



Turnover Intentions in Pakistani Telecommunication Industries: An Empirical Assessment

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Abstract

Organizational socialization is assumed to be a vitally important influence on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, innovation, cooperation, and ultimately organizational performance. There is a fundamental assumption underlying virtually all existing work on organizational socialization that all newcomers will remain with an organization for some time. The research presented here begins to relax some of the assumptions underlying current models of socialization where the organization and the new recruit are going concerns. Accordingly, this research is trying to investigate the impact of organizational supported socialization tactics on turn over intentions of new comers working in telecommunication industry of Pakistan. Moreover, this report will also examine the mediating role of job embeddedness (on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness) in the relationships of organizational supported socialization tactics and turnover intentions. To explore the study's objectives, data collected from 300 employees working in five different telecommunication companies of Pakistan. Findings here suggest that workers are quite distinct in how long they expect to stay with a firm, regardless of their explicit labor contract, and that this variance in anticipated tenure does make a difference in the extent to which these newcomers learn and adapt to their organizations, their jobs, and their social environments, and in the outcomes they experience. This research provides clear empirical support that how long newcomers expect to maintain a relationship with their new organizations has a profound impact on their socialization experiences, and explores the nuances of the impact of this anticipated tenure alone and in interaction with other factors on the socialization process and its outcomes.

Keywords: Job Embeddedness, Organizational Support, Socialization Tactics, Turnover Intentions, Telecommunication Industry, Pakistan

INTRODUCTION

Organizational socialization is the process by which a newcomer acquires the task knowledge, social knowledge, and behaviors needed to participate as an organizational member (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). During socialization newcomers come to understand, interpret, and respond to and within unfamiliar organizational settings (Louis, 1980). Socialization requires individuals to learn the culture and values of their new job setting (Van Maanen, 1975), and to integrate that knowledge concerning idiosyncrasies of the new organization with their existing

general knowledge base. In a world in which competitive advantages are thought to stem from the people in the organization and knowledge is one of the few lasting competitive advantages, how people come to be identified with an organization is crucial. The socialization process is quite complex, with many variables potentially contributing to a wide variety of outcomes, including job satisfaction, work motivation, organizational commitment, innovation, cooperation, and performance (Fisher, 1986). The existing literature that addresses this process is quite vast. Yet despite the large number of scholarly advances, the phenomenon is still not well understood (Fisher, 1986). A broader understanding might be generated by considering socialization in the context of recent trends in the labor force, such as the significant increase in the supply and demand of contingent labor (Bauer, Morrison, and Callister, 1998).

Organizational socialization has been studied for many years; however, it is a frequently misunderstood concept (Tierney, 1997). Organizational socialization draws its origins from studies on organizational behavior and more specifically the concept of organizational learning (Kozlowski, Chao, & Jensen, 2010). The onset of research into organizational socialization began with Van Maanen, who, in 1978, began to explore specific tactics utilized by organizations to socialize individuals who were newly hired employees. Since that time, research on organizational socialization has remained an area of study in the scholarly literature and covers not only tactics but the impact of supervisor support on socialization, job satisfaction, turnover intent, and socialization as a two-way process, to name a few.

Some factors closely related to organizational socialization is job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Job satisfaction has been widely studied and operationalized in various ways (Wright, 2006). One commonly accepted definition of job satisfaction was proposed by Hoppock (1935) who indicated that job satisfaction is dependent upon a combination of factors that cause an individual to feel satisfied with their job. Modern research on job satisfaction draws its origins from industrial organizational psychology and can be followed back to the industrial revolution and increased interest in worker and workplace performance. Wright (2006) noted that modern views of job satisfaction, its importance to organizations, and its potential causes began to surface in the early 1930s. While views and theories have been debated and changed over time, much of the current literature is still supported by these early theories.

Traditionally, the socialization literature has focused on techniques that organizations and supervisors use to socialize newcomers, such as institutionalized socialization tactics and realistic job previews. The main assumption was that organizational newcomers were passive participants in the socialization process. In the past several years, however, the literature has begun recognizing the active role that newcomers can take in the socialization process. This shift has come primarily in the form of examining the proactive behavior in which individuals engage in order to facilitate their own adjustment. Proactive socialization tactics (PSTs) have been associated with a host of positive outcomes, including performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). One of the main goals of the proactive socialization literature has been to determine the antecedents of PSTs, which can be divided into two categories: individual differences and contextual factors. A great deal of the attention has been paid to dispositional antecedents, such as proactive personality and desire for control (Ashford & Black, 1996; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006).

Organizations tend to use socialization tactics to help the hired employees get settled in the new environment eliminating the anxiety factor. This initial socialization managed by the organization helps the employees to make some required adjustments like job satisfaction, role

clarity, social interaction, organizational commitment etc. which in return powers the retention (Cable and Parsons, 2001). Considering turnover intention the major horror for any organization is the alternative job about which the employee is thinking. It is the “availability of equivalent or better jobs in the immediate area outside the organization”. This assumes an employee’s level of awareness of other available jobs and consistently has been found to have effect on intent to quit (Griffeth and Hom, 1988).

Keeping in mind the early research done on this subject it is observed that socialization does affect the turnover intention of an employee but through the deep reading of the literature it is evident that the socialization tactics work through a certain mechanism observed to be the employee embeddedness. This phenomenon “employee embeddedness helps to understand and highlight the threads which pull the turnover intention of an employee (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). Out of the two types of embeddedness, (organization Embeddedness and Community embeddedness), organization embeddedness has a negative impact on leave intention and there is no impact of community embeddedness (Shafique, Qadeer, Ahmed & Rehman, 2011). So the focus of this study will be on the organizational embeddedness.

There is a wealth of literature surrounding the topic of organizational socialization, job embeddedness and turnover intentions. These three constructs have also been researched together in a variety of industries, cultures, and settings (for reference Shafique, Qadeer, Ahmed & Rehman, 2011; Yew, 2008; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). However, the majority of the research has been targeted at newly joined employees working within the telecommunication sector of Pakistan. Unfortunately, the research into the relationship between organizational socialization and turnover intentions among new comer employees is relatively non-existent. To date, very little research has been conducted seeking to understand how this population experiences organizational socialization or if such socialization has an impact on their overall satisfaction and turnover intentions. At a scholarly level, this presents a problem based on the fact that a significant gap in the literature exists. From a practitioner perspective, this lack of awareness and understanding is problematic because the field of telecommunication industry is under increased pressure to perform more effectively and efficiently while making greater contributions to the Pakistan’s workforce. For these reasons alone, inquiry into the relationship between organizational socialization and turnover intentions is warranted and needed. The first objective of this study will be to investigate the interrelationship between the three variables and to explain the effect of socialization tactics on turnover intention. The second objective of this research is to investigate the relationship of socialization tactics and turnover intentions through the mediating effect of employee embeddedness.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Organizational Socialization

The process of organizational socialization is the means by which new employees are introduced to the organizational culture of their new workplace, with all of its norms, rules, and mores, and the requirements of their particular jobs (Larson, Lakin, & Bruininks, 1998, p. 32). For this reason, organizational socialization is of considerable importance in the business literature and its study reveals much about how (and to what extent) employees absorb and internalize organizational norms, feel a sense of belonging with the organization and their coworkers, and are able to influence and actively participate in organizational culture in turn (p. 32). According to Mahaffey (1999), new employees have a desire to feel that they play an important role within the organization. Although socialization may be accurately described as

an ongoing process throughout the duration of one's employment with an organization, the forms that it takes when an employee is first hired or starts a new position within the company are particularly intense, and therefore especially of interest (Larson et al., 1998, p. 32).

The process of developing an understanding of organizational culture can be challenging for newcomers and is even more complex when left to this task on their own (Schein, 1985). Aiding newcomers in developing this awareness adds stability to both the newcomer in their role and to the organization as a whole. As newcomers engage in trying to interpret and analyze organizational culture, it is setting the stage for future work experiences and beliefs (Van Maanen, 1976). Unfortunately much of this is complicated by the fact that there are usually no written rules that define organizational culture, rather the organizations culture is found in the everyday tasks and routines of the employee (Schein, 1985). Much of what employees need to understand about organizational culture can be impacted thorough the process of organizational socialization.

Saks and Gruman (2012) stated that organizational socialization is important because it pertains to how individuals overcome uncertainty in the process of joining a new group and adopting a new role. Of course, it also encapsulates how well that group receives new members, and how effectively it socializes them; thus, organizational socialization is a two-way process (p. 27). An individual at the very beginning of their organizational socialization has not yet learned how to behave in relation to the organization, and still needs to learn what is expected of them. This not only comprises technical knowledge about the requirements of their job that they need, but also involves an induction into the culture of the organization, with all of its written and unwritten codes of conduct and expectations of behavior. Through socialization, the individual goes from the status of newcomer to the status of an integrated member of the organization who should be more cognizant of the culture, rules and expectations placed on them (Saks & Gruman, 2012).

The effects of organizational socialization, whether it is newcomer socialization or boundary crossing socialization, can also be analyzed in terms of different dimensions, six of which were suggested by Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, and Gardner (1994). The first is performance proficiency; successful organizational socialization entails the individual developing their performance to a high level of proficiency (p. 731). While motivation is very important to developing high proficiency in one's performance, technical ability, or skill, it is also essential the individual must truly know how to do what they need to do (p. 731). Although different individuals learn in different ways, high proficiency may generally be thought of as a measure of how successful an organization is at socializing its employees, while taking into account differences in learning styles, etc. (p. 731).

People are the second of the five dimensions along which the effects of organizational socialization may be measured (Chao et al., 1994, p. 731). The development of successful working relationships is the measure of success herein this dimension; if the new employee is able to work well with their coworkers and vice-versa, then organizational socialization has been successful (p. 731). Because people are very different and have distinct personalities, personal characteristics are an important factor. A person who fails to socialize successfully in one position may well excel in another (p. 731). Consequently, much of the success that can be realized in this arena is determined by the ability of management to find the right people to fill the right openings in the organization, and move people around (hiring, reassignment, promotion, demotion, and termination) as needed (p. 731). From this comes the third dimension, politics.

Office politics serves as a common term for behaviors that are viewed as unprofessional or inappropriate; but the ability to negotiate them is a measure of successful organizational socialization. Of course, office politics do not have to consist solely of the sort of gossip, backstabbing, and favoritism popularly associated with them. They can also encompass conflict resolution strategies, and ideas about informal authority in an organization. The fourth dimension is language, particularly technical language and “knowledge of the acronyms, slang, and jargon that are unique to the organization” (Chao et al., 1994). The practical value is relatively obvious: Knowledge of the specialized terminology of the industry in general and the particular company especially is very important for an individual to be able to succeed, and as such well warrants the inclusion of language as an important dimension of organizational socialization. However, this dimension arguably has a great deal of significance that goes beyond the merely practical, because knowledge of the language can often serve as a means of identifying oneself as an insider, one who participates in the organization’s culture.

The fifth dimension is organizational goals and values (Chao et al., 1994). This is one of the truest measures of insider status and participation in any organizational culture; the ability to identify with the goals and values of the organization. However, this dimension is not confined to formal, written-down policies and procedures, but rather extends to informal values, mores, and goals that important members of the organization espouse. Again, unspoken and informal values often have an impact that is comparable to, and perhaps in some cases even greater than, formal values and procedures. From this comes the sixth and final dimension, history: Organizations use “traditions, customs, myths, and rituals” to transmit organizational culture, making organizational history extremely important for effective socialization. History, and the stories and value-laden narratives told about it, is just as valuable to organizations as it is to nations. Consequently, knowing this history can help the individual to understand how the organization sees itself, and what is important to it, providing the individual with further information about how to act. The work of Chao et. al, (1994) was informed by others, including Buchanan (1974) and Fisher (1986) who were both early contributors to the conversation on organizational socialization and organizational commitment. These theoretical models served as a beginning for instruments such as the Organizational Socialization Inventory and others (Taormina, 1994).

Organizational Socialization Tactics

Organizational socialization occurs in a number of different fashions, and these tactics can be categorized accordingly. Socialization tactics can be collective, thereby socializing many newcomers at once, or individual, providing a newcomer with one-on-one orientation (Moreland & Levine, 2001, p. 70). Socialization may also be formal, consisting of official, company approved programs designed to train employees, or informal, consisting of word of mouth, personal observations, and unofficial training on the job (p. 70). Socialization may be sequential and fixed, or random and variable (p. 70). Serial socialization is the practice of using experienced employees to train and orient them, while disjunctive tactics thrust newcomers into new roles and force them to learn as they go (p. 70). Socialization may also take the form of investiture, communicating to the newcomers that “they are already valuable to the organization,” or divestiture, which challenges newcomers “by suggesting that their value depends on completing the socialization process successfully” (p. 70).

Saeed et al., (2012) studied the use of organizational socialization tactics and their effects on employees of telecommunications organizations, and found that the use of such tactics does indeed contribute to successful socialization (p. 98). Successful socialization tactics decreased “turnover intentions, role ambiguity, and conflict,” and increased job satisfaction (p. 98). They

found that the tactics that worked generally facilitated newcomers' learning, helped them to adapt to the challenges and responsibilities of their roles, and encouraged them to adopt the organization's culture (p. 99). This highlights the importance of mentoring in order to transfer knowledge and promote socialization (p. 99).

Jaskyte's (2005) other findings were similarly illuminating: Investiture, random, and variable tactics all increased role ambiguity for supervisors and managers, which suggests the importance of maintaining institutionalized tactics (p. 78). The same appears to be true of role conflict, in that institutionalized tactics appear to be able to ameliorate it, while individual, investiture, and random tactics increase it (p. 78). The tactics that increased role ambiguity for social workers were informal, investiture, random, serial, and variable tactics (p. 78). For social workers, role conflict was associated with informal, investiture, serial, and variable tactics, which again attests to the importance of institutionalized tactics (pp. 78-81).

The bulk of the socialization literature focuses on organizational socialization tactics, which are actions that organizations can take in order to facilitate the socialization of their newcomers. Van Maanen and Schein (Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) have identified six dimensions that characterize organizational socialization tactics: collective vs. individual, formal vs. informal, sequential vs. random, fixed vs. variable, serial vs. disjunctive, and investiture vs. divestiture. The collective vs. individual tactic refers to the extent to which the organization's socialization tactics are identical for an entire cohort of newcomers or whether those tactics differ by individual. Formal vs. informal refers to the extent that the newcomer is separated from the rest of the organizational population during the socialization process.

Institutionalized tactics generally have been found to positively predict a host of desirable outcomes, including role clarity (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), reduced role conflict (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), learning (Ashforth et al., 2007), social integration (Gruman et al., 2006), changes in newcomers' values (Cable & Parsons, 2001), P-O fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005), P-J fit (Gruman et al., 2006), job satisfaction (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), organizational commitment (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), organizational identification (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), embeddedness (Allen, 2006), and intent to remain with the organization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986).

Intention to Quit / Turnover Intentions

A review of the literature reveals that individuals who experience a lack of satisfaction, or job dissatisfaction, poses a much greater intention to leave the position in which they are not satisfied. Numerous factors impact an individual's intention to quit, of which some are personal while others are organizational, thereby making it difficult for organizations to control for employees who might be seeking to leave the organization (Ohana & Meyer, 2010). Stress is often held to be a contributor to high turnover rates, and whether or not a particular employee can handle the stressors associated with their position is often taken as some indication of their intentions to either stay with the organization or seek employment elsewhere. In a study of nurses in Singapore, Lim and Yuen (1998) found that stresses caused by the demands of patients and their relatives, stresses caused by the demands of doctors, and perceived job image all affected job satisfaction and intention to quit (p. 278). Perceived job image captured nurses' beliefs about public perceptions of their job, in other words, what the nurses thought that other people thought about them, which could either be a source of stress or not depending on how well-respected the nurses believed their profession to be (p. 275). In particular, job satisfaction, commitment to the organization, tension due to the stressors of the

job, and intention to quit were all correlated with demands from patients and their relatives, and perceived job image (p. 278).

The importance of the workplace's ethical environment and employee trust in supervisors was highlighted in a study of salespeople by Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2006). Mulki et al., (2006) hypothesized that there would be a relation between perceptions of ethical climate and trust in supervisors. In other words, if an employee perceives that the ethical climate of their organization is truly fair and just, this should translate to greater levels of trust in their supervisors (p. 20). This should be associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment: After all, presumably a more honest and transparent organization is more desirable to work for than one that is the reverse (p. 20). This should also translate to lower intentions of leaving (p. 21).

In fact, Mulki et al., (2006) found precisely this: Employee perceptions of ethical climate in the organization are positively related to the levels of trust that they place in their supervisors, their job satisfaction, and their organizational commitment (p. 22). Job satisfaction also has a positive effect on organizational commitment, and both these factors coupled with trust in supervisors' work together to decrease employees' intentions of leaving the organization (p. 22). Consequently, the most important thing for management to do if they wish to reduce employee turnover rates is increase employees' perceptions of the organizational environment as an ethical and fair one (p. 22).

Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness is a collection of six factors related to one's integration into an organization. These dimensions are found in organizations and also in the outside community. They are referred to as "links, fit, and sacrifice" (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al. 2001). Job embeddedness is the product of these elements (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). Following table illustrates the dimensions that make up the construct.

Table 1: Dimensions of Job Embeddedness

Organization	Community
Fit	Fit
Links	Links
Sacrifice	Sacrifice

Source: Mitchell et al., (2001)

In 2001, job embeddedness was introduced as a combination of organizational attachment factors that offered an alternative explanation of employee retention. In an initial test of the job embeddedness concept, Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al. (2001) hypothesized that "job embeddedness is negatively correlated with employee intent to leave and subsequent voluntary turnover" (p. 1109). Researchers found that employees in high turnover fields have lower turnover when demonstrating job embeddedness (see also Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablinski, 2003). Holtom and Inderieden, (2006) called job embeddedness, "the theory of staying".

Job embeddedness may provide a better understanding of voluntary turnover among employees (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, et al., 2001). It is based on factors "that may influence various attachment attitudes and behaviors" (Yao et al., 2003). Lee, Sablinski, Burton, and Holtom (2004) found that job embeddedness was negatively related to turnover. Holtom and O'Neil (2004) found that retention was higher for nurses that exhibit job embeddedness

characteristics and is a better predictor than job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Holtom & O'Neil, 2004; Lee et al., 2004).

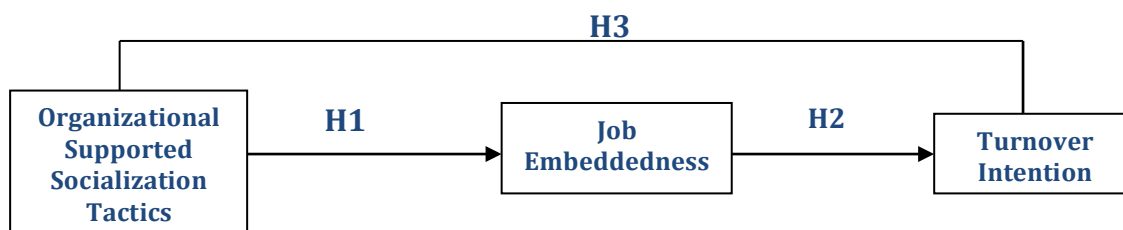
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Allen (2006) recently investigated relationships among organizational socialization tactics, newcomer JE, and turnover. Socialization tactics are methods that organizations use to help newcomers adapt to their workplace and to acquire desired attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge to perform their job well. Using a sample of newcomers in a large financial services organization, Allen found that socialization tactics can help new employees become embedded in their jobs and therefore keep them from leaving the organization. Specifically, collective, fixed, and investiture tactics were found to be positively related to on-the-job embeddedness, whereas formal, sequential, and serial tactics were not. In addition, Allen's study showed that on-the-job embeddedness is negatively related to turnover and mediates relationships between some socialization tactics and turnover. The following are brief explanations of the three socialization tactics that were found to be related to JE.

Collective tactics are those that offer interaction and social learning for newcomers, such as working with a group or cohort. For example, a new employee is assigned into a working group of current employees. These tactics are related to JE because they lead to the development of more links and relationships with others (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989). Other studies (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) also found collective tactics to be associated with perceptions of fit, shared values, and a sense of community. Fixed tactics provide information to newcomers about the timing associated with completing each socialization stage or step. As newcomers progress through each stage, they have successfully completed a step that they might have to repeat if they were to enter a new organization. This means that leaving the current organization could be seen as a greater sacrifice because the newcomers have to give up those completed stages and start from the beginning at the new organization. Fixed tactics, therefore, are related to the sacrifice-organization dimension of JE. Mitchell and colleagues (2001) proposed that JE would explain significant incremental variance in turnover beyond that explained by job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job alternatives, and job search. In their empirical study in 2001, Mitchell et al. used a sample of retail employees and a sample of hospital employees. They found that aggregated JE (a combination of all six dimensions) related to intention to leave, and predicted subsequent voluntary turnover in both samples. More importantly, they found that JE significantly improved the prediction of voluntary turnover after controlling for gender, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job search and perceived alternatives.

The research by Mitchell et al. (2001) has led to a number of studies that further examine the JE construct. Cunningham, Fink, and Sagas (2003) investigated two different measures of JE, the aggregate multi-item measure from Mitchell et al. (2001), and a global measure that they developed. The main difference between these two measures is that the global measure utilizes only one scale (which consists of 6 items) to capture the whole JE construct, whereas the aggregate multi-item measure combines six scales (a total of 42 items) to capture the six different dimensions of JE. The main finding was that both the aggregate multi-item scale and the newly created global scale accounted for large portions of the variance in turnover intentions beyond the control variables. Only the global scale, however, predicted turnover intentions beyond the effects of commonly used attachment variables (job satisfaction and organizational commitment). Thus, this suggests that the global scale may be better than the aggregate multi-item measure. Cunningham and colleagues also found that the sacrifice organization dimension in the aggregate multi-item measure had the strongest relationship with turnover intentions, suggesting that organizational sacrifice might be the most important facet of JE.

Figure 1: Theoretical Framework of this Study



METHODOLOGY

This study tests four hypotheses on the relationships among organizational supported socialization tactics, job embeddedness (JE), and turn over intentions. A written survey questionnaire was utilized to collect data from employees working in five telecommunication companies operating in Pakistan. In Pakistan, there has been a braindrain problem recently in that employees, especially highly skilled ones, have been leaving organizations to work for foreign-owned companies or travel abroad for their jobs (Quoc Phuong, 2008). The company is experiencing this problem as well, according to the company's deputy head of human resources. Therefore, it would be very appropriate to conduct this current study at that company.

The questionnaires were self-administered in five companies operating in telecommunication industry of Pakistan. To help increase the response rate, a letter from the each company head of human resources was sent out several days prior to the data collection to inform employees of the upcoming survey and its purpose. 350 questionnaires were forwarded to the employees and after 2 reminders, 320 questionnaires were received whereas 300 questionnaires are fully completed. Participation was voluntary, which was stated in the survey instructions. Employees could stop completing the survey anytime they wanted. Participants were also assured that their individual responses would be kept confidential (only the author, not the company, has access to the completed questionnaires and data), and that only aggregate summaries, not individual level data would be utilized. Non-probability sampling technique (i.e. convenience sampling technique) was used to collect the data from the respondents. The reasons behind using non-probability sampling technique was non-availability/very difficult to collect the detailed information of all employees working in telecommunication organizations.

JE was measured by using Mitchell et al.'s (2001) six dimensions construct. The JE items can be found in Appendix 1. Intention to quit was measured by a five-item scale developed by Crossley, Grauer, Lin, and Stanton (2002). Reliability for this scale has previously been very good (e.g., $\alpha = .89$ in Crossley et al.'s, 2007). The JE items can be found in Appendix 2. Socialization tactics was measures by using three dimensional construct designed by Cable and Pasons (2001). The measuring items are available in Appendix 3. To analyze the data, SPSS (20) was used. Descriptive analyses, exploratory factor analyses, correlations, reliability analyses, regression analyses and Baron & Kenny (1986) model was used to test mediation mechanism.

DATA ANALYSES & RESULTS

The demographic profile of the respondents who participated in this study is shown in table # 02.

Table 2: Demographic Statistics

Demographic Variable		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	<i>Male</i>	178	60
	<i>Female</i>	122	40
Marital Status	<i>Single</i>	187	63
	<i>Married</i>	113	37
Designation / Position	<i>Officer</i>	127	42
	<i>Executive</i>	90	30
	<i>Manager</i>	46	15
	<i>Sr. Manager</i>	22	7
	<i>Top Level Management</i>	15	5
Age	<i>Below 25 years</i>	57	19
	<i>26-30 years</i>	145	48
	<i>31-35 years</i>	45	15
	<i>36-40 years</i>	33	11
	<i>Above 40 years</i>	20	7
Education Qualification	<i>Graduation</i>	155	52
	<i>Masters</i>	114	38
	<i>M.Phil/PhD</i>	31	10
Total Experience	<i>Less than 1 year</i>	44	15
	<i>1-2 years</i>	101	34
	<i>3-4 years</i>	64	21
	<i>5-6 years</i>	60	20
	<i>More than 6 years</i>	31	10

The table # 03 indicated the descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients and exploratory factor analyses of each construct. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the study construct range from .65 on the lower side to a high of .87. Alpha coefficients of .50 to .60 are acceptable for exploratory research (James et al., 1984). This criterion was met by all variables. All constructs had achieved adequate level of internal consistency. The factors analysis was applied on the every variable of the study. The purpose of factor analysis was to determining the number of factors to extract in a factor analytic procedure means keeping the factors that account for the most variance in the data. The Interpretability criteria of factors analysis is that at least 3 items of each construct having significant loadings (>0.30) (Cattell's, 1966). Since the loading range of each construct is above 0.30 hence all items are used for further analyses. Examination of the validity of the construct measures was carried out using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test. These tests were employed to determine validated underlying dimensions of conflict and trust separately. The purpose was to refine the measures by accessing their validity and un dimensionality. The value of KMO value between 0.5 and 1.0 shows us the appropriateness of the factor analysis. It indicates that this type of data may be used for exploratory factor analysis. Furthermore, the Bartlett's Test also confirmed the significant ($p < .000$) against each construct.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach's Alpha & Factor Analyses

SV	QI	FL	KMO	Mean	Std.	α
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							Deviation	
JOB EMBEDDEDNESS								
Fit to Community	FC 1	0.72	0.71	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.81	0.42	0.70	
	FC2	0.65						
	FC3	0.69						
	FC4	0.76						
	FC5	0.60						
Fit to Organization	FO1	0.79	0.74	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	4.22	0.37	0.79	
	FO2	0.61						
	FO3	0.59						
	FO4	0.67						
	FO5	0.62						
	FO6	0.81						
Community related Sacrifice	CS1	0.49	0.69	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	4.01	0.61	0.64	
	CS2	0.56						
	CS3	0.51						
Organization related Sacrifice	OS1	0.63	0.71	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.78	0.87	0.81	
	OS2	0.72						
	OS3	0.66						
	OS4	0.80						
	OS5	0.67						
	OS6	0.61						
	OS7	0.59						
	OS8	0.59						
	OS9	0.64						
	OS10	0.59						
INTENTION TO QUIT	IQ1	.759	0.90	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.73	0.46	0.75	
	IQ2	.844						
	IQ3	.840						
	IQ4	.670						
	IQ5	.784						
SOCIALIZATION TACTICS								
Context	CX1	.725	0.84	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.69	0.58	0.74	
	CX2	.822						
	CX3	.845						
	CX4	.840						
Content	CN1	.711	0.87	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.45	0.42	0.70	
	CN2	.786						
	CN3	.842						
	CN4	.864						
Social Aspect	SA1	.731	0.79	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Sig: .000	3.70	0.53	0.87	
	SA2	.794						
	SA3	.692						
	SA4	.815						

SV = Study Variables, QI = Question Items, FL = Factor Loading, KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and α = Reliability Co-efficient

The table # 04 indicated the correlation and multicollinearity statistics of study variables. The range of correlations among the independent, mediating and dependent variables are 0.28 to 0.45 hence, multicollinearity was not a severe problem that would preclude interpretation of the regression analyses (Neter and other 1983). Multicollinearity exists only when the correlation (r) value among two variable is greater than 0.80 (Neter and other 1983).

Table 4: Correlation Statistics

	Socialization Tactics	Job Embeddedness	Turnover Intentions
Socialization Tactics	1	0.39**	0.27**
Job Embeddedness	-	1	0.28**
Turnover Intentions	-	-	1

****Significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed); *Significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)**

Table 5 indicated the regression analysis of accumulative job embeddedness on turnover intentions and sub-dimensions of job embeddedness on turnover intentions separately. In first regression analysis, job embeddedness explained 41% variance in turnover intentions with significant F value statistics. Moreover, the result also indicated the negative impact of job embeddedness on turnover intentions of employees working in telecommunication industry of Pakistan. The durbin-watson test claimed that if the value should be around 2.00 then there is no multicollinearity and same results also proved with the values of VIF (which should be less than 10) and tolerance (should be less than 0.10).

Table 5: Regression analyses

Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit							
	<i>R²</i>	<i>F-Value</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Durbin-Watson</i>	<i>VIF</i>	<i>Tolerance</i>
Job Embeddedness	0.41	101.16*	-0.59*	-9.23	1.49	2.52	0.44

*** Significant Level = 0.001**

Table 6 indicated the regression analysis of accumulative socialization tactics on turnover intentions and sub-dimensions of socialization tactics on turnover intentions separately. In first regression analysis, socialization tactics explained 50% variance in turnover intentions with significant F value statistics. Moreover, the result also indicated the negative impact of socialization tactics on turnover intentions of employees working in telecommunication industry of Pakistan . The durbin-watson test claimed that if the value should be around 2.00 then there is no multicollinearity and same results also proved with the values of VIF (which should be less than 10) and tolerance (should be less than 0.10).

Table 6: Regression analyses

Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit							
	<i>R²</i>	<i>F-Value</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>Durbin-Watson</i>	<i>VIF</i>	<i>Tolerance</i>
Socialization Tactics	0.50	199.23*	-0.45*	-9.23	1.62	2.48	0.39

*** Significant Level = 0.001**

Table # 7 indicates the results of mediating regression analysis as proposed by (Baron and Kenny, 1986). For testing the mediating mechanism, independent variable was treated with mediating variable (job embeddedness). The results indicated that socialization tactics explain 38% variability in mediating variable where as it has positive and impact on dependent variable (b=0.27, p=0.001). In second regression analysis, socialization tactics was regressed socialization tactics explained 50% variance in turnover intentions with significant F value statistics. Moreover, the statistics showed the negative impact of socialization tactics on turnover intentions (b= -0.45, p=0.001). At second step, mediating and independent variable

were regressed together on turnover intentions and both explained total 31% variance in dependent variable. Mediating variable had negative and significant relationship ($b = -0.36$, $p = 0.001$) with turnover intentions while socialization tactics impact ($b = -0.32$, $p = 0.001$) is reduced significantly from first regression analysis. As per Baron and Kenny (1986) mediating process, if independent variable's impact reduced or become insignificant in the presence of significant mediating variable then it stated as partial mediation. Above statistics clearly reflected that the partial mediation of brand image in socialization tactics – turnover intentions. Since, numerous literature criticized the hypothetical significance of mediation model and suggested to use Sobel test for mediation significance. Sobel test revealed that the significance of partial mediation ($z = 2.38$, $p = 0.01$).

Table 7: Mediating Regression Analysis

				Sobel Test	
Step	Dependent Variable	B	ΔR^2	z	p
Step 1	<i>Dependent Variable: Job Embeddedness</i>				
	Socialization Tactics	0.27*	0.38*		
Step 2	<i>Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention</i>				
	Socialization Tactics	-0.45*	0.50*		
Step 3	<i>Dependent Variable: Turnover Intention</i>				
	Socialization Tactics	-0.32*			
	Job Embeddedness	-0.36*	0.31*	2.38	0.008

* Significant Level = 0.001,

CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

One purpose of this research has been to broaden the conceptualization of proactive socialization tactics (PSTs). Ashford and Black's (1996) conceptualization is the broadest one in the literature, consisting of seven behaviors: networking, general socializing, building relationships with the boss, negotiating job changes, positive framing, feedback seeking, and information seeking. Other studies and conceptual pieces have suggested additional forms of PSTs. This research incorporates Ashford and Black's behaviors plus five other behaviors (i.e., mentoring initiation, self-management, feedback monitoring, taking charge, and voice) into a single model. This has been the first study, to my knowledge, to test such a broad conceptualization of behaviors. This study also has attempted to contribute to our understanding of how proactive behavior operates by grouping them into those that are directed toward changing oneself and those directed toward changing one's environment.

POS generally performed as expected in this study. As hypothesized, newcomers that perceived higher levels of organizational support were more likely to engage in positive framing of their situations as compared to those perceiving lower levels of support. Newcomers with high POS also fared better in regard to socialization outcomes as compared to those perceiving lower levels of support. Individuals perceiving that their organization provides them with high levels of support ultimately were better adjusted than those perceiving less support from their organizations. This is consistent with prior research showing positive outcomes for higher levels of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Tests for positive framing as a mediator between POS and outcomes were not significant, so positive framing does not explain the relationship between perceptions of support and adjustment outcomes.

A key gap that has existed in the proactive socialization literature was the lack of identification of antecedents of PSTs that are not disposition-based. This research has focused on furthering our understanding of non dispositional individual differences as antecedents of PSTs by exploring the roles of age and work history. This study contributes to the growing proactive

socialization literature by providing an expanded framework on which to build future research and theory. By testing a broad conceptualization containing two types of PSTs, we have learned that self directed PSTs are the most predictive of adjustment outcomes, but that environment directed PSTs relate to desirable outcomes as well. Another contribution has been the use of a sample having a wide range of ages and work experience. Socialization research tends to be conducted using student samples. Graduating undergraduate students tend to be easily accessible to academic researchers and provide large sample sizes. Also, researchers may expect to observe stronger effect sizes with undergraduates who tend to not only be organizational newcomers, but occupational newcomers as well. However, recent college graduates compose only a portion of organizational newcomers. It is important to understand the differences between those with very little, if any, work experience and those who have established their careers. In this study, one of the findings was an effect for transition experience, something that is rarely measured in socialization research.

One avenue of future research is to further understand the role of insiders (i.e., veteran coworkers and supervisors) in proactive socialization. Despite the fact that Moreland and Levine (2001) have proposed that newcomer socialization primarily takes place within work groups, there has been little research regarding the role that actions of organizational veterans play in the socialization process. A notable exception includes research led by Chen (Chen, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003) showing that expectations of workgroup members predicted newcomers' performance. Slaughter and Zickar (2006) found that the behavior of new graduate students was influenced by attitudes and behaviors and faculty and advanced graduate students in the newcomers' departments. Existing theory tells us it is relevant to consider the role of insiders in the socialization process.

Finally, future research should explore the role of time, especially in regard to environment-directed PSTs. As suggested above, the potential for negative responses of insiders to newcomers' environment-directed proactive behaviors may result in them being ineffective at facilitating newcomer adjustment. Also, the suggestions of newcomers who do not understand the culture, traditions, history, and people within an organization or workgroup may not have the results the newcomer expects them to have, therefore not improving adjustment. However, environment-directed behaviors may result in enhanced fit and commitment for newcomers who have been with the company a particular length of time and, therefore, have better understanding of the environment.

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