Relevance of the Socialization Process in the Brazilian Public Sector: A Review

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Abstract:
This article explores the socialization process in companies through an extensive literature review. Socialization refers to how new employees are integrated into the company culture. This process can take many forms, including orientation sessions, training programs, mentorship arrangements, and team-building activities. The primary goal of socialization is to help new employees understand the company's values, goals, and expectations. Additionally, it aims to facilitate building relationships with colleagues. In conclusion, a successful socialization process can lead to greater job satisfaction, increased productivity, and stronger team cohesion, which is helpful to scholars, human resource managers, and other practitioners.

Keywords: Socialization process; Social Interactionism; Brazil; Public sector

Introduction:
This article is part of the doctoral thesis from the leading author (Aylmer, 2019). Socializing means acquiring knowledge and uniting people and social groupings in various situations (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The socialization process includes the acceptance of an existing group upon the entry of a new individual or member. This process usually involves adapting to the group's norms and values, understanding societal norms and behavior expectations, and contributing to the group (Black & Ashford, 1995; De Vos et al., 2003; Myers and Sadaghiani, Levine, 2001; 2010; Wang et al., 2015; Aylmer, 2019). Currently, there is a resurgence of scholarly interest in socialization, which is rooted in two well-recognized principles. An efficient socialization process optimizes the return on money allocated to recruiting and training new personnel. The second reason is that it utilizes the most skilled and knowledgeable employees, maximizing the firm's competitive edge (Batistić, 2017; Dias & Aylmer, 2019, 2018, 2018a).

HRM finds these premises highly valuable, as human capital optimization is crucial for operating in a VUCA context (Cascio & Aguinis, 2008; Schreyoogg & Sydow, 2010; Whiteman, 1998). Additionally, 21st-century organizations must collaborate effectively to handle the intricate aspects of psychological contracts (Alcover et al., 2017). Human Resource Managers (HRM) have to go beyond being just a department inside a business and instead adopt a leadership mentality. This process involves recruiting, onboarding, training, and, when necessary, dismissing employees as part of a comprehensive goal. Fisher (1986) recognized, in the private sector, that a poor socialization process is a factor in increasing turnover. As a result, onboarding is seen as a way to quickly engage and improve the performance of new employees, making them more valuable to the company (Bauer et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). How businesses handle the onboarding process for new employees in a market where jobs are scarce significantly impacts organizational culture (Cable & Parsons, 2001). According to Standifird (2001), the socialization process somehow affects reputation. The newcomers’ adjustment period might be stressful, following Van Maanen & Schein (1979) and Bauer & Truxillo (2000). It elicits unexpected and startling reactions (Jones, 1986; Kim et al., 2005). According to Katz (1980), the socialization process induces anxiety and poses the central question, "Do I fit into the company or not?" (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Chen, 2005). The study of socialization processes observes the period in which an individual enters an organization (Jones, 1986), the adaptation process, which also involves forming social connections with colleagues and peers while gaining proficiency with new tasks and roles (Aylmer, 2019; Saks et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007).

Methods
We adopted a qualitative, single-method approach to achieve the findings, including a literature review on the Socialization Process and Social Interactionism.

Literature Review on The Socialization Process In The Brazilian Public Sector
As aforementioned, our study encompasses the entrance of an employee in a new workplace, presenting, the onboarding processes at a public sector company. Considering the Brazilian public sector's long-tenure, the need of being integrated and part of a group is pivotal to understand the tangled relationships among people that work together for 35 years or more.
Sunk Costs and Side-Bets

The sunk cost effect is a propensity to continue an endeavor once an investment in money, effort, or time has been made, therefore, there is a psychological justification for this behavior grounded on the desire not to appear wasteful (Arkes & Blumer, 1985). According to microeconomic theory, people should ground decisions only on current and future benefits and costs (Heath & Soll, 1996). Yet decision-makers occasionally diverge from this principle and take sunk costs into account (Thaler, 1980). Sunk cost is also a term coined to explain situations "where individuals forgo alternative courses of action and choose to stay in the organization due to the lack of better alternatives" (Mowday et al., 2006). Moideenkutty et al., (2001) are of the same position that an individual may commit to the organization because one perceives a high cost of losing organizational membership, as first presented by Becker (1960) the side bet theory, on the organizational commitment framework. In Meyers & Allen (1991) words, the perceived cost of leaving may be exacerbated by a perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the foregone investments. At any rate, it is the threat of loss that commits the person to the organization (p. 373). Similarly, in the organizational literature, sunk costs describe how long-tenure employees, once leaving the job, will also leave behind, the reputation built along the years, relationships and alliances, salary and benefits becoming a strong incentive to stay in the company (Mowday et al., 1979).

Our study aims to explore this kind of socialization process, very common in the Brazilian public sector, where, since admission, new employees have strong incentives that induce them to stay in the company, as job stability, good salary, and benefits. The contrast between what was expected and what is found upon arrival is mentioned as a “reality shock”. From this point newcomers face a dilemma in which staying is “more than one can cope,” but leaving is “more than one can lose”. This dilemma was compared to the promised land, which door is open, but the comfort offered inside makes the bird to stay, even though unhappy and with the cost of its freedom. Then, because public sector newcomers tend to stay in the company till retirement (long tenure is the rule, not exception), the quality of the socialization process is of great significance once a proper management handles the expectancies’ clash, help to build bridges with insiders, increasing the POS and creating a better PC. Speeding up the adaptation stage and the usefulness of the newcomer in the company are desired outcomes of the SP. Considering the profound changes in society, HR professionals need constant analysis pull the organizational transformations, rather than being pushed by them. Zygmunt Bauman presents our current context as the liquid modernity (Bauman, 2013) portrayed by the culture of non-permanence with volatile markets and fast incorporation of information and communication technology into people's daily lives, what also changes the way things are perceived and valued in organizations (Martin & Tulgan, 2006). HRM literature upon Brazilian public sector's socialization process needs reinforcement for many reasons. The first one is that although there is the umbrella-concept of public sector, there are differences in payment, hiring, training, and socializing new employees’ strategies among them, affecting important elements for the success of the SP. The second one concerns 11 million people: public sector represents more 10% of the employed population and considering that the entrance of a newcomer also influences incumbents, it is a rising issue on HR meetings and discussions (Fenzel, 2013; Khan, & Agha, 2013). The third one regards a medical issue: silent suffering, or how a newcomer can express pain and suffering in a new workplace? How long one support without breaking when finding an inhospitable environment? Literature reviewed considered socialization as a process of adaptation to work, with the option of leaving in a troubled person-organization fit, or if there are better opportunities in the market, so leaving is a matter of cost-benefit balance. The seminal work of Edwards, Caplan, & Van Harrison (1998) the Person-environment Fit Theory, that brought a matrix for many theories of organizational stress, demonstrated the importance of adequate workplace adjustment of the employee for the sake of mental health. However, if we consider that leaving a public career in Brazil, as mentioned before, is something uncommon, despite the person-environment fit, it is presumed that the newcomer will try to handle the situation to stay, no matter the costs. In cases like this, when environment’s challenges exceed ones’ ability to cope, and the person tend to go beyond limits as observed in the Brazilian public sector, is expected a significant level of suffering with clinical evidences and a wide array of consequences. Therefore, HR staff need more academically grounded subsidies to access the importance of the SP, mainly in the public sector, and to support new policies and good practices’ development from compliance to commitment (Fenzel, 2013), and from commitment to engagement.

Symbolic Interactionism Theory and The Socialization Process

The Symbolic interactionism theory (SIT) derives from the seminal work of George Herbert Mead (1863-1931), based on Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914), Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) and John Dewey (1859-1952), but the term was coined by Herbert Blumer (1900-1987), one of Mead’s students and a noteworthy author on SIT. Mead is considered a pragmatist and anti-dualist philosopher and credits to society the advent of mind and ego (Aksan et al., 2009). Mead assumes that symbols develop the mind and they are used as means for thinking and communicating (Ashworth, 1997). Mead focused on how people interact in their daily lives using symbolic interaction and how do they actively create order and meaning through interactions (Korgen & White, 2008). According to SIT authors, people live both in the natural and the symbolic environment (Aksan, et al., 2009). The underpinning of SIT is the construction of meaning through the actor’s (i.e. the person under study) interaction with the world. SIT examines the meanings emerging from the reciprocal interaction of individuals in the social environment with other individuals. It focuses on the question of "which symbols and meanings emerge from the interaction between people?" (Aksan, et al., 2009, p.902). Authors that support SIT affirm that the source of data is human interaction and the principal subjects of symbolic interaction are that perspectives, theorizing that empathy is central for developing participants’ abilities (Berg, 2001). Blumer (1969) posited that meaning results from the relationship between an act, the response to that act by someone else, and the result of that interaction.
According to Blumer’s (1969) SIT, reality and meaning are social constructions. Individuals are not strictly separable from their environments; therefore, individuals contribute to the meaning that arises in a setting. In other words, individuals and situations mutually determine each other.

The symbolic interactionism perspective, as defended by Blumer (1969), is the process through which newcomers ascertain situational identities and come to understand the meaning of organizational realities in particular (Reichers, 1987). Regarding Blumer’s work (1969), Reichers (1987) stated that symbolic interactionism perspective also applies to the concept of identity, which is the meaning that individual attaches to the self. This perspective stresses the importance of group membership as a determinant of identity. Thus, the identity is a reflection of the attitudes of others toward the focal person. Identity formation is considered complete when the individual adopts the attitudes of others toward the self […] Any form of interpersonal interaction can be considered a symbolic interaction if the interaction creates a mutual meaning or understanding between the two parties. (pp.279-280).

According to Blumer (1969), human forms “meaning” in two ways: (1) Meaning is attributed to something (objects or events) (2) Meaning is a “physical attachment” imposed on something by the individual. So, meaning emerges as a result of the interaction of group members and not something intrinsic of the object (Aksan, et al., 2009; Tezcan, 2005). In this line of reasoning, Berg (2001) brings the importance of the subject’s perception positing that it is not relevant whether the interpretation is accurate or not because a fact is created by an individual’s perception, and it changes in time. Blumer’s (1969) approach is based on three principles: Meaning, language, and thinking. The principle of meaning, for SIT, is the epicenter of human behavior. Language provides meaning to humans using symbols. However, are symbols that distinguish social relations of humans from the level of animal’s communication. Human beings give meaning to symbols, and they express these things using language. Thus, a central feature of SIT is the inseparability of the individual and the context within which the individual exists (Handberg, Thorne, Midtgaard, Nielsen, & Lomborg, 2015). For symbolic interactionism theorists, the primary condition for the formation of a meaning is the existence of an event (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). Our research tries to recover a positive and a negative event from newcomers’ experiences in the very beginning of their socialization process, and how these interactions create meaning to newcomers. The creation of meaning in newcomers-insiders interaction is important to understand the how newcomers construct meaning confronting expectancies and experiences and probing the exchanges among parties in a cost-benefit perspective, comparing alternatives and defining outcomes.

Discussion: The Perspective of the Socialization Process

The first challenge entering a group or organization is being accepted as part of it. Thus, the socialization process is defined as the process through which an organizational outsider becomes an organizational insider, using Schein’s (1968) seminal work that points socialization as “the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group which he is entering” (p. 3). The socialization process (SP) encompasses since elemental family experiences (Cooley, 1964 [1902]), passing through school acceptance and, later, to become a group member in a company (Moreland & Levine, 1982, 2001; Myers & Oetzel, 2003). It comes with uncertainty, anxiety, and reality shock (Jones, 1986). Through socialization, a newcomer acquires the knowledge and skills, as well as the understanding of social norms and values, to be integrated into a group. In the case of job admittance, it means assuming an organizational role (Black & Ashford, 1995; De Vos et al., 2003; Myers & Oetzel, 2003; Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In other words, the SP is a way to be accepted as an active and effective member in the workplace, becoming part of the group (Moreland & Levine, 1982, 2001; Myers & Oetzel 2003). The success of the SP has a substantial influence on newcomers’ adjustment at the workplace. When newcomers internalize and comply to organizational norms, values, and practices they can work with more autonomy (see Bauer et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). The continuing interaction among members during socialization is also termed as membership negotiation— the “intentional and unintentional processes individuals engage, disengage, and accomplish mutual influence over the intended meanings of an individual’s partaking in organizational functions” (McPhee & Zaug, 2000, pp. 62-63), or onboarding process, used be Bauer and Erdogan (2011).

The SP occurs via formal and informal avenues. The formal organizational SP regards the institutionalized efforts to support the newcomer adjustment, and it is linked to a higher role clarity and social integration, that, in turn, correspond to higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to remain (Bauer et al., 2007). Formal organizational SP also promotes better individual and team performance (Chen, 2005), once they reduce uncertainty (Morrison, 1993), enhancing self-efficacy and improving newcomer adjustment and, lately, his performance (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992, 1993; Liu et al., 2015). An informal SP occurs without a specific corporate intervention through social learning, like watching, seeking information from, and receiving feedback from coworkers and supervisors, speeding up newcomers' adaptation and learning process (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993). Besides the classical newcomer-focused approach, Korte & Lin (2013) presented a systemic perspective of the SP, including the dimension of social capital as the resources resulting from the relationships among people that can facilitate collective action (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Burt, 1997; Coleman, 1988; Korte & Lin, 2013; Putnam, 2000). This process requires not only learning the tasks of the job and the mission of the organization, but also attention to the social dynamics of the work group. Attending to the social dynamics as mutually constructed relations between newcomers and incumbents in the group goes beyond the typically individualist approach to socialization. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) studied the SP outcomes through a four-wave longitudinal study of newcomers, in seven different organizations. They operated a unified perspective of organizational adjustment: the pre-entry knowledge, proactive personality, and socialization influences, presented as the Antecedents of
Adjustment of both Proximal Outcomes (that means, outcomes closer to admission date, as task mastery, role clarity, work and group integration, and political knowledge) and Distal Outcomes (organizational commitment, work withdrawal, and turnover) indicators of newcomer adjustment, as shown in Figure 1, as follows:

According to the authors, the variables were selected for their conjoint importance, working in tandem for newcomer adjustment. The first antecedent of the adjustment is the pre-entry knowledge. Previous information may influence newcomers' capability to select a job that matches their skills and abilities. The second element is the individual’s proactive personality, that means the newcomer disposition towards a proactive behavior, speeding up the adjustment process. The third element to influence the SP is the organizational effort to fast-track the newcomer adaptation, as, for instance, formal organizational training and orientation materials, that, in addition to supervisor and peers support, are key elements for newcomers’ socialization (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

The authors theorized that achievement of these antecedents of adjustment (pre-entry knowledge, proactive personality and the socialization influences) are the foundation for proximal outcomes as task mastery, role clarity, political knowledge, and work and group integration. The proximal outcomes, in turn, will lead to more distal adjustment outcomes, as mentioned above as higher organizational commitment, lower work withdrawal, and lower likelihood of turnover (Ashford & Black, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Chen, 2005; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

As pre-entry knowledge, the authors considered the clash between information one has regarding the company and the actual situation one finds after admission. Wanous (1992) stated that, when newcomer's expectations are overestimated, it will lead to a subsequent decline in both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and an increase of voluntary turnover as well. The better informed is the newcomer, better chances one will have to assess if there is a good match with the company, and the adjustment quality (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). On the contrary, discrepant expectations are associated with lower organizational commitment and higher turnover intention (Ashforth & Saks, 2000). This perspective is aligned with the expectancy violation theory (Burgoon, 1978, 1993; Burgoon, Berger & Waldron, 2000) and Psychological Contract (Alcover et al., 2017; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Haggard & Turban, 2012; Ho & Levesque, 2005; Khazanchi & Masterson, 2011, Shore & Tetrick, 1994) explained in the following section. It will support our approach over the differences between what a candidate imagines and expects from the work in an SOE, and what one finds after admittance. Proaction is defined as the behavior that involves actively pursuing interaction opportunities (Mitchell, 1980). It includes behaviors such as asking questions, stopping by other people's offices or work areas to talk, initiating social opportunities such as lunch engagements, asking for feedback, and participating in optional social activities. It is presumed that individuals differ in the extent to which they proact, and these differences result in differing levels of interaction frequency (Reichers, 1987, p.281).

Proactive personality points to the importance of the individual’s attitude on improving the socialization process. So, if a newcomer believes that is not receiving enough information to work well, one may strive for finding a way solve this discrepancy (Miller & Jablin, 1991). This aspect is supported and demonstrated in the literature (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth & Saks, 2000; Morrison, 1993; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Regarding the socialization agents (organizational efforts, coworkers and leaders' support), as mentioned above, the authors referenced formal and informal pathways. Formal organizational efforts illustrate how the organization works, what is valued, and what is expected of the employee, reducing role conflict and improving commitment (Miller & Jablin, 1991). These formal endeavors represent, and is perceived as, a symbol of employees’ importance and how much their employers are concerned about them, incentivizing the socialization process (Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991).

Much more than workshops and information sessions, some authors suggested that experienced members of the organization (e.g.,
supervisors) are the most critical socializing agent, and should be actively involved (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999; Bauer & Green, 1998; Chatman, 1991; Moreland & Levine, 2001). Aylmer (2010) presented the supervisor as an employee's primary source of pressure or support in the Brazilian context. Regarding the distal outcomes (organizational commitment, work withdrawal, and turnover hazard), Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg (2003) stated that the constructs could be understood within organizational commitment and behavioral participation at work, which are considered the primary hallmarks of successful adjustment (Hulin, 1991; Wanous, 1992). Organizational commitment is the belief in the organization’s values and goals and the keenness to work on its behalf (see also Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Joo & Shim, 2010; Mowday et al., 1982, 2013; Reichers, 1987; Wanous, 1992). Acceptance and internalization of underlying organizational values is the heart of a newcomer adjustment (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Reichers, 1987; Wanous, 1992). Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, and Alge (1999) asserted that organizational commitment is critical for meeting the defiant goals, once these types of goals evidently are more arduous to achieve and require more determination from the employee (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975). Organizational commitment is considered the result of a high-quality exchange between an organization and its employee (Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014; Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009); an employee responds to an organization's positive treatment with positive affective feelings toward the organization, manifesting in high levels of OC. Several studies reported a positive relationship between appropriate socialization and work behaviors, such as high productivity, job satisfaction, and low turnover rates (Cohen, 1991).

Turnover is the complete withdrawal of an individual from a work setting (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) however, before this complete withdrawal, other subtler issues may compromise productivity and ambiance. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) introduced the issue of work withdrawal, as “a combination of behaviors that reflect an attempt to psychologically disengage from work tasks, such as failing to attend scheduled meetings, doing substandard work, and avoiding work” (p. 780). So, work withdrawal can be portrayed as a tactic to avoid job tasks, but hold the job (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990). Thus, work withdrawal, is, at least empirically, of higher concern in the Brazilian public sector where the deliberate turnover rate is inexpressive, and work withdrawal could represent a threat, considering the long-tenured public career. Accordingly, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) posited that work withdrawal is more noxious for the organization than turnover itself, because it is an insidious and progressive process. Decreasing commitment and poor performance could be a way to retaliate against the supervisor or the company. Homans (1961) postulated that, being less powerful than the source of the perceived injustice (e.g., the supervisor or the corporation itself), one attempts to restore justice indirectly, in other words, much before a direct retaliation (as, for instance, theft or sabotage), disgruntled employees may engage in more covert retaliation, such as the work withdrawal and resistance behaviors that could be considered early warnings for HR staff and supervisors.

Mikula, Petrik, and Tanzer (1990) reported that a considerable proportion of perceived injustices refers to the way people were treated interpersonally during interactions, reinforcing the importance of empathy at the SP (Bies, 1986). Following Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg’s (2003) model (see Figure 1), one of the influencers is the perceived alternatives, which represents a newcomers’ belief about better work alternatives. The perception concerning job quality is intrinsically built upon the perceived alternatives (Hulin, 1991; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 2013). For instance, if one believes that job alternatives are not as good as the present job, may not engage in work withdrawal behaviors, due to the risk of being fired from the job (Kirschbaum & Mano-Negrin, 1999; Trevor, 2001). Work withdrawal is also influenced by newcomers' supposition that they can achieve better rewards if they stay in the organization (Hulin, 1991; Moreland & Levine, 2001). However, the current epistemology on the subject does not mention what happens with a disgruntled employee when there is no perceived risk of being fired but the side-bets hinder turnover intentions, as observed in the Brazilian public sector. It also does not cover what happens when a newcomer goes beyond his coping limit but does not quit the job due to sunk costs and side bets. These relations are unexplored in the literature analyzed. Myers & Sadaghiani (2010) stated that work "is interactive, involving newcomers and old-timers’ evaluations and commitments to each other and the organization, as well as newcomers’ potential transition to more relevant roles in the organization” (p.227).

One of the perspectives upon newcomer socialization is a progression of three major stages: first, the anticipatory socialization (prior to organizational entry), then the accommodation stage (first experiences during entry), and finally, the adaptation socialization stage, as the newcomer settles in (see Bauer et al., 1998; Bauer et al., 2007; Bauer & Erdogan, 2011; Buchanan, 1974; Feldman, 1976; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Katz, 1980; Porter et al., 1974; Schein, 1983; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1992). At the first stage, the anticipatory socialization, that happens before the organizational admittance up to the first experiences with the company, the concerns orbit around organizational norms and search for meaning, looking for confirming a situational identity. Feldman (1976, 1983) suggested that the first stage embraces dimensions such as clarifying role behaviors, seizing work norms and work values adjustment, and developing skills and abilities as well. The natural anxiety present at this stage can be smoothed by frequent and supportive contact with company reps and supervisor (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999; Bauer & Green, 1998; Chatman, 1991; Katz & Tushman, 1983, Moreland & Levine, 2001). If the first stage goes well, the second stage, known as the accommodation stage, reduces the arrival's anxiety and the newcomer's focus moves towards from being accepted to making an impact on the organization, which represents a faster performance improvement (Katz, 1978a, 1978b, 1980; Schein, 1983). In the third stage, the adaptation stage, the newcomer already feels like, and acts as, a member (see also Katz, 1980), and becomes concerned with outcomes such as job satisfaction, work and organizational commitment, and adjustment to organizational norms as well (Kandelousi & Seong, 2011; Cox, 1994; Rink & Ellemers, 2009). Though there is no consensus on the length of these stages, researchers often consider the accommodation and adaptation stages as being fulfilled within the first year (Bauer et al.,
Influence the success of the socialization process (Allen, 1993; Bouwhuis & Rink, 2009; Cox, 1994; Rink & Ellemers, 2009). According to Slaughter and Zickar (2006), in the course of membership negotiation processes, insiders presume who will likely fit in the organization, according to a kind of stereotype (Jackson, Sullivan & Hodge, 1993). The same process happens with newcomers, that evaluate if they will adjust, or not, to work with those peers and supervisors (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Scott & Myers, 2010), therefore, a close attention to early signs of misfit may save time, energy and suffering. Kandelousi and Seong (2011) posited that “without a sense of acceptance and respect, young people are not prone to submitting themselves to the leadership of people or organizations that have failed to embrace them” (p. 20).

Newcomers’ perception regarding the new job operates like a reciprocation, reflecting the way the organization handles the socialization process (Allen et al., 2017; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell, & Thatcher 2010). It is also supported by Gouldner’s (1960) norm of reciprocity that posits that “each party must offer something the other sees as valuable, and each must see the exchange as reasonably equitable and fair” (Graen & Scandura, 1987, p.182).

Finally, other authors on the generational studies’ field (see Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007, Eisner, 2005; Howe & Strauss, 2000; Luppert, 2000; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Twenge, 2010) are of the same opinion, that there must be a higher awareness of the new generations arriving at the workplace in order to support the socialization process. MoideenKutty, et al., (2001) stated that, “from a social exchange perspective, it can be argued that employees who perceive a high level of support from the organization are more likely to feel an emotional attachment to the organization” (p.619)

V. Future Research

This research has determined that the immediate supervisor is crucial in adapting new workers, significantly affecting their public sector careers. Future studies should investigate the extent to which the socialization process affects the performance of newcomers and the measurement of their distress during the first months following admission. The current study concludes with a discussion of lessons learned and essential suggestions for improvement regarding the socialization process, as well as an examination of the limits of the research.

References


