175	
	Total	75	1568.355		
SEQUENTIAL	Between Groups	1	8.762	8.762	.176
	Within Groups	74	3674.028	49.649	
	Total	75	3682.789		
SERIAL	Between Groups	1	9.996	9.996	.200
	Within Groups	74	3695.938	49.945	
	Total	75	3705.934		
FIXED	Between Groups	1	228.924	228.924	5.631*
	Within Groups	74	3008.484	40.655	
	Total	75	3237.408		

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

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

What are school divisions doing to socialize their newcomer principals? What are the role outcomes of this socialization process? What are the other variables that influence this process? The findings of the present study suggest answers to these research questions.

#### Synthesis of the Canonical Correlation Analysis Findings

As documented in chapter four, the canonical variable for the set of dependent variables (role orientation, role conflict, and role ambiguity) represented all three variables. Further, after examining the canonical correlations for the independent variables, it was concluded that all six tactical pairs were represented by the socialization tactic variable. With this understanding of the representative nature of the two variable sets, these results can be interpreted to mean that socialization tactics and role outcomes are related. Principals socialized by investiture and serial tactics are likely to have less role ambiguity and less role conflict than principals not socialized in this way. However, principals socialized with investiture and serial tactics will tend to exhibit a custodial role orientation. Principals socialized by tactics that are fixed and sequential will also experience less ambiguity and less role conflict, but also tend towards a custodial orientation. Principals socialized by tactics that are collective or formal also follow this pattern. These results suggest that institutional tactics produce less role ambiguity, less role conflict, but are more likely to produce a custodial role orientation. Individual tactics are associated with higher levels of ambiguity, higher levels of role conflict, and more innovative role orientations. The results of the present study support the theory of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) as adapted by Jones (1986). These results also support the findings of Jones' study that institutional and individual socialization tactics have different effects on role outcomes.

Jones (1986) also suggested that investiture and serial tactics would be most influential on the adjustments persons make when entering new organizations. These social aspect tactics, as Jones described them, were found by him to be the most influential. The present study also found the investiture and serial tactics to be the most influential in relationship to the role outcomes. Following in influence were the fixed and sequential tactics, followed by the collective and formal tactics. These results were consistent with the results Jones found.

#### Summary of Results upon the Theoretical Model

In Figure 1 (p. 5), a theoretical model was proposed to explore the relationship between the variables in the study. In Figure 4 (p. 44), the theoretical model was expanded to show the methods used to analyze the relationship between variables and between sets of variables. In the section that follows, the theoretical model is examined based upon results obtained in the study.

### Tactics and Outcomes in the Theoretical Model

The centerpiece of the theoretical model (Figure 1) is the box representing the socialization tactics used by school divisions for the socialization of newcomer principals. To its right is the box representing principal role outcomes. An arrow points from the socialization tactics box to the role outcomes box. The arrow represents both a relationship and a direction of influence. This study has documented by the use of canonical correlation analysis, not only that a relationship between tactics and outcomes exists, but that the socialization tactics are influential on the adjustments that principals make to their roles. This part of the model is validated.

### The Influence of School Division Characteristics on the Theoretical Model

In the theoretical model of Figure 1, the box represents the characteristics of school divisions to the left of the box representing socialization tactics. The arrow drawn from the characteristics box towards the socialization tactics box represents a relationship that influences the selection of socialization tactics. The school division characteristics tested in the present study were influential in moderating the strength of the relationship between socialization tactics and role outcomes. The Pearson  $r$  correlations (Table 8) reported earlier showed a significant relationship between collective tactics and school division size and wealth. School division region was related indirectly through its high correlation with size and wealth. While the effects here are small, they do establish a pattern of influence that validates this part of the theoretical model and suggests an area for further investigation.

### The Influence of Principal Traits on the Theoretical Model

The box representing principal traits in the theoretical model (Figure 1) is drawn above and to the left of both the socialization tactics box and the role outcomes box. The two arrows represent the influence of principal traits. The first is drawn towards socialization tactics and the second is drawn towards role outcomes. As previously discussed, a significant relationship was demonstrated between ethnicity and three socialization tactics (individual, investiture and fixed). This finding does two things for the present study. It first validates the fact that there is a flow of influence, however small, from the traits of principals to the socialization tactics chosen by school divisions. Secondly, it raises interesting questions for further study. Perhaps a research design that intentionally investigated a sample of principals with a broader ethnic background would shed more light on this subject.

The second arrow is drawn from principal traits towards the box representing role outcomes. Several statistics underscore the influence that principal traits had on role outcomes. Age was positively correlated with role orientation. Perhaps somewhat surprisingly, older principals rated themselves higher as innovators than did younger principals. This fact may suggest that older principals feel more freedom to experiment as age brings them more experiences and more securities. Male principals were also found

more innovative than female principals are. This finding suggests an additional area where further research is needed.

From these results, it is clear that a relationship exists between principal traits and socialization tactics, and between principal traits and role outcomes. It is also clear that when principals accept a new job, principal traits exert an influence on the adjustments principals make to their new role. Thus, the part of the theoretical model that represents the influence of principal traits on both socialization tactics and role outcomes is validated.

### Evaluation of the Theoretical Model

By reviewing the results for each part of the theoretical model, the influence variables exert upon one another can be traced through the socialization process used by school division with newcomer principals. With role outcomes as the result of the process, socialization tactics and principal traits were demonstrated to have an effect on those outcomes. It was also shown that the selection of these socialization tactics was influenced by both the characteristics of the school division, and the traits of the principals. Thus, the theoretical model is a correct representation of the results and is built upon sound theoretical ground. It would have been desirable for the model to fit the results more fully, or for all the variables to fit the theory completely. This exactness would have given greater credibility to the theoretical model. However, the scope of the present research was more about data description and data exploration than hypothesis testing. The theoretical model is a convenient graphic organizer for expressing the findings of the present study.

### Summary of Present Practice

One premise of the present study is that organizations influence the way in which newcomers adjust to the organization. They do this by tactically choosing processes that shape the context, content, or social aspects of how information is shared with newcomers. This study found a relationship between the socialization tactics used by school divisions to socialize newcomer middle school principals, and their role outcomes. The findings of this study support the work of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and of Jones (1986) in stating that different socialization tactics influence different role outcomes. School divisions that used the social dimension tactics (investiture and serial) significantly influenced the adjustment of principals to their role. Specifically, the school divisions influenced the way principals perceived the level of conflict associated with their new principalships, and school divisions influenced the amount of ambiguity, or clarity, with which principals viewed their roles. School divisions also influenced whether the principals adopted an innovative or custodial orientation within their roles. The content tactics, labeled fixed and sequential, influenced newcomer principal adjustment to the organization in the same way but to a slightly lesser extent. Collective and formal tactics, described by Jones as context tactics, were less influential.

The findings also revealed that it is the different ends of the six socialization tactics continua that influence role orientation, not a blending of the different tactical dimensions. This fact explains why role orientation reflected a custodial role. A custodial role

orientation is associated with the institutional side of each tactical pair. For example, in the investiture v. divestiture tactical pair, investiture is the institutional tactic. The mean scores for each of the six socialization scales reveal that four of the six means fell on the individual sides of the continua. Since the individual sides of the continua are associated with an innovative role orientation, why did role orientation not reflect an innovation orientation? The answer lies in the fact that the influence of the four individual tactics (individual, informal, random, and variable) did not blend. Instead, it was the more significant influence of the two institutional tactics, investiture and serial, that produced a custodial role orientation.

The effect that a school division's choice of socialization tactics had on role outcomes was predictable by socialization theory. Role ambiguity and role conflict were reduced for newcomer principals in the study by the institutional tactics, but role innovation was also reduced. Higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity were associated with the individual tactics, but so also was a more innovative role orientation.

### Study Limitations

Several limitations of the study should be borne in mind when interpreting the findings. First, the present study is based upon self-reported data. This fact raises questions concerning the accuracy of participants' responses. It also raises the issue of common method bias in the data. Further research should attempt to supplement self-report measures with data from an alternative source, such as peers or supervisors.

Second, the population that was surveyed was relatively homogeneous with respect to their level of education, their socioeconomic status, their age, their race, and their occupational disposition. This fact restricted the possible range of responses and should be kept in mind as the findings of the present study are evaluated. Conversely, when correlation is used with a restricted range, coefficients are generally driven down. Thus, the correlation coefficients reported in Tables 6, 8, 9, and 10 may be conservative values.

Third, the theoretical model in Figure 1 does not contain all possible or potential variables that could influence newcomer adjustment. Therefore, the associations between socialization tactics and role outcomes could be inflated because other potentially relevant variables were not included.

Fourth, Stevens (1992) found a relationship between the number of study participants, the total number of variables used in canonical correlation analysis, and the confidence obtainable from the results. He advised a 20:1 ratio of participants to variables for the first canonical set. The ratio in the Jones (1986) study was 8.5:1. In the present study the ratio is 8.66:1, slightly higher than Jones. Caution is suggested in how the results of the canonical correlation analysis are used.

## Conclusions

Several patterns that emerged from the data can be linked to provide a view of the socialization process that involves school divisions and newcomer principals. First, it is clear that the socialization tactics used by school divisions influenced the principals' role in significant ways. This finding is similar to those findings of other studies that demonstrate an influence on newcomer principals by the local educational agency (Duke, et al., 1984; Hurley, 1990). This is an important consideration for school divisions with a principal vacancy. It suggests that the process that the school system chooses to use in the socialization of a new principal will influence whether the new principal adopts an innovative role or maintains the status quo of the role. It also suggests that the process of socialization that the school division chooses will influence the conflict and ambiguity the newcomer principal experiences in his role. While not included in this study, other researchers have associated higher levels of role conflict and role ambiguity with lower levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of commitment to the organization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Billingsley & Cross, 1992; Jones, 1986).

A second conclusion is that the social aspect tactics in the socialization process are the most influential regarding the principals' role. This finding is in agreement with the finding of Jones (1986). The tactic of receiving the principal as a professional who is fully capable of doing the job (investiture) was found to have the greatest influence on the principals' role. This tactic was followed closely in influence to the tactic of providing a mentor (serial) for the newcomer. These two actions on the part of school divisions were found to influence principals towards the adoption of a status quo or custodial approach to their roles.

A third conclusion is that principals influenced the socialization process in which they were involved. Saks and Ashforth (1997) found that newcomers tend to be active in their own socialization. In the present study, the age, gender, and ethnicity of principals were shown to have an influence on the levels of conflict and ambiguity that principals experienced in their roles. Throughout the socialization process, the socialization tactics chosen by school divisions did not work in isolation, but were influenced by the personal traits of the principals involved.

A fourth conclusion is that some characteristics of school divisions were shown to have an influence on the selection of the socialization tactics used in the socialization process. The characteristics shown to influence the process were school division size and wealth. The influence of school division size and wealth was largely upon the selection of context tactics, collective and formal, tactics not found in the present study to be highly significant. Interestingly, there was no clear relationship between school division characteristics and the most influential tactics of investiture or serial socialization. This finding suggests that school divisions, regardless of location or resource, act similarly in their selection of socialization tactics.

## Implications

These findings and conclusions have implications for the ways school divisions socialize newcomer principals, for principals entering a socialization process, and for further research.

### Implications for School Divisions

The first implication for school divisions is to consider an intentional alignment between the socialization tactics chosen for the socialization of a new principal and the desired results for the specific school in which that principal will serve. If all is well in the school and no change is desired, then the process of choice might be one that influences a status quo or custodial principal role. As demonstrated, the socialization tactics that influence principals towards a custodial role are investiture, serial, sequential, and fixed tactics.

Another scenario occurs when the general role of the principal is working well, but change is desirable. Such change might be desirable for any number of reasons, such as low student achievement, an objectionable school climate, or a high teacher turnover rate. Thus, a more innovative role is indicated for the principal. The school division can support this innovative role by their choice of socialization tactics. This study found that divestiture, disjunctive, random, and variable tactics influence an innovative role for the principal.

The second implication for school divisions is that the social aspect tactics embodied the strongest relationships with the principals' role. Specifically, receiving the newcomer principal as a professional fully equipped for the new job (investiture) carried the largest influence. Investiture was shown to lead to a custodial relationship. Serial tactic was the second of the aspect tactics. This second tactic, that of assigning a mentor, was found to trail only investiture in its influence. It also was found to influence custodial results.

In the scenario described above, innovation was the desired outcome. Divestiture was cited as a tactic influencing an innovative response. Does this mean that in order to achieve an innovative role the principal must be treated as less than a professional? The answer lies in the nature of the investiture v. divestiture scale used in the research. It is not bipolar, but rather is a continuum with a range of measure. Suppose the desire for change in a particular school was the result of low student achievement, it would be possible to receive the newcomer principal in a professional way while building into the terms of employment attendance at a series of conferences focused on increasing student achievement. In this example, the principal can be affirmed as a professional, but one who can continue to learn about student achievement. This recognition of a need to learn is a form of divestiture.

Under the same conditions of desiring innovation, it would be best to avoid serial tactics according to the research. The use of a mentor influences the principals' role towards a custodial approach.

### Implications for Principals

The first implication for principals is to realize the influence that the socialization process will have on them as they accept their role. If the school division has deliberately chosen socialization tactics, it is to influence the outcome of the socialization process in a particular way. Understanding this strategy can help principals deal with the socialization process. The leaders of the school division have been charged with the responsibility to lead schools in particular directions. The critical issue is for the expectations of the principal to match the expectations of the school division. The appointment of a principal with a disposition towards innovation in a school that needs a custodial role might lead to disastrous results.

This issue of expectations leads to a second implication for principals, again assuming the deliberate selection of socialization tactics by the school division to influence the process in a certain way. When seeking a job, the principal must be intentional in the selection of positions. The needs of every administrative position may not match the expectations or skills of the principal. If the school division is not forthright in expressing its expectations for the school, this lack of disclosure will require candor on the part of the principal to ask of the school division, What are the expectations for the principal who is appointed to this school? Only when there is an appropriate match between the expectations of the school division and the expectations of the principal can an optimal socialization process occur.

The third implication for principals is to realize the influence they will have on the socialization process. Principals are not neutral bystanders in this socialization process. By virtue of their age, their gender, or their ethnicity, principals will influence the socialization undertaken by school divisions.

### Implications for Further Research

Both the limitations and the successes of the present study suggest the need for further research. The following suggestions point out some of these needs.

First, the scale for measuring role orientation needs to be improved for use among educational administrators. The measure did not produce the expected results in the present study. For example, items on the scale may not reflect the specific behaviors of an innovative or custodial principal. Items, such as "I have changed the mission or purpose of my role," might not express what an innovative principal might do. The language of the item might suggest a behavior that some would view as outside the prerogatives of the principal. If a careful evaluation of the scale should find it inappropriate for use among professional educators, a new one would need to be developed.

Second, further research is needed in the area of socialization tactic definition. In seeking to define and understand the use of tactics, artificial boundaries have been created that make tactics appear solitary and immutable. Future research should examine how these present tactics might be realigned to produce some useful new tactics. For example, a serial

tactic consists of the use of a mentor and has been associated in the research with a custodial role orientation. How might a mentor be used to foster an innovative role orientation?

Third, the scope of the present research could be expanded to include other groups of educators. The headmasters or administrators in private schools, and the administrators of charter schools could be populations in an investigation of the use of socialization tactics and related outcomes. Teachers as a whole, or teachers within specific disciplines, could be potential populations for similar studies focused on socialization tactics and outcomes.

Fourth, to partially address the third limitation of the present research that the theoretical model does not contain all possible variables, one important variable that should be researched is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was included in the study by Jones (1986) and he found it a significant variable. The results of the present study suggest that examining the relationship between self-efficacy, gender and ethnicity might be fruitful.

### Recommendations

These findings, with the conclusions and implications stated, suggest the following recommendations for current practice:

1. When providing for newcomer principals, school divisions might consider employing socialization tactics based upon needs within the particular school for which the new principal was appointed. The essential element in this decision-making process should be the needs of the school receiving the newcomer principal. This decision will center around whether the primary need is for maintenance of the status quo, or whether innovation is desirable. Once a decision has been reached, then a socialization process can be developed. The socialization tactics to be used in this process are ideally aligned with the desired outcomes. This intentional process in the selection of socialization tactics is based upon the findings of the present study that indicate a relationship between socialization tactics and role outcomes for principals.

2. The present study found the social aspect tactics, investiture and serial, to be the most influential in the socialization of newcomer principals. Therefore, for school divisions seeking to develop an intentional process of socialization, it is suggested that school divisions start with these tactics. Of the two, investiture is the most influential, but also the least clear-cut as far as practices are concerned. Practitioners might want to develop their own research project around ways to implement the investiture v. divestiture continuum.

3. Based upon these findings, principals should be viewed as active participants in the socialization process. School divisions that implement more deliberate socialization strategies based upon the research will want to disclose rather than cloak their intentions. In this way the influence that principals bring to the socialization process can compliment rather than oppose the intentions of the school division.

4. School divisions should encourage and support further research in this area. The present study found socialization tactics to be tools available to local school divisions for use in influencing schools towards a desired goal. Given the present standards movement in education, it seems as if this should be received as good news by school division leadership. Yet, there is little empirical research to suggest the best ways to go about using this tool. With additional study, there is the promise that future school divisions could develop socialization processes that move schools with greater ease and effectiveness towards desired goals.

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## APPENDIX A: MEASURES USED IN THE JONES (1986) STUDY

Responses were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” ® indicates reverse scoring. Sources are documented at the end of each section.

### **Scales Measuring Socialization Tactics<sup>a</sup>**

#### **Collective versus individual:**

In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common job related training activities.

Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements.

This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.

Most of my training has been carried out apart from other newcomers. ®

There is a sense of “being in the same boat” amongst newcomers in this organization.

#### **Formal versus informal:**

I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.

During my training for this job I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members.

I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods.

Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis. ®

I have been very aware that I am seen as “learning the ropes” in this organization.

#### **Investiture versus divestiture:**

I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.

Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.

I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. ®

My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.

I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations. ®

#### **Sequential versus random:**

There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization.

Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceding stages of the process.

The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this organization.

This organization does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experiences. ®

The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this organization.

### **Serial versus disjunctive:**

Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization.

I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues.

I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. ®

I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my job in the organization. ®

I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. ®

### **Fixed versus variable:**

I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experiences.

I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of training process in this organization.

The way in which my progress through this organization will follow a fixed timetable of events and has been clearly communicated to me.

I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercise in this organization. ®

Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, "through the grapevine," rather than through regular organizational channels. ®

### **Role Orientation<sup>b</sup>**

I have made an attempt to redefine my role and change what I am required to do.

While I am satisfied with my overall job responsibilities, I have altered the procedures for doing my job.

I have changed the mission or purpose of my role.

The procedures for performing my job are generally appropriate in my view.

I have tried to change the procedure for doing my job and to institute new work goals.

<sup>a</sup>Jones (1986)

<sup>b</sup>Jones (1986)

### **Commitment to the organization:<sup>c</sup>**

I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

I feel very little loyalty to this organization. ®

I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.

I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. ®

It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. ®

I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

There is not much to be gained by sticking with this organization.

For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. ®

<sup>c</sup>Jones (1986)

### **Role Conflict and Ambiguity:<sup>d</sup>**

I have enough time to complete my work.

I feel certain about how much authority I have.

I perform tasks that are too easy and boring.

Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.

I have to do things that should be done differently.

Lack of policies and guidelines to help me.

I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.

I am corrected or rewarded when I really don't expect it.

I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.

I know that I have divided my time properly.\*

I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.

I know what my responsibilities are.

I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.

I have to "feel my way" in performing my duties.

I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.

I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.

I have just the right amount of work to do.

I know that I have divided my time properly.\*

I work with two or more groups, who operate quite differently,

I know exactly what is expected of me.

I receive incompatible requests from two or more people,

I am uncertain as to how my job is linked.

I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.

I am told how well I am doing my job.

I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.

Explanation is clear of what has to be done.  
I work on unnecessary things.  
I have to work under vague directives or orders.  
I perform work that suits my values.  
I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my boss.

<sup>d</sup>Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970)

\*Items 10, 18 are the same owing to clerical error in the original.

## APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

### Outcomes of School Division Socialization Practices Questionnaire

I. Please circle the response that is true for you:  
I came to my present job as principal in

- A. 2000-2001
- B. 1999-2000
- C. 1998-1999
- D. Earlier than 1998-99

If you circled “D” above, please **STOP**. Mail the survey without completing any other items.

If you circled A, B, or C, please continue with the survey.

II. Please read each sentence carefully and circle the letter that best represents your response.

SD = strongly disagree, D = disagree,

BD = barely disagree, UN = undecided,

BA = barely agree, A = agree, SA = strongly agree

- 1. I have been extensively involved with other newcomers in common, job-related training activities.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 2. Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 3. This district puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 4. Most of my training has been carried out apart from other newcomers.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 5. There is a sense of “being in the same boat” amongst newcomers in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 6. I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA

- 7. During my training for this job I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 8. I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with division procedures and work methods.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 9. Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 10. I have been very aware that I am seen as “learning the ropes” in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 11. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 12. Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 13. I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 14. My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 15. I feel that experienced division members have held me at a distance until I conform to their expectations.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 16. There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 17. Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceding stages of the process.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA

- 18. The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 19. This division does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experiences.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 20. The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 21. Experienced school division members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 22. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this division from observing my senior colleagues.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 23. I have received little guidance from experienced administrators as to how I should perform my job.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 24. I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my role in this division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 25. I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 26. I can predict my future career path in this division by observing other people’s experiences.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 27. I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of training process in this school division.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA
- 28. The way in which my progress through this division will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA

29. I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercise in this division.  
DS D BD UN BA A SA
30. Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally through the grapevine, rather than through regular division channels.  
SD D BD UN BA A SA

Please read each sentence carefully and circle the letter that best represents your response.

VF = very false, F = false, SF = slightly false,  
UN = undecided, ST = slightly true, T = true,  
VT = very true

31. I have made an attempt to redefine my role and change what I am required to do.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
32. While I am satisfied with my overall job responsibilities, I have altered the procedures for doing my job.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
33. I have changed the mission or purpose of my role.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
34. The procedures for performing my job are generally appropriate in my view,  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
35. I have tried to change the procedures for doing my job and to institute new work goals.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
36. I feel certain about how much authority I have.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
37. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
38. I have to do things that should be done differently.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
39. I know that I have divided my time properly.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
40. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT

41. I know what my responsibilities are.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
42. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
43. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
44. I know exactly what is expected of me.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
45. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
46. I do things which are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
47. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT
48. I work on unnecessary things.  
VF F SF UN ST T VT

#### Demographic Data

49. My age is  
 29 years old or younger  
 30-34  
 35-39  
 40-44  
 45-49  
 50-54  
 55-59  
 60 years of age or older
50. Gender:      Male      Female
51. Race (Circle ): Asian, Black, Hispanic, Native American, White
52. Number of new principalships in this, or any school division \_\_\_\_\_

**College of Human Resources and Education**  
Educational Leadership and Policy Studies (0302)  
East Eggleston Hall, Blacksburg, VA 24061  
(540) 231-5111; Fax (540) 231-7845

Dear Colleague:

Do you remember your first days as a new principal in your school division? Would you like to assist a new colleague in this transition? This study is being conducted to look at what school divisions in Virginia do to accommodate newcomers.

Your responses are vital to the study. The information gained will help school divisions gain valuable insights into the socialization process. This information will improve the quality of the dynamic between school divisions and newcomer principals.

All information provided will be kept confidential. The number that appears on the survey and envelope will be used to monitor the returns. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience.

Thank you for sharing your time and experience with us.

Sincerely,

J. David Cochran,  
Doctoral Candidate  
Virginia Tech

Claire Cole Curcio,  
Professor of Counselor  
Education, Doctoral  
Committee Co-Chair,  
Virginia Tech

Lisa Driscoll,  
Visiting Assistant Professor  
of Educational Research,  
Doctoral Committee Co-Chair,  
Virginia Tech

## Appendix C: Fall Membership and Local Composite Index

Division	2000 Fall Membership	2000-2002 Composite Index
ACCOMACK	5340	.3151
ALBEMARLE	12237	.6339
ALLEGHANY	2904	.3128
AMELIA	1788	.3500
AMHERST	4630	.3182
APPOMATTOX	2397	.3121
ARLINGTON	18870	.8000
AUGUSTA	10746	.3638
BATH	821	.8000
BEDFORD COUNTY	16097	.3996
BLAND	903	.2748
BOTETOURT	4583	.4148
BRUNSWICK	2426	.2822
BUCHANAN	4063	.2573
BUCKINGHAM	2260	.2694
CAMPBELL	8654	.3056
CAROLINE	3888	.3169
CARROLL	3990	.2952
CHARLES CITY	941	.4048
CHARLOTTE	2217	.2469
CHESTERFIELD	51212	.4055
CLARKE	1947	.5170
CRAIG	711	.3416
CULPEPER	5627	.3999
CUMBERLAND	1309	.3394
DICKENSON	2712	.2358
DINWIDDIE	4318	.2940
ESSEX	1637	.4529
FAIRFAX COUNTY	156412	.7171
FAUQUIER	9613	.6115
FLOYD	1957	.3496
FLUVANNA	3048	.3817
FRANKLIN COUNTY	7140	.3923
FREDERICK	10634	.3842
GILES	2538	.3182
GLOUCESTER	6451	.3255
GOOCHLAND	1984	.8000
GRAYSON	2263	.2859

GREENE	2607	.3267
GREENSVILLE	2766	.2483
HALIFAX	6030	.3870
HANOVER	16611	.4693
HENRICO	41655	.5214
HENRY	8807	.3070
HIGHLAND	334	.5502
ISLE OF WIGHT	4973	.3749
JAMES CITY	8191	.6404
KING GEORGE	2939	.3539
KING AND QUEEN	945	.4021
KING WILLIAM	1785	.3662
LANCASTER	1513	.6395
LEE	3815	.1886
LOUDOUN	31804	.6571
LOUISA	4219	.6624
LUNENBURG	1836	.2448
MADISON	1849	.4005
MATHEWS	1297	.4798
MECKLENBURG	4997	.3346
MIDDLESEX	1357	.5658
MONTGOMERY	9114	.3812
NELSON	2058	.5036
NEW KENT	2342	.4230
NORTHAMPTON	2198	.3230
NORTHUMBERLAND	1488	.6221
NOTTOWAY	2499	.2584
ORANGE	3955	.4294
PAGE	3537	.3088
PATRICK	2640	.2993
PITTSYLVANIA	9241	.2805
POWHATAN	3573	.4034
PRINCE EDWARD	2623	.3262
PRINCE GEORGE	5855	.2723
PRINCE WILLIAM	54646	.4031
PULASKI	5015	.3257
RAPPAHANNOCK	1020	.7130
RICHMOND COUNTY	1256	.3477
ROANOKE COUNTY	13869	.4264
ROCKBRIDGE	3053	.4232
ROCKINGHAM	10703	.3674

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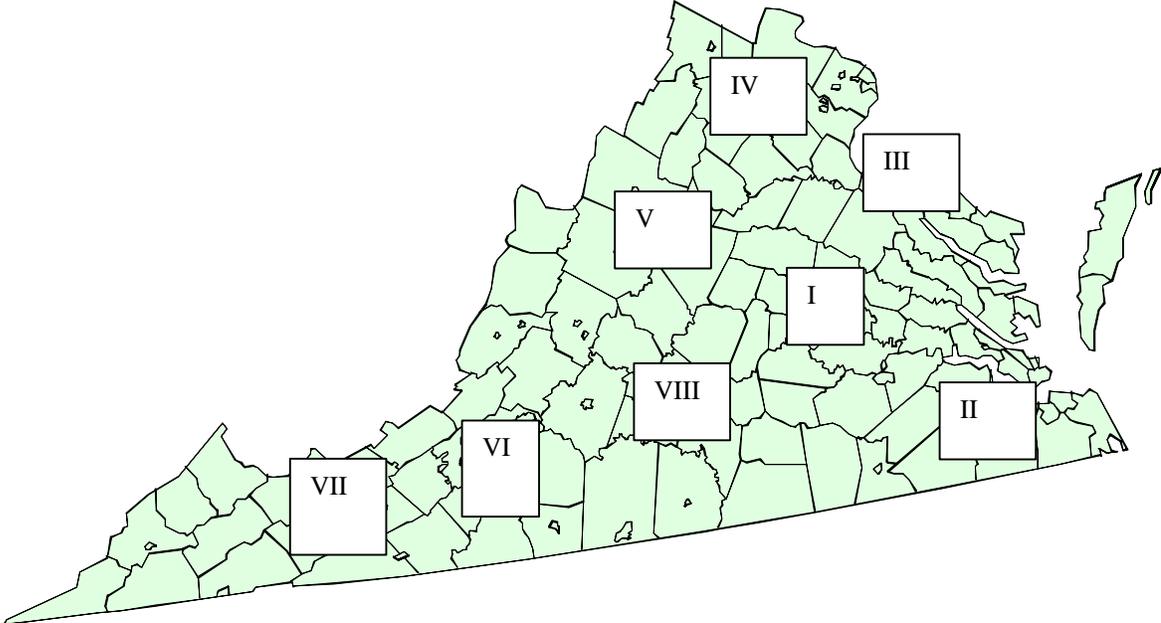
RUSSELL	4263	.2705
SCOTT	3671	.2298
SHENANDOAH	5447	.3908
SMYTH	5189	.2625
SOUTHAMPTON	2862	.3093
SPOTSYLVANIA	18876	.3692
STAFFORD	21124	.3429
SURRY	1232	.8000
SUSSEX	1433	.3229
TAZEWELL	7116	.2753
WARREN	4935	.3951
WASHINGTON	7360	.3532
WESTMORELAND	2050	.3909
WISE	6938	.2237
WYTHE	4318	.3282
YORK	11756	.3881
ALEXANDRIA	11167	.8000
BRISTOL	2408	.3583
BUENA VISTA	1118	.2518
CHARLOTTESVILLE	4458	.5509
COLONIAL HEIGHTS	2773	.4940
COVINGTON	949	.3358
DANVILLE	7659	.3037
FALLS CHURCH	1721	.8000
FREDERICKSBURG	2143	.6859
GALAX	1320	.3339
HAMPTON	23290	.2803
HARRISONBURG	3743	.5493
HOPEWELL	3967	.2673
LYNCHBURG	9212	.3901
MARTINSVILLE	2711	.3210
NEWPORT NEWS	33008	.2799
NORFOLK	37349	.2763
NORTON	709	.3501
PETERSBURG	5984	.2240
PORTSMOUTH	16473	.2225
RADFORD	1582	.3313
RICHMOND CITY	27237	.4536
ROANOKE CITY	13800	.4078
STAUNTON	2786	.4131
SUFFOLK	11983	.3229

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VIRGINIA BEACH	76586	.3523
WAYNESBORO	3030	.3730
WILLIAMSBURG	8191	.8000
WINCHESTER	3399	.5643
FAIRFAX CITY	n.a.	.8000
FRANKLIN CITY	1423	.2973
CHESAPEAKE	37645	.3517

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Appendix D: Regions of the State



APPENDIX D, con't.

Regional Study Group 1

Charles City County Chesterfield County Colonial Heights City Dinwiddie County	Goochland County Hanover County Henrico County Hopewell City	New Kent County Petersburg City Powhatan County Prince George County	Richmond City Surry County Sussex County
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Regional Study Group 2

Accomack County Chesapeake City Franklin City Hampton City	Isle of Wight County Newport News City Norfolk City Northampton County	Poquoson City Portsmouth City Southampton County Suffolk City	Virginia Beach City Williamsburg/ James City County York County
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Regional Study Group 3

Caroline County Town of Colonial Beach Essex County Fredricksburg City Gloucester County	King George County King & Queen County King William County Lancaster County	Mathews County Middlesex County Northumberland County Richmond County Spotsylvania County	Stafford County Town of West Point Westmoreland County
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Regional Study Group 4

Alexandria City Arlington Clarke Culpepper Fairfax	Fairfax City Falls Church City Fauquier Fredrick Loudoun	Madison Manassas City Manassas Park City Orange Page	Prince William Rappahannock Shenandoah Warren Winchester City
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APPENDIX D, con't.

Regional Study Group 5

Albemarle County Amherst County Appomattox County Augusta County Bath County Bedford County	Bedford City Buena Vista City Campbell County Charlottesville City Fluvanna County Greene County	Harrisonburg City Highland County Lexington City Louisa County Lynchburg City Nelson County	Rockbridge County Rockingham County Staunton City Waynesboro City
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Regional Study Group 6

Alleghany Highlands County Botetourt County Covington City	Craig County Danville City Floyd County Franklin County	Henry County Martinsville City Montgomery County Patrick County	Pittsylvania County Roanoke County Roanoke City Salem City
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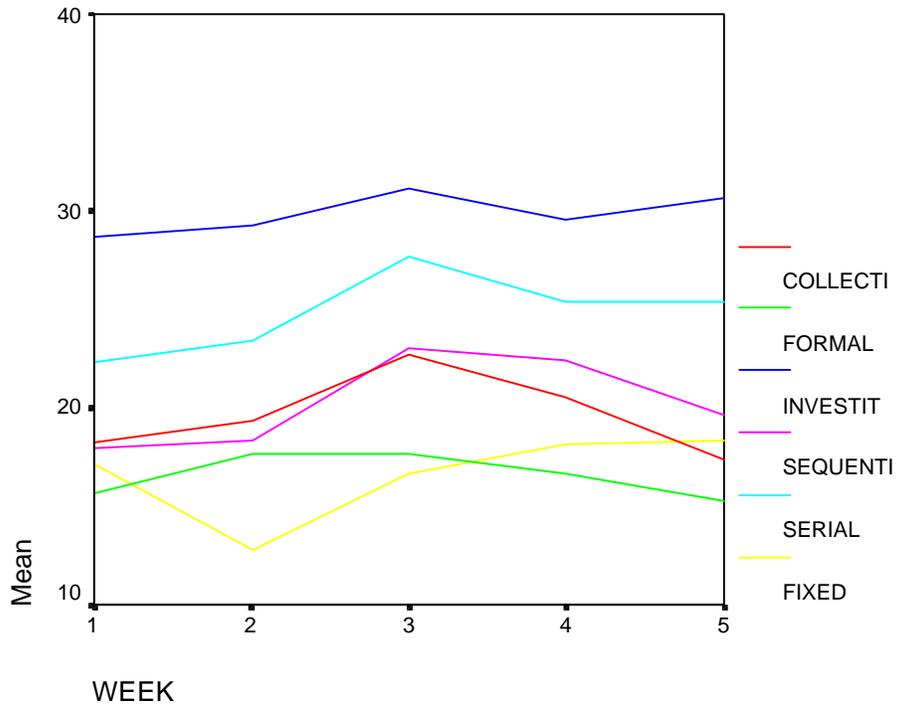
Regional Study Group 7

Bland County Bristol City Buchanan County Carroll County Dickenson County	Galax City Giles County Grayson County Lee County Norton City	Pulaski County Radford City Russell County Scott County Smyth County	Tazewell County Washington County Wise County Wythe County
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Regional Study Group 8

Amelia County Brunswick County Buckingham County	Charlotte County Cumberland County Greensville/Emporia County	Halifax/South Boston County Lunenburg County Mecklenburg County	Nottoway County Prince Edward County
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Appendix E: Line Graph of the Independent Variable Recorded by Weeks



## VITA

### JOHN DAVID COCHRAN

Current contact:  
710 Craig Street  
Martinsville, VA 24112  
(540) 632-0877  
cochrans@sitestar.net

Current employment:  
Principal  
Brosville Middle School  
195 Bulldog Lane  
Danville, VA 24541

#### EDUCATION

A. A.	1972	Seminole Community College Sanford, Florida
B. A.	1974	University of Central Florida Orlando, Florida
M. Div.	1979	Southeastern Theological Seminary Wake Forest, North Carolina
Advanced Degree	1985	Intermission Language Center for Cross Cultural Communication Bandung, Indonesia
Ed. S.	1998	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Blacksburg, Virginia
Ed. D.	2001	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Blacksburg, Virginia

#### PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

2000-present	Principal, Brosville Middle School, Danville, VA
1998-2000	Assistant Principal, Blairs Middle School, Blairs, VA
1994-1998	Biology Teacher, Martinsville High School, Martinsville, VA
1992-1994	Pastor, McCabe Memorial Baptist Church, Martinsville, VA
1987-1992	Pastor, Kentuck Baptist Church, Ringgold, VA
1983-1987	Teacher, Indonesian Theological Seminary, Manado, Indonesia
1980-1983	Pastor, Blackstone Baptist Church, Blackstone, VA
1976-1980	Pastor, Moore's Swamp Baptist Church, Elberon, VA
1974-1976	Teacher, Winter Springs Elementary School, Winter Springs, FL

## HONORS

- 1998 Who's Who in American Education
- 1997 Teacher of the Year, Martinsville High School (VA)
- 1996 Danforth Fellowship, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
- 1992 Special Award, Dan River High School, Ringgold, VA  
*In appreciation for your tireless energy, dedication, and devotion to the athletes of Dan River High School*
- 1978 Easterby Scholarship, Southeastern Theological Seminary
- 1976-78 Eastern Star Religious Leadership Training Award, State of Florida
- 1972 Who's Who in American Junior Colleges

## MEMBERSHIPS

Pittsylvania County Principals and Supervisors Association, 1998-present, Treasurer since 1999

## PREVIOUS CONTRIBUTIONS

- 1988 Local evangelism that leads to global mission. Paper presented to the Peninsula Baptist Association's Pastors' Conference, Newport News, VA.
- 1985 Hubungan barat timur: Suatu perspektiv teologi kristen. Unpublished advanced degree thesis, Intermision Language Center for Cross Cultural Communication, Bandung, Indonesia.

## PERSONAL

- Born April 16, 1952 in Portsmouth, Virginia
- Spouse Anna Cochran, married June 26, 1971
- Children John David Cochran, III, born May 9, 1974  
Elizabeth Ann Cochran, born January 3, 1977