

ABSTRACT

Internal Social Media's Impact on Socialization and Commitment

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Social media technologies present an opportunity for organizations to create value by acclimating new employees and increasing organizational commitment. Past research has indicated that many organizations have leveraged social media in innovative ways. The purpose of this study is to investigate an internal social media tool that was designed and implemented as part of a new hire program with the objective of socializing new hires in hopes of increasing employee commitment. A survey was administered to approximately 458 IT employees of a large, financial institution and 198 employees responded. This dissertation suggests that work related social media use is associated with role clarity and normative commitment. It also suggests that social related social media use is associated with knowledge of organizational culture, social acceptance, and affective commitment. In this dissertation, two types of social media use, four indicators of socialization and three indicators of commitment were analyzed. This dissertation concludes with a discussion of the findings and recommendations for future research on social media.

Internal Social Media's Impact on Socialization and Commitment

by

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DEDICATION

To my children

Manuel, Alexis, Joshua, and Alexander

for their constant support and understanding, for their willingness to take charge in times I was pulled away from home, for their encouragement to me to stay within the program when I was wanting to quit, for taking responsibilities that they should not have had to, for being great individuals, for giving me no additional worries throughout the process, and for their unfailing love that embraced me every step of the way

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Recently, the top 100 employers of Fortune 500 companies (i.e., J.P. Morgan Chase & Co., Best Buy, GE, and IBM) announced a minimum of 350 job openings each, providing more than 96,000 available positions combined (Tkaczyk, 2011). Available positions include: software engineers, hardware engineers, telecommunications, and information technology. According to a survey (by OI Partners) of 184 employers, 54% of employers have increased hiring, 35% of the new hires are information technology (IT) workers (Kluwer, 2009-2012). In April 2012, the Silicon Valley posted more than 17,000 technology positions, an average increase of 21.5% from April 2011 for the west coast metropolitan areas (Lombardi, 2012). In a separate survey by Dice.com, 65% of IT hiring managers reported that they will not only bring on new talent in the first half of the year in 2012, but 25% of these managers expect to increase IT staff over 20% (Argoudelis, 2012; Lesonsky, 2011).

As the job market improves, competition for attracting skilled IT workers is also increasing among companies. Forty-two percent of employers are becoming more concerned about retaining current employees than last year, as are the organizations that are hiring new employees (Kluwer, 2009-2012; Lesonsky, 2011). In 2007, projections of IT workforce shortages initiated great concern for the recruitment and retention of skilled IT workers for employers (Luftman and Kempalah, 2007). Today, recruitment and retention of IT new hires continues to be a major issue for managers because of the demand for skilled talent and shortages of qualified IT employees (Luftman and

Kempalah, 2007; Palacios, Casado-Lumbreeras, Misra and Soto-Acosta, 2012; Lesonsky, 2011). For example, state governments are facing critical IT personnel shortages because of budget cuts in 2011 and are anticipating the inevitable wave of baby boomers heading for retirement within the next five years; therefore, increasing the challenges that exist for recruitment and retention of younger highly qualified IT employees (Hickey, 2011; Grant, 2011).

Furthermore, large cities such as New York, Silicon Valley and Washington, D.C. are experiencing shortages of qualified IT employees because of increasing job openings in 2012, while smaller companies struggle to retain the IT worker that may be lured away by larger companies (Lesonsky, 2011). Not only are companies challenged with retaining current employees, but also hiring the talented IT employee. For instance, a survey by CareerBuilder's site, Sologig.com, found that 70% of IT companies report hiring an IT worker who did not work out; of these companies, 38% of the companies stated it cost them more than \$50,000 (Bowers, 2011; Lesonsky, 2011). The price of making a rushed decision to hire and the lack of knowledge on who the skilled talent is may result in a bad hire, thus adding up to direct and indirect costs such as: lost time to recruit and train another employee, decrease in productivity, cost to recruit and train another employee, negative impact on employee morale, and negative impact on client relations (Bowers, 2011).

Whether an organization is hiring or simply hoping to retain current employees, it is important for organizations to strategize to ensure that they do not end up short on skilled IT talent and avoid losses incumbent in new hire turnover (Lesonsky, 2011). According to a study by Leadership IQ of over 20,000 new hires, 46% of new hires leave

within their first 18 months of employment (Insala, 2010). Thus, it becomes necessary for organizations to take action and address the needs of new hires in order to avoid negative outcomes. Because it is common for new hires to go through a period of uncertainty, new hires often seek ways to adjust to their new surroundings. Organizations must recognize that most new hires begin their new job feeling a bit anxious, worrying about social acceptance in the workplace, and feeling uncertain about their capabilities to meet their new job responsibilities. Most of these issues can be alleviated by a sense of acclimation. It has been found that up to 25% of U.S. workers are new hires that go through some form of socialization (Rollag, Parise, and Cross, 2005).

Socialization is the process of learning the beliefs, values, orientations, behaviors, and skills deemed necessary for new hires to fulfill their new roles and responsibilities (Van Maanen 1976; Fisher 2986). It involves teaching new hires the values, behaviors, social knowledge, and necessary work place skills needed to successfully assume an organizational role and actively participate as an organizational member (Louis, 1980; Schein, 1968). Companies may use formal or informal socialization strategies in an attempt to facilitate the adjustment of new employees into the organization (Ashforth and Saks 1996). The process of organizational socialization helps introduce the employee to his or her new role and responsibilities, acclimate the new employee into the organization's culture, and minimize the learning curve in order to assist new employees become productive members in a more timely manner.

Furthermore, organizational socialization entails the learning of a cultural perspective that determines the interpretation of the new hire's experiences in the work environment (Van Maanen and Schien 1979). Thus, socialization can take many forms

that include training, formal meetings, videos, orientation sessions, mentoring programs, and social events (Ashford and Black, 1996; Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003; Fisher, 1985; Leidner, Koch and Gonzalez, 2010). For example, a new hire mixer with senior colleagues, other new hires, senior management, and executives may give the new hire a sense of importance that allows he or she to gain a better understanding about how his or her role is valued within the organization. Organizational socialization plays a key role in how well adjusted a new employee becomes to the organization (Chao et al 1994). If employees gain a sense of belonging within the organization, they are more likely to develop a sense of loyalty and less likely to want to leave the organization.

Considering that 22% of staff turnover occurs in the first 45 days of employment and the cost of losing an employee is estimated to be at least 3 times their salary (Farren, 2007; Insala, 2010), organizations need to address new hire anxieties within the early days of employment. Failure to do so can result in high costs. For example, an organization with an average starting salary of \$60,000, and an average of 40 new hires, stands to lose \$528,000 per year in turnover-related costs during the first 45 days of the socialization process. Contrarily, new hires that go through a structured socialization or on-boarding program are 58% more likely to remain with the organization after three years (The Wynnhurst Group). Research has found that socialization tactics lead to positive outcomes such as better job performance, reduction in stress, higher job satisfaction, reduction in intent to leave, and greater organizational commitment (Ashford and Black, 1996; Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003; Fisher, 1985).

Organizational commitment describes an employee's willingness to put forth-high levels of effort in the organization, to elicit a strong desire to remain within the

organization, and to accept the organization's goals and values (Porter 1968). Research has indicated that organizational commitment is a powerful predictor of turnover and absenteeism (Mowday et al., 1982; Becker, 1960; WeiBo, Kaur, and Jun, 2009). Because commitment has been negatively associated with turnover (Meyer and Allen 1997) and attendance (Dishon-Berkovits and Koslowsky (2002), committed employees help organizations maintain stability and effectiveness (Reichers 1985). Organizations seek ways to increase positive socialization experiences that will lead to higher gains in employee commitment. Employees who participate in activities that align their personal goals with that of the organization experience higher levels of commitment (Dee, Henkin, and Singleton, 2006). According to Somers (2009), commitment influences outcome variables associated with employee retention. Thus, organizations hope to decrease employee turnover by increasing employee retention, which in turn decreases loss of resources. In other words, employees who have a level of commitment to the organization are less likely to leave the organization, therefore eliminating the costs involved in recruiting and retraining another employee.

Increasingly, retention is taking priority for organizations. Organizations are strategically applying socialization tactics and practices in an effort to increase commitment. The high cost experienced by organizations with high turnover has led organizations to embark on strategies focusing on new hires. Particularly for IT employees, organizations need to offer competitive salaries, challenging work and the chance for career growth (Allen, Armstrong, Reid, and Riemenschneider, 2008). Moreover, organizations are challenged to meet demands from a younger IT workforce that seeks a work-life balance, flexible work schedules, on-going learning, and use of

modern technologies (Armour, 2005). Because new hires often leave the organization between 18 months to two years (Insala, 2010; Leidner et al., 2010), one may wonder, what can be done to improve the retention through the process of socialization while meeting the demands of new hires?

One potential solution is for organizations to leverage social media technologies. In recent years, organizations have implemented and integrated social media technologies into their business processes (Deans, 2011; Li and Bernoff, 2008; McAfee, 2009; Yates et al., 2010). Reasons for considering social media include the number of users and its prevailing popularity among potential new hires. As of April 2012, Facebook has over 900 million active users (Hachman, 2012). 52% of users are young adults ages 18 – 34 (Facebook Statistics, 2010). According to Gartner analysts (Landy and Drakos, 2010), they predict that 15% of businesses will integrate social media technologies in order to gain organizational value by 2016. It is no wonder that organizations of all sizes are jumping on the social media bandwagon and attempting to make sense of its use (Weinberg and Pehlivan, 2011).

Today, organizations recognize that social media tools are an important technology for business processes. Social media has gained visibility that organizations are taking interest in learning about its potential (Andriole, 2010). Organizational social media adoption is fueled by hopes of leveraging the benefits these technologies elicit for individuals (Yates et al. 2010). Originally, characterized as personal recreation applications, social media tools are becoming an integral part of organizational life (Armano 2009; Emerald_Publishing 2009). Social media technologies are tools that have been considered as the means for socializing new hires and increasing collaboration

efforts (Leidner, et al. 2010; Koch et al. 2011; Majchrak et al., 2009; DiMicco et al., 2008).

If organizations integrate tools that will satisfy new employees' demands and lessen the anxiety experienced by uncertainty, the probability of that employee remaining at the organizations increases. In spite of the potential of social media use, organizations have been known to be skeptical about social media (Deans, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Leidner et al., 2010). In recent years, organizations are slowly transitioning into allowing the use of social media for a variety of purposes during the work day (Majchrak et al., 2009; DiMicco et al., 2008; Richter and Riemer, 2009; Jackson et al., 2007; Koch et al., 2011; Leidner et al., 2010). A key factor for organization's sense of fear is that little is known about the value gained from social media use (Andriole, 2010).

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate an internal social media tool which was designed and implemented as part of a new hire program with the objective of socializing new hires in hopes of increasing their levels of commitment to the organization. We first provide the theoretical foundation. We then develop our model and hypotheses. This is followed by our research methodology and results. This paper concludes with a discussion of our findings and implications.

CHAPTER TWO

Social Media Literature Review

Since their introduction, social media applications such as Wikipedia, Twitter, Facebook, Youtube, World of Warcraft, and Second Life have gained great popularity. Consumer adoption and usage of social media technologies is at an all-time high (Cisco, 2010). Organizations are turning to social media applications as sources of valuable information (Ransbotham and Kane, 2011). Although people and organizations use social media for different purposes, organizations continue to struggle with fully understanding social media and the potential gains from internal social media implementations (Majchrzak et al., 2009).

Even though an increasing number of organizations are incorporating social media tools into their business processes in order to leverage the benefits that social media may provide (Deans, 2011; Li and Bernoff, 2008; McAfee, 2009; Yates et al., 2010), most of these efforts were experimental until 2010 (Rozwell, 2011). Little IS research exists on internal organizational social media, instead most research on social media has focused primarily on marketing and student use (Skeels and Grudin, 2009).

Traditional approaches to business process are being disrupted by socially-driven process (Austin, Drakos, Rozwell, and Landry, 2010). Therefore there is a need to better understand social media, to identify the different types of social media, to identify the types of social media use (i.e., personal and organizational), and to better understand the existing literature on internal social media. These topics will be reviewed in this chapter.

2.1 Definition of Social Media

The term social media is often used interchangeably with Web 2.0 (Weinberg and Pehlivan, 2011) and user-generated content (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). As such, there appears to be confusion among academic researchers and managers about what social media truly encompasses and how social media differs from Web 2.0 (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010) and other related concepts as social networking sites. Social media is unique from other forms of communications and collaboration (Bradley, 2011). In general, the term Web 2.0, first used in 2004, refers to the enhanced capability whereby content and applications are continuously modified by all users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Meanwhile, social networking sites refer to web sites that allow the “friending” of people and staying connected with friends and family (boyd and Ellison, 2008).

Social media, whether it be web-based technologies or mobile technologies, focuses on communication and collaboration. The way we communicate has evolved over time and with these changes, new technological advances have provided a variety of tools that allow for communication to be interactive and easy. Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) define social media as a collection of Internet-based applications built on the technological and ideological foundations of Web 2.0 that allow the development and dissemination of user-generated content. In other words, Web 2.0 encourages communication and collaboration (Li and Bernoff, 2008) and serves as the platform on which social media is developed (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010); while social networking sites are a subset of social media tools (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Davison, Singh, and Cerotti, 2010). In order to understand the variety of tools that have transformed the way

we communicate and collaborate, it makes sense to take a step back in time and provide some insight about the developments of social media and its early beginnings.

2.2 History of Social Media

The Internet has revolutioned how people interact with each other on a daily basis. Prior to the Internet, staying connected to friends and family was difficult and costly. In today's world, staying connected is easy and accessible (O'Dell, 2011). The way we communicate changed when the first email was sent in 1971 (O'Dell, 2011; Borges, 2012; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). In 1978, the Bulletin Board System (BBS) was invented in order to allow users to exchange messages, data, news, and software, thus the beginning of the Internet (Bennett, 2012; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). In 1979, two individuals created Usenet, a worldwide discussion system that allowed users to post public messages (O'Dell, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). The 1980s witnessed the introduction of online service providers such as CompuServe, Prodigy and America Online (AOL) (Curtis, 2011). By 1989, British engineer Tim Berners-Lee began to work at CERN on what was to become the World Wide Web (Borges, 2012; Curtis, 2011). During the 1990s, the Mosaic web browser was launched, GeoCities, one of the web's first social networking sites, was founded and personal home pages began to emerge (O'Dell, 2011; Bennett, 2012; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). The year 1995 marked the era for corporate web pages and ecommerce (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Thus, it is no surprise that the current trend toward social media can be traced back to the Internet's roots, since social media has transformed the World Wide Web from web sites that provided static information to web sites that serve as an information exchange platform between users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010).

The social media era dates back to 1998 when Bruce and Susan Abelson founded Open Diary, an early social networking site that brought online diary writers together into one community (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). The technical advances and the growing availability of high-speed Internet access over the past 30 years have enabled a form of virtual content sharing, leading to the creation of social networking sites such as MySpace in 2003 and Facebook in 2004 that are fundamentally different and more powerful than the Bulletin Board System (BBS) of the late 1970s (Borges, 2012; Curtis, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Social networking sites were followed by the video sharing site, YouTube, in 2005 and the microblogging site, Twitter, in 2006 (Borges, 2012). The latest addition to the group of social media are virtual worlds (i.e. Second Life) and virtual game worlds (i.e., World of Warcraft), which provide a simulated environment inhabited by three-dimensional avatars that may interact with each other.

The aforementioned evolution of technology touches on various forms of applications that provide clarity about what falls within the term of social media. Although historically we have been able to identify different milestones of technological advances, categorization of such technologies may not be as simple. When considering the general definition of social media there is a need to distinguish the various types of social media.

2.3 Types of Social Media

The Internet has moved from static information-only websites to becoming a full interactive experience (Pascu, 2008). With the growth of user interaction capabilities online, the Internet-web based technologies have expanded to include a variety of forms and applications. Most people would probably agree that FaceBook, YouTube,

Wikipedia, and SecondLife are all part of this one large group (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Not only are the large numbers of user participation on social media sites creating an expansion of the types of applications that make up this term, but new sites are appearing in cyberspace on a daily basis.

Differing from traditional Internet and communication technologies, social media manages the conversation's content as an information artifact within its online environment (Yates and Paquette, 2011). For example, Google Docs (<http://www.docs.google.com>) uses a cloud computing environment to manage documents, spreadsheets, and other files that allows registered users the flexibility to upload, download, share documents, and make changes from any location with Internet access, YouTube (<http://www.youtube.com>) serves as a video and photo-sharing website (Yates and Paquette, 2011). Kaplan and Haenlin (2010) identify six different types of social media that include: collaborative projects, blogs, content communities, social networking sites, virtual game worlds, and virtual social worlds. Table 1 provides a brief description of each type of social media.

2.4 Personal Use of Social Media

The growth of social networking and microblogging sites have captivated the general public that over 600 million individuals take advantage of new social tools (Austin, et al., 2010). Different types of social media are used for different purposes (Majchrzak et al., 2009). Social media impacts how people behave online (i.e., build and maintain relationships, form communities, play, or converse) across a number of sites (Kietzmann, Silvestre, McCarthy, and Pitt, 2012). It has been suggested that there are many different types of social media with a variety of interactive communication

capabilities (William, Crittenden, Keo, and McCarty, 2012). For example, people post profile status updates on Facebook, upload a personal video on YouTube, tweet about the latest topic, and play World of Warcraft against their friends. The primary driver of social media has been for personal use, as such it is not surprising that most users keep their activities personal and social (Collins, 2010). The overarching themes of personal use of social media include: informal communication and entertainment.

Table 1. Six Types of Social Media

Categories	Description	Example
Collaborative Projects	enables the joint creation of content simultaneously by many end users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010)	Wikipedia, Delicious
Blogs	also referred to as weblogs, are an online publication of numerous issues presented in a reverse, chronological order (OECD, 2007; Carrington, 2008; Leight, 2008)	Twitter, Open Diary
Content Communities	the sharing of media content between users including text, videos, photos, and PowerPoint presentations (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010)	BookCrossing, Flickr, YouTube, Limewire and Slideshare
Social Networking Sites	are web-based services that allow individuals to construct a digital identity by developing a profile, articulating a list of users with whom they share a connection, viewing their list of connections and viewing connections made by others within the system (Boyd and Ellison, 2008)	Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn
Virtual Game Worlds	are platforms that replicate a three-dimensional environment in which users can appear in the form of avatars that interact with each other (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010)	World of Warcraft, EverQuest
Virtual Social Worlds	allows inhabitants or avatars choose their behavior freely and live a virtual life that may resemble their real life (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010)	Second Life

Source: Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010

Because social media use has been primarily for personal reasons (Collins, 2010), people tend to view this as a means for informal communication. The basic premise of

social media is free, open communication over the Internet (Lucy, 2009). People using social media usually view themselves surrounded by friends where they can be free to express themselves and not worry about any repercussions. Social media can be used when other means of communication (i.e., telephone) seem inconvenient (Collins, 2010). For example, people may choose to post an announcement of an upcoming event on their Facebook page versus taking the time to call or write and mail out postcards to every individual.

In the same realm of the “social” element of social media, people tend to use social media for entertainment (Collins, 2010). The music and video industry have vastly spread onto social media sites such as YouTube and Ping. While YouTube provides free videos to view (USA Today, 2006), Ping allows users to follow their favorite music artists and friends (Apple, 2010). These type of sites have been known for providing millions of users many hours of entertainment at their convenience. For example, users spend over 700 billion minutes per month on Facebook and more than 24 hours of video are uploaded every minute on YouTube (Facebook Statistics, 2010; YouTube Statistics, 2010). This means that more than 30 billion of online content is shared each month through Facebook and YouTube video views now exceed two billion per day.

Furthermore, one of the newest trends is the game applications on Facebook, such as Farmville, Tetris, and Food Fight. Many users are playing games and challenging their friends to an online match. It is appealing for users to have a place to have fun and laugh. Because of the entertainment provided, people tend to view social media as fun, exciting, relaxing and a good way to unwind after a long day at work (Leidner et al., 2010). Similarly, many people enjoy chatting online, blogging about their interest, or

tweeting about their likes or dislikes. Because social media platforms originated with the purpose to connect friends and families (boyd and Ellison, 2008), the very people who use these tools for these personal purposes may sometimes be unaware that social media could be used for business processes (Collins, 2010).

2.5 Business Use of Social Media

While social media have been adopted publicly and widely used for recreational purposes, organizations are recognizing their potential for business activities (Awazu and Desouza 2004; Yates, Wagner et al. 2010). Organizational adoption of social media is driven by hopes of maximizing the benefits that individuals experience through these technologies (Koch, Gonzalez, and Leidner, 2012). Social media's value depends on the frequent contribution of small pieces of knowledge in various forms that are easy to acquire, share, and use (Yates and Paquette 2011). Organizations are already using social media tools for external connections with clients, partners, and suppliers (Deans, 2011; McAfee, 2009). Implementation of these external social media applications has been for branding, customer service, direct selling, customer support, recruiting, and product development (Culnan and McHugh 2009; Gallagher and Ransbotham 2009). In addition, organizations implement social media for internal use to connect employees, improve communication, and facilitate mass collaboration (DiMicco, Millen et al. 2008a; Majchrzak, Cherbakov et al. 2009). Research has demonstrated that social media technologies have the ability to not only coordinate widespread communication and strengthen information flows, but can also be flexible to the changing needs of the users (Sutton, Palen et al. 2008). This dissertation will further discuss external and internal use of social media by organizations.

2.5.1 External Use Social Media

Many organizations are using social media to reach out to consumers through existing tools widely accepted by the majority of the population. At the same time, consumers are demanding organizations to allow them to be more interactive when it comes to customer service or expressing their thoughts about the company's products and services. The expectations of how organizations communicate with their consumers is changing the way organizations market their products. Companies like Wal-Mart, Dell, Starbucks, Ford, Burger King, and Zappos use social media for marketing, recruitment, branding, and providing customer service and support (Culnan et al 2010; Gallagher and Ransbotham 2010; Balwani 2009).

2.5.1.1 Marketing. Corporations, small businesses, non-profit organizations, and individuals are using social media for marketing and advertising purposes. Social media marketing refers to an engagement with online communities to generate sales, exposure, and opportunities (Stelzner, 2009). Organizations are able to reach out and speak to customers at any time in spite of location (Mills, 2012). Facebook and Twitter are the top two social media tools used for marketing (Stelzner, 2012). The focus for using social media is to create content that is appealing and encourages users to share it with others online. Organizations potentially gain value when customers engage with the company on a regular basis (Culnan, McHugh, and Zubillaga, 2010). Because social media is easily accessible and is low cost (Culnan et al., 2010), it levels the playing field for many organizations. Social media fosters better customer relations than the more traditional

public relations and print advertising; Scott Bradley, a social media strategist who runs the Networking Effectively blog describes it as “Word-of-Mouth 2.0” (Schiff, 2009). It has been suggested that word-of-mouth occurs on all interactive media sites (Gil-Or, 2010). Social media use by companies to market themselves involves time building a community or fan base (Schiff 2009). Consumers are wanting to engage with the companies they buy from as well as gain valuable insights from other consumers (Garretson, 2008). Social media use for marketing provide exposure for the organization, promote products or services, and provide open commentary space for customers to discuss their personal opinions about products or services (Lucy, 2009). For example, a Facebook page can provide an organization exposure to an extended market when the organization gives away promotional discounts for individuals that become members. Eventually, the organization’s popularity may increase when fans share the content with their online friends. The formation of communities allow organizations to learn from the content customers generate about services and products on the organization’s social media pages (Culnan et al., 2010). In addition, organizations can develop a Twitter page to respond to customers’ questions about new promotions. The use of social media can potentially result in increased revenues. In mid-June 2009, Dell announced that their use of Twitter earned the company \$3 million in revenue; it took the company 18 months to make the first million via Twitter, but only six months to earn the other two million (Schiff 2009).

2.5.1.2 Recruitment. Because of the growth of social media tools, employers can learn more about a potential applicant online versus in an interview. Millions of people are making use of social media sites like LinkedIn, Facebook or Twitter. According to

Baker (2007), human resources professionals and recruiters regularly make use of search engines (i.e., Google) to conduct searches on applicants or review their profiles on social networking sites (i.e., Facebook). Social media technologies, such as social networks, are considered convenient by hiring managers who make use of them frequently when searching for the right people for the job (Du 2007). A survey conducted in March 2007 by Poneman Institute, a privacy think tank, reported that 35% of hiring managers use Google to perform online background checks on potential employees and 23% of hiring managers review social networking sites of potential employees prior to making a hiring decision. (Du 2007). In addition, the Atsco (Association of Technology Staffing Companies) reported that 58% of the IT recruitment firms find social networks (i.e., Facebook and LinkedIn) more useful in finding the right candidate than the traditional print advertisements (King 2007). Other social media tools, such as Twitter are reported as successful recruiting tool for summer interns (Lindow 2011).

2.5.1.3 Branding. Branding is the process of creating a unique name and image for a product in the consumers' mind (www.businessdictionary.com). Branding entails connecting the organization's core values and character and allowing it to be dynamic. Companies seek ways to establish themselves above others by holding a differentiating presence in the market that not only attracts customers, but also retains them for the long term. Twitter is a great tool for tracking and viewing what is being said about a company because consumers may use Twitter to write about their experiences of certain products in an open forum. Social media allows for companies to strategize and monitor customer discontent, which may lead to better brand loyalty (Balwani 2009). Companies are discovering that defining a brand is important to establishing collaborative relationships

with customers (Lucy, 2009). Consumers are liberated and empowered by the ability to create, publish and distribute their opinions about a product or service via social media (Ahuja et al., 2007; Kozinets, 1999). Because members of brand communities are capable of creating content (Schau et al., 2010), consumer-generated content is a form of electronic word-of-mouth that the resulting branding material is not considered commercially motivated (Ertimur and Gilly, 2010). When organizations use social media to allow consumers to blog about their opinions, rather than sending a sales marketing message, will result in giving value to the consumers' voice. Organizations can find brand loyalty when the purpose goes beyond selling a product. For example, the Pepsi Refresh Project was not about selling its beverages, but rather more about funding causes for social good; Pepsi's use of social media for the project enabled grant seekers to spread the word and encourage participation resulting in Pepsi giving away \$20 million in grants in 2010 (IDEO, 2011).

2.5.1.4 Customer service and support. Customer service and support means to place the focus on people. Customer service is a series of activities provided to customers in order to enhance customers' level of satisfaction (Turban et al., 2002). Customer service includes dealing with returns, exchanges and complaints of a product and customer support includes training, installation, maintenance, assistance, and trouble shooting of a product (www.businessdictionary.com). Customer service and support involves listening and responding to the good and the bad about a service or product from customers. Creating relationships between customers and organizations means allowing two-way communication (Lucy, 2009).

Organizations that empower the public to speak their mind by creating a multidimensional platform that supports the human need for social interaction acknowledges the importance of open communication (IDEO, 2011; Lucy, 2009). A social media tool, such as Twitter, can serve as a communication tool to switch customer service from telephone service to an online interactive platform that is easy and accessible. For example, as a way of reintroducing a particular model to the U.S., Ford gave 100 Fiesta autos to recipients in Europe that used social media (i.e. blogs and social networks) and asked them to publicly document and share their experiences with the car (even if it was negative); Ford achieved its goal by gaining 60% name recognition for the Fiesta auto before it hit the U.S. market (IDEO 2011). Social media allows for companies, such as Ford, to increase overall customer satisfaction by providing the social channels to manage customers comments and respond accordingly in a timely manner.

2.5.2 Internal Use of Social Media

Social media is gaining extensive momentum and growing. It is important for organizations to not only explore the potentials of social media, but also fully understand the critical underlying principles that are part of social media. Social media are often misunderstood and not perceived to be of value for business processes (Skeels and Grudin, 2009, Bennett et al., 2010). Thus, it is important for organizations and IT leaders to explore the potentials of social media. This section will address why social media tools are implemented by organizations, implementation concerns and challenges, the impact of social media on organizational culture and the benefits of social media.

2.5.2.1 Why social media? Some early adopters of internal social media are doing so for a variety of reasons. Organizations desire to leverage the capabilities embedded in social media for organizational benefits. For example, companies like USAA (Leidner, Koch, and Gonzalez 2010) and IBM (DiMicco et al, 2008; Majchrzak 2009) are implementing internal social media technologies to connect employees, facilitate mass collaboration, improve communication, provide a social and work life balance (Koch et al 2011) and a global services organization uses social media to motivate and influence employee innovativeness (Gray et al, 2011). Therefore, social media may lead to building relationships, increasing collaboration efforts, providing a forum for open communication, providing a social and work life balance, and motivating employee innovation.

Initially, social media was used to create connections externally, but companies began to consider how these technologies could help build connections internally among its employees. Employees use internal social media to connect with co-workers on a personal level (Dimicco et al, 2008; Majchrzak et al, 2009). IBM employees who use Beehive, an enterprise social networking site, describe their use as a way of reaching out to unfamiliar colleagues, humanizing the workplace, and self-promoting their projects or career advancements (Majchrzak et al 2009). Similarly, USAA employees who use Nexus, an internal social network, describe it as a way to acclimate to the organization, participate in social events, network with top management, and build friendships with co-workers (Leidner et al. 2010). While the use of social media may vary among organizations, companies are recognizing that connections among employees enable greater collaborative efforts.

Collaboration is a process that allows people to leverage their interests, knowledge, and concerns (Hardy, Lawrence, and Grant 2005) in order to reach a common goal. Online collaboration refers to using the Internet or Intranet for collaborative purposes (Jarvenpaa and Majchrzak 2010). Companies are interested in the potential of online mass collaborations because social media tools are breaking the boundaries of traditional hierarchies so that masses of people can come together and get involved in coordinating projects (von Hippel and von Krogh 2003), sharing expertise (Constant, Sproull, and Kiesler 1996), or seeking help (Hargadon and Bechky 2006). It is through online participation that individuals are exposed to new ideas, prospective ties, and collaboration efforts (Jarvenpaa and Mazchrzak 2010). Companies are pursuing the implementation of social media tools with the intent to increase mass collaboration, increase innovation, and create value (i.e., Koch et. al. 2011; Majchrzak et al. 2009). According to Majchrzak et. al. (2009), IBM uses a variety of social media tools as the means to facilitate innovation through mass collaboration because it reaches across time, distance, function, and interests. Thus, social media use enhances the means of communication among employees

For employees who are using internal social media, communication has become more transparent. Social media tools can be envisioned as a virtual workplace in which people can communicate openly about their daily activities. For example, they can be used to inform others about the way they handle email (i.e., I only check it at 10, 2, and 4) or the fact that they telecommute on certain days (i.e., Tuesdays, Thursday, and Fridays) allowing others to know when to contact them and expect a response. At USAA (Leidner et al, 2010) social media allows for communication to flow freely among

members and is described as the means to promote group events, training sessions, or any topic of interest. Thus, the barriers to communication are diminished through the use of social media technologies. As such, that the forum for open communication enables for the boundaries of work and social life to become blurred.

Social-work life balance may be achieved because internal social media has a variety of features that enable new hires to participate in social related activities while in the work environment (Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2012). An investigation of internal social media at USAA found that the blurring of social-work boundaries created positive emotions for social media users (Koch, et al., 2012). The use of social media at work can increase employees' attachment to the organization by enabling employees to make and maintain friends at work (Dimicco et al., 2008; Koch et al., 2012). Social media tools allow employees to create personal profiles and locate others with similar interests (Koch et al., 2012). These personal profiles encourage employees to share personal pictures, interests and hobbies. By making connections with others, the sharing of ideas increases the potential for innovation.

In addition, social media tools such as social bookmarking are increasingly being used in many organizations (McAfee, 2006) and may serve as digital resources for innovation (Gray et al., 2011). Employees who access bookmarks made by other employees who are not interconnected may obtain much more ideas because such employees would be more likely to have diverse views with dissimilar interests; thus accessing their bookmarks are more likely to reveal novel information, leading an employee to a higher level of individual innovativeness (Gray et al., 2011). Similarly, IBM uses social media to allow for a transparent innovation process in which employees

openly share ideas and comment on others ideas as well (Majchrzak et al 2009). In fact, organizations that implement internal social media encourage employees to use social media, but at the same time struggle whether the benefits outweigh the concerns and challenges of social media (Koch et al., 2012) and look at social media implementations with extreme caution (Andriole, 2010).

2.5.2.2 Implementation concerns and challenges. Individuals use social media extensively in their personal lives and organizations use social media for marketing and branding. Implementation of internal social media technologies can raise concerns and prove challenging. For example, many people associate social media with Facebook, Twitter, or YouTube, therefore relating social media use with friends, family, entertainment, and fun. This association of social media and personal use generates concerns at both the organizational and individual levels (Dimicco et al, 2008; Skeels and Grudin, 2009; Burrus, 2010). There are a number of organizational concerns associated with internal social media tools inclusive of: managing multiple personas (Dimicco et al., 2009), time wasting by employees (Skeels and Grudin, 2009; Friedman, 2011; Harris, 2011), misfit between social media and organizational culture (Koch et al., 2011), and the potential that personal views will negatively impact career advancement opportunities (Hewitt and Forte, 2006; Skeels and Grudin, 2009).

In addition, managers have concerns about social media's impact on productivity, as well as social media's risks with regard to security and control (Cain et al., 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Managers do not wish for employees to fail meeting performance objectives because they become distracted by the collaborative features that are to be used to accomplish such tasks (Li, 2010) and they feel that social media may

lead to fragmented socialization of new employees (Denyer et al., 2011; Leidner et al., 2010). Management concerns that involve security and control are mostly about the risks involved when employees post sensitive information about the organization or customers, which may lead to damaging the organization's reputation or harming morale (Andriole, 2010; Bonabeau, 2009; Skeels and Grudin, 2009b).

Although one study demonstrated that social media increased productivity (Gaskell, 2011), many organizations experience levels of uncertainty and ban popular external social media sites (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, iTunes and YouTube) in the workplace (Cain et al., 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). When considering organizational social media policies, it becomes evident that organizations struggle with a limited understanding of social media's potential for value creation and a concern for risk management of social media (Kaganer and Vaast, 2010). As such, regulations that depict how employees should and should not use social media are put forth by top management and executives (Deans, 2011; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Leidner et al., 2010).

Organizations and employees stress concern about internal social media use. These concerns center around social media's impact on security, productivity, violations of privacy, and equal treatment. Although AeroInc highly encouraged employees to use its enterprise wide social media, AeroInc was worried about security breaches (Koch et al., 2010). AeroInc feared that employees could potentially disclose confidential information (Koch et al., 2010). Because social media users may be perceived as wasting time, USAA's employees were concerned about the negative misperception that others may have about their job performance (Leidner et al., 2010). Telco's employees experienced a level of uncertainty when Telco introduced a social media tool (Denyer et

al., 2011). Telco's internal social media initiative encouraged open communication, but Telco's employees viewed the social media tool as a means for management to maintain records of employees' online activities (Denyer et al., 2011). Furthermore, internal social media implementations have created equity concerns. A case study demonstrated that social media used solely by virtual workers led to dissatisfied traditional workers (Akkirman and Harris, 2008). In addition, a study of software developers (O'Driscoll & Cummings, 2009) found that while younger employees used new media like Facebook and Twitter to develop software, more experienced software developers viewed this new media as a distraction. Another workplace study (Skeels & Grudin, 2009) found that subordinates were uncomfortable with superiors viewing their profile and/or interacting with them personally on social media sites.

In spite of organizational and individual social media concerns, organizations are embarking on social media implementations. Gartner Group, Forrester Research, IDC, and the Cutter Consortium report that social media tools are making their ways into corporate technology infrastructures (Andriole, 2010; Rozwell, 2011). It becomes crucial for organizations to reinforce positive attitudes about social media use. For example, if organizations impose high levels of hierarchy and control of social media use, employees may feel threatened and unsure about the managerial support needed to feel comfortable about social media use in the workplace (Akkirman and Harris, 2008).

2.5.2.3 Internal social media impact on organizational culture. Several organizations have experienced successful social media implementations (Li and Bernoff, 2008; Majchrzak et al, 2009b; and DiMicco et al, 2008), yet many continue to struggle in understanding the role of social media within the organization. Organizations are

concurrently maintaining, or tightening, their policies of employee social media use (Gaudin, 2009) in an attempt to control the outcomes of social media use (Kaganer and Vaast, 2010). However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to fully embed policies into any IT use or to control the outcomes (Orlikowski, 2000). Because social media technologies are sometimes misunderstood as only being useful for socializing and having fun, conflict with most organizational cultures that are centered around productivity, work, authority, and control may arise (Koch et al., 2011).

Organizational values themselves may be attached to a specific action (Alavi, Kayworth et al. 2006). The organizational culture encompasses a number of organizational values as its driving force (Alavi, Kayworth et al., 2006). One case study of a large aeronautic firm found that the implementation of a social media tool created potential conflict with the organizational values held by employees (Koch et al 2011). Because the company's culture is defined by its hierarchical structure, restricted internet use policies, emphasis on high security measures, and communication controls, the company had to address certain elements of its culture to ensure that employees would be more willing to adopt and use the social media tool. The company embraced the notion of "need to share" versus "need to know" in an effort to break down the barriers of communication and increase information sharing activities (Koch et al, 2011). This new understanding began to create a cultural shift. The implementation of the social media tool was the beginning of the company's cultural shift. When the values of social media (i.e., collaboration, information sharing, and open communication) started to take a priority in the company's everyday business operations, organizational culture evolved to be better aligned with the values embedded in the social media tool. If the social media

tool is an enterprise wide system whose values are recognized by the organization, employees have the reassurance that their behavior in accessing a social network is acceptable because it fits within the organizational culture.

Employees are more likely to use the social media tool when management supports and encourages the system. For example, if an employee is encouraged by management to post updates on team projects, having managerial support allows him or her to contribute and share information that may eliminate inefficiencies. Employees are more likely to be comfortable sharing details of project status in a social media site that allows for management and other team members to remain up to date about the project. This action alone may avoid duplication of work efforts, making employees more productive.

2.5.2.4 Benefits of internal social media use. Although misperceptions about social media are difficult to diminish, studies suggest that organizations that are open minded, encourage non-hierarchical idea exchange, and develop appropriate strategies are likely to experience greater positive organization benefits when implementing social media (Moskaluluk and Kimmerle 2009; Culnan et al., 2010). Organizations implementing social media are doing so in order to increase collaboration efforts among employees, facilitate open communication, and build relationships (Dimicco et al., Denyer et al., 2011, and Akkirman and Harris, 2008, Leidner et al 2010). Organizations are able to identify the potential that a social media tool can provide to their business objectives by giving value to social media capabilities. Such organizations may ease the transition from the “old” view of social media to the “new” view of social media. Organizations that recognize the potential benefits of social media technologies and

recognize that social media use extends above personal use, may gain greater organizational benefits than those organizations that do not.

Companies that have implemented internal social media have benefited from increased employee engagement, increased collaboration, and increased employee satisfaction (Leidner et al 2010; Majchrzak et al 2010). Employees become acclimated through the social networking features of social media and begin to develop relationships with others who they may call upon in time of need (i.e., running into issues while working on a project) (Koch et al., 2012). These potential benefits are what provides an incentive for organizational implementation of social media technologies.

2.6 Summary

In summary, social media sites allow individuals to create personal profiles (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Hinduja and Patchin, 2008), manipulate the information and content of collaborative sites by adding, deleting, editing, or commenting (Gorman, 2005) and blog about any subject that may include text, links to other websites, audio, and video files (Cox, Martinez, and Quhlan, 2008). User generated content on social media sites can range from personal diaries (i.e., an individual describing his/her personal life) to any specific content area (i.e. information about Friday night's game) (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). Although the most common use of social media is for personal reasons, social media is also used for both external and internal organizational purposes. Research has demonstrated that a gap exists in the understanding of internal social media (Skeels and Grudin, 2009). Therefore, there is a need within the IS literature to further investigate internal social media tools by examining beyond the personal use (i.e.,

making friends, uploading personal images, blogging about personal interests) and the organizational external use (i.e., marketing, recruiting, and branding) of social media (Huysman, 2011).

CHAPTER THREE

Theoretical Foundation

In order to understand how social media can assist with the socialization of new employees within an organization, we rely on organizational socialization theory and organizational commitment theory. These two theories present a framework that will be used for interpreting how the use of social media impacts the level of organizational socialization and commitment a new employee experiences.

3.1 Organizational Socialization Theory

Organizational socialization is the learning content and process that involves an individual's acquisition of the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). In lay terms, it is the "learning of the ropes" by an individual (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). Organizational socialization theory describes the process by which an individual is taught and learns the behaviors and perspectives that are acceptable within his or her workplace and which are not (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). Thus organizational socialization is the primary process by which individuals adapt to their new position and role within an organization (Chao et al. 1994).

People learn to cope with social norms through the process of socialization (Berger and Lackman 1967). Socialization consists of two dimensions that provide a breakdown of the organization from that of the individual; these two dimensions are referred to as institutionalized socialization versus individualized socialization (Jones

1986). Institutionalized socialization involves the use of collective tactics and practices by an organization to socialize new hires through common learning experiences designed to produce a level of standardized outcomes and differs from individualized socialization, which focuses on using individualized tactics and practices that isolate an individual from the rest of the organization, giving each new hire a unique set of learning experiences (Jones, 1986). In addition, organizational socialization differs from occupational socialization, which focuses on learning the norms of a specific profession (i.e., police officer, psychologist, mathematician, or medical assistant) (Bauer and Erdogan, 2011) rather than the norms of the organization as a whole. Due to the increasing rate that employees change jobs, organizational socialization is important to individuals and organizations (Bauer and Erdogan, 2011).

Although socialization primarily impacts the individual, the process of socialization is developed in many forms across different roles (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). For example, a new hire may learn about the organizational policies by watching an interactive, self-guided tutorial, while another new hire who is entering a department with very specific job tasks may be required to attend a lengthy training session before assuming his or her role full time. In essence, organizational socialization is about the role itself and about the manner in which an individual learns about his or her work setting. It becomes the process about what encompasses the individual's work life norms. To illustrate this, consider an experienced IT employee having a conversation with an inexperienced new hire IT employee. When talking about an upcoming project, the experienced IT employee may say, "Our new Enterprise 2.0 system will be used for collaboration by posting updates on Team Spaces, making suggestions on ICE, and

recruiting volunteers on a weekly basis.” The new employee may not necessarily be familiar with the acronyms or proper procedures to accomplish such tasks that are clearly presumed by the special knowledge shared by experienced organizational members about the specifics of their work. The new employee must learn to understand these things so that he or she can eventually come to make use of them if he or she is to continue working in the organization.

Organizational socialization theory is explained by Van Maanen and Schein’s (1979) typology of six socialization tactics. It is believed that the socialization tactics used by an organization influences the roles that new employees ultimately accept as their own (Ashforth and Saks, 1996). These proposed six tactics were developed as a means for organizations to structure the socialization experiences of new employees (Ashforth & Saks, 1996). Collective (vs. individual) socialization tactic refers to grouping newcomers and placing them through a common set of experiences, rather than isolating the new employee and putting him or her through his or her own set of experiences. Formal (vs. informal) socialization refers to the practice of isolating a new employee from regular organization members during a defined period of socialization, as opposed to making no distinguishment between a new employee from more experienced employees. Sequential (vs. random) socialization refers to a fixed sequence of steps that leads to the assumption of the new job role, rather than a changing or ambiguous sequence. Fixed (vs. variable) socialization provides a timetable for the assumption of a new role, compared to a variable process that does not. Serial (vs. disjunctive) socialization describes the process in which a new employee is socialized by an experienced employee or member of the organization. Finally, investiture (vs.

divestiture) socialization recognizes the personal characteristics and identity of the new employee rather than denying their existence and taking them away.

In addition to considering organizational socialization tactics, Louis et al. (1983) introduced the categorization of socialization practices. Socialization practices describe the actual things organizations provide so that new employees can be on track (Aguilar et al 2006). There are a variety of socialization practices that organizations use to socialize and orient new employees (Louis et al. 1983). A listing of socialization practices that were commonly used by many organizations and represented a range of activities included: formal onsite orientation sessions, offsite residential training sessions, connections with other new recruits (employees), a buddy relationship with a more senior coworker, mentor and/or sponsor relationship, availability of an employee's supervisor, secretary or other support staff, daily interactions with peers while working, social/recreational activities with people from work, and business trips with others from work (Louis et al., 1983). According to Louis et al.'s study (1983), the three most important socialization practices were: daily interactions with peers, availability of an employee's supervisor, and buddy relationships with senior coworkers. The availability of socialization opportunities was significantly associated with job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, commitment, and tenure intention) (Louis et al. 1983).

In an attempt to expand the knowledge of "how" it is learned (i.e., organizational socialization tactics and practices), Chao et al. (1994) identify the "what" is learned, labeling it organizational social domains. By doing so, Chao et al. (1994) clarify the link between socialization tactics and outcomes by conceptualizing and developing the following six dimensions of organizational socialization: performance proficiency,

people, politics, language, organizational goals and values, and history. First, the performance proficiency domain indicates that individuals need to learn about their role and identify the skills, abilities, or knowledge to know how to perform job tasks (Chao et al 1994). Second, the people domain defines the formal and informal working relationships among employees that allow individuals to learn about the organization and work groups (Fisher, 1986). Third, the organizational politics domain is the gaining of information about the power structures within the organization by the individual (Fisher, 1986). Fourth, the language domain refers to the individual's learning of the technical language of his or her role as well as the knowledge of the organization's acronyms, slang, or jargon (Chao et al 1994). Fifth, the organizational goals and values domain consists of learning the formal rules and principles and the unwritten or informal and tacit rules and principles of the organization (Chao et al 1994). And finally, the sixth domain, organizational history, is the learning about an organization's background, traditions, customs, rituals, and myths that form the organizational culture (Ritti and Funkhouser, 1987). The six domains are important in better understanding the transitional process that new hires experience in the workplace.

Because organizational socialization refers to the transitional process by which new hires adjust from being an organizational outsider to being an organizational insider (Bauer et al., 2007), one should consider the adjustment process. Even though many factors play a role in successfully adapting or achieving socialization of new hires into an organization, research has focused on four key socialization adjustment indicators of new hires (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003; Bauer and Erdogan, 2011). While Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) presented all four indicators in their model,

initially Bauer et al (2007) presented only three indicators and then added the fourth indicator in their model (Bauer and Erdogan, 2011). The four indicators of socialization adjustment include: role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture and social acceptance.

Role clarity provides a good indication of how well adjusted a new hire feels about the new job. As new hires understand their roles, they experience higher role clarity. Because role clarity can minimize role conflict, it has been related to positive socialization outcomes (Bauer et al, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). Self-efficacy refers to learning the tasks of a new job and gaining confidence in a particular role (Bauer et al., 2007). Social acceptance refers to the sense of feeling liked and accepted by peers (Bauer et al., 2007). Knowledge of organizational culture refers to the understanding of the employee's role in the organization and understanding the goals and objective of the organization (Taormina, 1994).

These four indicators of socialization effectiveness have been found to be predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, satisfaction, turnover, and high-quality relationships among leaders and team members (Adkins, 1995; Bauer et al., 2007, Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003; Major et al, 1995; Chao et al., 1994).

3.1.1 Socialization in Information Systems Research

According to King and Sethi (1998), discovering ways to manage, develop, and retain IT personnel has become a significant managerial concern. Studies have noted that job-hopping is more prevalent among IT personnel versus other functional disciplines (O'Bryan and Pick 1995). In addition, the IT workforce shortage has also led to greater worries for managers and greater stress levels on IT employees (Allen, Armstrong, Reid,

and Riemenschneider 2008). IT managers are frequently faced with the challenge to develop strategies in an attempt to attract and retain IT talent (King and Calloway 1995) while increasing productivity (Discenza and Gardner 1992). It becomes critical for organizations to increase retention of IT personnel with valuable knowledge (Allen et al. 2008). If new hires leave the IT department that invested both time and money to recruit and train them, the IT department is unable to recover the costs involved in replacing them. Because job stressors may lead to higher levels of turnover, organizations seek ways to decrease an employee's intent to leave the job and increase their level of acclimation to the organization.

IS research has investigated IT personnel turnover by examining the determinants of employee turnover (i.e., role orientation, role ambiguity, role conflict) (King and Sethi 1998; Bartol and Martin 1982; Igbaria and Siegel 1992) and the influencing factors of perceived organizational support (i.e., job characteristics, stressors, and organizational actions) (Allen et al. 2008). Other studies have examined gender differences among IT workers (Trauth, Quesenberry, and Huang 2009), workplace barriers for IT women professionals (Reid, Allen, Armstrong, and Riemenschneider 2010), employee status (i.e., employee versus individual contractor) (Mayer and Nickerson 2005), work environment (Arnett and Obert 1995), and professional identity (Brooks, Riemenschneider, Hardgrave, and O'Leary-Kelly 2011). The IS discipline has also investigated the relationship between retention, commitment and job satisfaction (Mak and Sockel 2001).

Although socialization practices have been noted as a way to reduce job stressors and increase commitment, the role of the use of an IT for socialization purposes has not been considered. Most IS research has focused on IT personnel and the specific needs of

their profession. IT professionals are not exempt from using technologies that serve a greater purpose than simply a tool to use to get a particular task done. Since socialization impacts organizational commitment, organizations are encouraged to implement strategies and practices that will increase employee acclimation, thereby increasing commitment.

3.2 Organizational Commitment Theory

Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and willingness to work towards and accept organizational goals (Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian 1974). It can be characterized by three factors: 1) a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals, 2) a willingness to exert efforts towards organizational goals and values and 3) a strong desire to maintain organizational membership (Porter et al., 1974). Organizational commitment involves a psychological bond between employees and organizations (Buchanan, 1974). Previous research has demonstrated that commitment has a significant negative association with turnover and other behaviors inclusive of poor performance, absenteeism, and tardiness (Reichers, 1985).

Two forms of commitment that arise in the organizational commitment literature are described as attitudinal and behavioral commitment. According to Mowday et al. (1982), attitudinal commitment focuses on the processes by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization, while behavioral commitment relates to the processes by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem. The distinction between attitudinal and behavioral commitment has been established in the organizational commitment literature (i.e., Mowday et al.,

1982; Reichers, 1985). In addition, three general themes of commitment appear in organizational commitment literature: affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs of leaving the organization, and obligation to stay within the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Based on attitudinal and behavioral commitment and the three general themes of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a model of commitment. This model had two purposes: 1) to assist in the interpretation of existing research and 2) to serve as a framework for future research (Meyer and Allen 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991) found that the three forms of commitment are related, yet different from one another as well as from factors such as job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment. In their model of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) expand the concept of organizational commitment as a psychological state or mind set in which feelings or beliefs about an employee's relationship with an organization is reflected as a desire, a need, and/or an obligation to maintain membership within an organization. Meyer and Allen's (1991) model conceptualizes organizational commitment into three components: affective, continuance, and normative.

Affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Continuance is the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. Normative is the perceived obligation to remain in the organization. Employees with strong affective commitment remain because they *want* to, those with strong continuance commitment because they *need* to, and those with strong normative commitment because they feel they *ought* to do so (Meyer and Allen, 1991). It is possible for employees to experience each of the three levels of commitment to varying

degrees. For example, one employee may feel both a strong need to remain at his or her job and a great sense of obligation to do so, but no true desire simply because they want to. Common to the three approaches (affective, continuance, and normative commitment), is a psychological state view that characterizes the relationship between the employee and the organization, and has implications about the employee's decision to remain within the organization. The model depicted in Figure 1 illustrates that there are some potential antecedents that contribute to the three different levels of commitment that may or may not lead to certain outcomes.

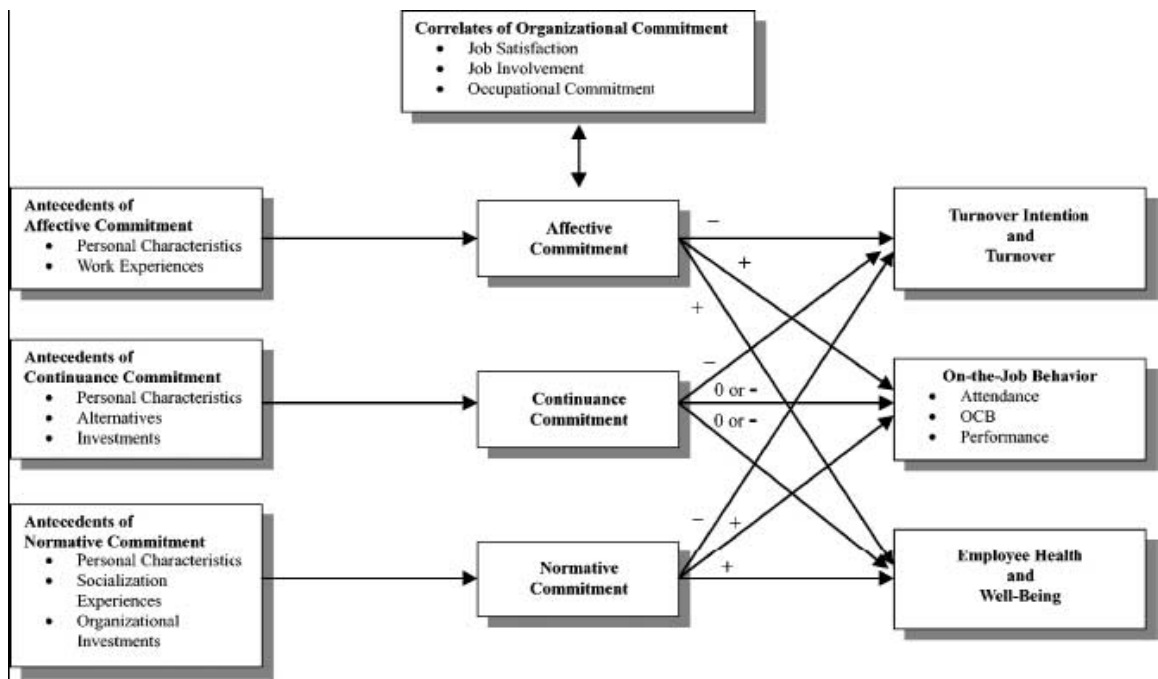


Figure 1. A Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment Source: Meyer, Stanley, Hercovitch and Topolnysky, 2001

Whereas much of the organizational socialization and organizational commitment research has made assumptions about the benefits of socialization and commitment (i.e., job satisfaction), it becomes as important to investigate how the use of an IT (i.e., social

media technologies) can influence and increase the level of organization commitment experienced by new employees. If the use of a technology integrates organizational socialization tactics and practices, it becomes imperative for organizations to understand what features of the system will lead to acclimation of new hires and committed employees.

The various types and capabilities of social media technologies, such as social networking, discussion forums, blogs, and wikis have made it difficult for organizations to fully understand how to implement these technologies. Although organizations may experience some benefits from social media, it becomes difficult to identify the pieces of the technology that are influencing organizational commitment. For example, when employees use social media to collaborate with fellow coworkers, post a comment on the discussion board, set up a "meet up" event or chat with friends, these actions are all part of socialization. The question that arises is: Which of these actions or access of certain features produce experiences in employees that will motivate them to be more committed and remain within the organization?

Little research on the impact of IT on organizational commitment has been done to investigate the potential for if and how an organization increases their level of benefits from gaining more committed employees. As such, the greater the socialization factor, the greater the level of commitment that may arise within the early months of a new employee entering the organization. Previous research has demonstrated that socialization practices influences organizational commitment (Louis et al 1983). It is suggested that over time, organizational socialization may become less impacting on acclimated employees (Ashforth and Saks, 1996). Because relationships between social

media, socialization and commitment are not fully understood, our research question is: How can organizations use social media technologies as a means for socialization of new hires while simultaneously achieving organizational commitment? To answer this question, we conduct a study of a large financial institution that attributes increased levels of commitment to the implementation of social media.

3.2.1 Organizational Commitment in Information Systems Research

Employees' commitment to the organization can take many forms, thus the antecedents and consequences of each can be different (Meyer and Allen 1997). In this paper we use the term commitment to mean organizational commitment, but it is important to note that organizational commitment differs from professional commitment. Professional commitment refers to a person's commitment to his or her particular profession. IT professionals usually identify themselves with their profession, just the same as medical doctors, nurses, or astronauts identify with their line of work as well and are dedicated to their job in their particular expertise (Rashid and Zhao 2010). These individuals' commitment to the profession is not necessarily an indicator of their organizational commitment. For example, IT professionals who enjoy their profession and desire continual challenges in order to improve their skills and abilities, will job hop to other organizations without leaving their profession if their current employer fails to provide such a working environment (Pare and Tremblay, 2000); thus demonstrating a professional commitment but not an organizational commitment. If an organization continuously loses IT professionals to other organizations that meet their wants, the organization will experience high turnover rates.

Due to turnover concerns, organizations look for ways to increase the retention of new employees. In addition to satisfying employees' professional commitment needs, organizations are having new challenges in meeting the needs of the younger IT workforce who have been pampered, nurtured and programmed with a number of activities, meaning they are both high-maintenance and high-performers (Armour, 2005). When organizations fail to meet those demands, they are more likely to face higher turnover rates. Because of such risks and high turnover rates among new hires, organizations seek to find ways to attract and retain new employees (Farber, 1994; Griffeth and Hom, 2001); therefore, they strive to develop strategies that will increase organizational commitment.

The organizational commitment literature indicates a number of factors that determine the commitment of IT professionals such as career opportunities, work life policies, and job characteristics (Bashir, Ramay, and Jinnah 2008). One study found that IT professionals are more likely to remain in the organization where the work is challenging and stimulating, career advancement opportunities exist, and compensation is perceived to be reasonable (Pare and Tremblay, 2000). In addition, IS research on organizational commitment has investigated generational differences (Davis, Pawlowski, and Houston 2006), career/professional commitment (Rashid and Zhao 2010), and affective commitment (Bagraim 2010).

Findings from prior research demonstrated relationships between commitment and a number of outcomes inclusive of: turnover, turnover intentions, job performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, and tardiness (Blau 1986; Cohen 1993). Commitment has been found to decrease turnover, increase performance and decrease absenteeism.

Procedural justice, organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors have also been studied as mediators between HR practices and turnover intentions (Pare and Tremblay 2000). These studies have demonstrated that organizations can benefit from increasing employees' commitment. Organizations that understand the impact of social media on new hires will be able to implement strategies that will enable employee socialization and commitment. Although socialization is accepted as an antecedent to organizational commitment, the role of technology use to increase the level of commitment has not been clearly established.

3.3 Summary

This dissertation is relying on two theoretical lenses: organizational socialization and commitment. There are four indicators of socialization and three types of commitment. Although organizational socialization has been proven to result in organizational commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991), there is an existing gap in the literature that indicates a need for better understanding the role of an IT on achieving employee socialization and a need for identifying factors that produce a direct impact on commitment. This area of research is fairly new in terms of investigating social media use to achieve such outcomes. IS research has studied either the IT profession itself to better understand the needs or characteristics of an IT professional or the use of an external social media tool for organizational purposes, but IS research has not addressed how an internal social media tool may be used by an IT worker to achieve organizational benefits that reach beyond work tasks. In other words, IS research has failed to investigate the impact that an IT has on the IT profession itself. As such, this

dissertation will examine the use of an internal social media tool by IT professionals and its impact on socialization and commitment.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Model and Hypotheses

To understand the impact of internal social media use on socialization effectiveness and commitment, we draw upon the theoretical foundation discussion above of organizational socialization and commitment (depicted in Figure 2). The model comprises the two types of social media use – work related and social related -- four types of socialization effectiveness – role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture, social acceptance -- and three types of commitment – normative, continuance, and affective.

While socialization researchers have studied indicators of socialization in a variety of ways, researchers have frequently used four types of socialization effectiveness: role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture, and social acceptance (Bauer, et al 2007; Bauer and Erdogan 2011, Kammeryer-Mueller and Wanberg 2003). Organizations that supply the means for employees to gain an understanding of their job tasks to perform (role clarity), to gain confidence in their role (self-efficacy), to gain an understanding of the organization's culture (knowledge of organizational culture), and to feel accepted by their peers (social acceptance) will benefit by having employees that are more adjusted to their new surroundings (Bauer, et al 2007; Bauer and Erdogan 2011). Organizations desire to transform new employees from organizational outsiders to becoming part of the organization's family (Bauer et al., 2007). Not only are organizations interested in socializing new employees, so too are

organizations interested in gaining employee's loyalty and commitment and in reducing employee turnover (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

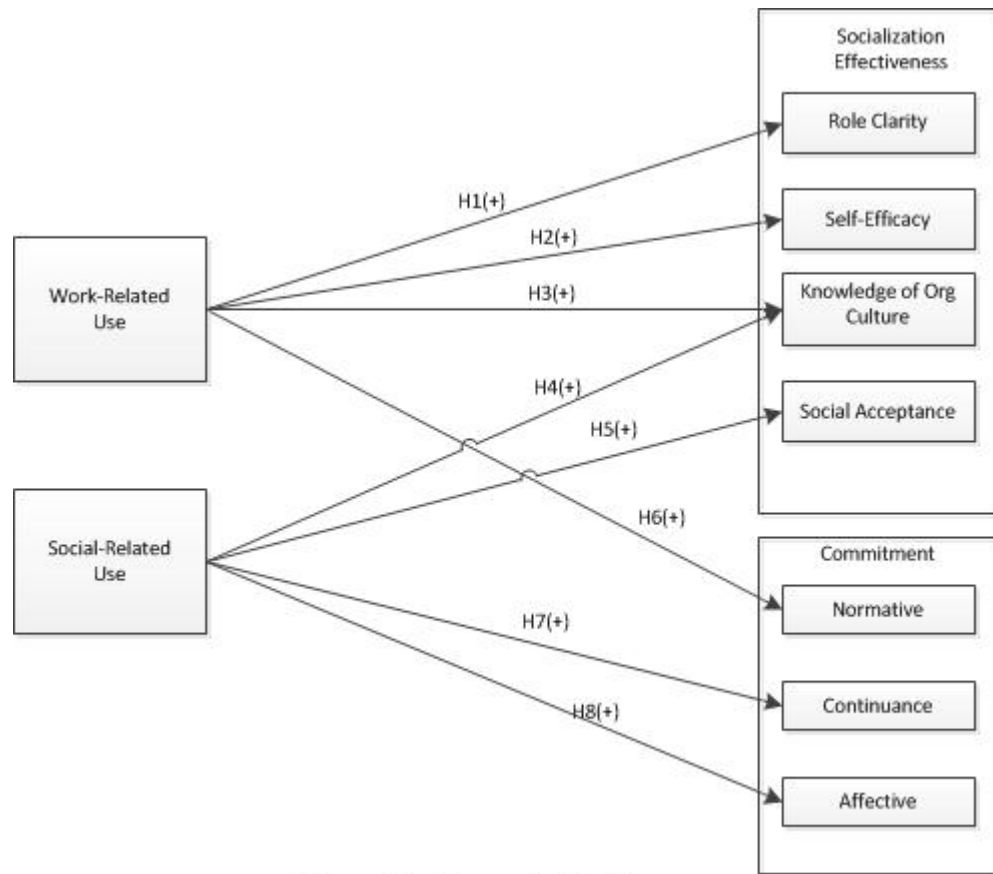


Figure 2. Research Model

Socialization is arguably important to increasing organizational commitment (Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Jones 1986; Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Baker 1992). Given the importance of socialization, perhaps one should consider the role that technology plays in the socialization process. With the advances in technology, organizations have access to tools (i.e., social media) that when used properly can assist organizations achieve positive organizational benefits (Andriole, 2010). Social media tools have a variety of capabilities (i.e., building relationships, collaborating, open communication, information sharing,

building a knowledge repository) therefore it is the type of social media use that may directly lead to different types of commitment without necessarily acclimating the employee first. For example, a new hire that uses the internal social media to make connections with other employees may not gain a sense of social acceptance prior to experiencing a level of continuance and affective commitment. In other words, socialization effectiveness and commitment may be gained simultaneously. Because both types of use (work versus social) may have different levels of impact on socialization effectiveness and commitment, organizations may ultimately experience positive organizational commitment outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, employee engagement, and reduced turnover) directly from internal social media use. Our hypotheses will therefore consider the relationship of internal social media use with socialization effectiveness and commitment.

4.1 The Impact of Internal Social Media Use on Socialization

One of the most critical phases of organizational life is the period of early entry (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). During this time, new hires tend to determine what the organization is like and decide whether or not they “fit in” (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). If an employee decides to leave the organization within a short period of time, this becomes particularly problematic for organizations because significant investments have been made (i.e., recruitment, selection, and training of new hire), with little opportunity for the organization to recoup a return on those investments (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). It is imperative for organizations to recognize that new hires entering the organization may experience reality surprises (Louis, 1980) when their assumptions about organizational behavior do not conform to those that

prevail in their new working environment (Jones, 1986). If new hires wish to reduce uncertainty or anxiety during the entry process, they may be forced to reevaluate their assumptions and seek information about organizational norms (Jones, 1983b; Van Maanen, 1977). The use of socialization tactics by organizations can highly influence the learning process of new hires because these tactics shape the information that new employees receive (Jones, 1986). For example, new hires in one organization may be required to attend new hire orientation seminars for a week, while another organization may simply provide a copy of the employee handbook and expect the new hire to read about the organizational policies and procedures on their own time. This same principle applies in terms of job role expectations, some organizations may provide a tailored seminar to explain the new hire's role and responsibilities, while other organizations may simply provide a copy of the job description and view it as a "learn as you go" process. As much as new hires may have a need to become oriented about their job role and responsibilities (Lyons, 1971), organizations need to understand the importance of facilitating the transition of new hires from being an external member to being part of the corporate family (Bauer et al., 2007).

Inadequate socialization is one of the primary potential drivers of withdrawal among new hires (Feldman, 1988; Fisher, 1986). Much research suggests that socialization tactics should be related to turnover (Allen, 2006) by influencing turnover antecedents such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (e.g., Ashforth and Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 1998; Saks and Ashforth, 1997). Although socialization processes have been found to positively impact new hire commitment (Buchanan, 1974), few studies address the question of how socialization tactics impact a new hire's

adjustment to the organization (Jones, 1986). In addition to socialization tactics, organizations develop socialization practices in order to socialize new employees (Louis et al., 1983). Socialization practices help define the activities that will be provided to new hires by addressing the question: What particular action will orient and socialize a new hire into the organization? For instance, how will new hires seeking detailed information about their job (i.e., job descriptions) access such information or how will new hires gain an understanding about how their role is tied to the rest of the organization. Because new hires tend to have a period of ambiguity, they seek clarity in many forms, but it may not always be simple enough to find. Most organizations are aware of the need to welcome in a new hire, but organizations vary on how they meet such needs.

Organizations have approached new hire socialization through a variety of practices such as buddy systems, mentoring programs, and formal new hire orientations (Louis et al., 1983; Koch et al., 2012). One of the new trends being integrated into business processes is the implementation of social media technologies (Rozwell, 2011; Akkirman and Harris, 2008; Denyer, Parry and Flowers, 2011; Koch et al., 2011; Leidner et al., 2010). Social media technologies have the potential to address the four areas of socialization effectiveness - role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge organizational culture, and social acceptance - that demonstrate whether or not a new hire has adapted well into an organization.

First, role clarity is an area of concern for new hires wishing to better understand how to be successful in their new job. Role clarity can refer to the presence of adequate role-relevant information as well as to the feeling of having as much role-relevant

information as the individual would like to have (Lyons, 1971). Both measures of role clarity have been found to reduce anxiety and increase job satisfaction (Lyons, 1971). Without role clarity, an employee may not be fully productive and effective (Abhischek, 2011). Second, self-efficacy refers to an individual's believe in his or her ability to succeed in specific situations (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy is comprised of a person's attitudes, abilities, and cognitive skills (Bandura, 1977) that it plays a major role in how one approaches goals, tasks, and challenges (Luszczynska and Schwarzer, 2005). Self-efficacy impacts how individuals perceive and respond to different situations because of their sense of belief about their capabilities or competence (Bandura, 1994).

New hires can potentially use social media for work related purposes that enhance the socialization process. When social media is used to tap into organizational resources that lay out not only job descriptions, but also assist with providing additional information that clarifies the operational requirements and challenges of the new role and responsibilities, role clarity and self-efficacy may be achieved. One advantage of social media is that interactive online communication via discussion boards or wikis can be used to access role-relevant information about the job or inquire about specific requirements of the new role and job tasks. Another advantage of social media is that it allows for video uploads; therefore, training demos can easily be streamed at the employee's workstation conveniently at any time. Training involves the education and the acquisition of skills that help an individual perform his or her job (Taormina, 1994), thus allowing new hires to reach a level of role clarity and self-efficacy. Training also refers to the opportunities provided by the employer to ensure that new employees obtain the skills or abilities necessary to perform their new role in the organization (Taormina

and Bauer 2000) as well as increase their level of confidence. These types of opportunities along with the flexibility to seek out information from others using the social media application may decrease the amount of time that new employees will take in “learning the ropes.” When an employee has clarity about their role in the organization, it leaves little room for ineffectiveness (Wanous 1980). Social media technologies can facilitate the manner in which new hires learn about their particular job tasks and job role by making work related connections with others. While individual work roles describe an individual’s need to learn how to perform specific job tasks (Chao et al. 1994), learning about the processes of a particular job (i.e., how to deal with an aggressive customer) is often learned through advice from others in the organization or on-the-job learning (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992). Social media facilitates learning by enabling new hires to reach out to senior co-workers with expertise or blog about an issue (Koch et al., 2011). Because of the flexibility of social media, new hires no longer have to leave their office work area to acquire work related information. Therefore we hypothesize,

H1: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to role clarity.

H2: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to self-efficacy.

Beyond understanding what is expected from them, new hires coming into an organization seek ways to adjust to their new environment (Taormina 1994). New hires desire to acquire an accurate knowledge of organizational goals and values. The learning of organizational goals and values also extends to informal, unwritten, tacit goals and values espoused by organizational insiders (Fisher, 1986). This becomes important for

new hires who are not only attempting to understand and identify how they “fit in” to the organization, but wanting to know how their role relates to the organizational goals and values as well (Chao et al., 1994). Even though job characteristics may be formally defined by the rules of an organization, how each job is performed is based on norms specific to the organization (Aguilera et al., 2006). Given that employees need to understand what constitutes acceptable behavior within the organization (Schein, 1968; Chatman 1991), an important aspect of socialization is to educate new employees to the organization’s policies, procedures, and norms (Wanous 1980).

Organizations have a set of values that defines the organizational culture (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). Within the context of organizational culture, organizational values may be particularly useful in defining the appropriate behaviors with respect to the members of the organization (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). Therefore, it is imperative to note that employees who are given information about the organizational values, beliefs, and norms are less likely to feel uncertain about whether or not their actions fit within the organization culture. Organizational culture is critical in determining how employees interact with each other as well as how they interact with any tools (i.e. new technologies) provided by the organization (Leidner and Kayworth, 2006). Studies have proved positive influence of new hires information acquisition on effective socialization (e.g. Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992; Bauer, et al., 2007; Saks and Ashforth, 1997).

Organizational leaders who manage new hires may be seen as important sources of information (e.g., Miller and Jablin, 1991; Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992). Management desires to provide this information in an effective and efficient manner. An advantage that may be gained by organizations using social media is that social media facilitates

open communication and discussions (DiMicco et al, 2008). Therefore it provides the means to disseminate critical information to new employees about organizational culture in a fast and convenient way. As new hires make use of social media tools, they may potentially gain the knowledge of organizational culture through the retrieval of information and learning about organizational policies, procedures and norms. It is not unusual for organizations to develop strategies (i.e., new hire orientation sessions) that will enhance a new employee's ability to quickly and easily enter the organization without experiencing much uncertainty.

Socialization practices can encourage new employees to better understand and adjust to their new role (Ruth and Sethi 1998), while socialization tactics help new hires reduce feelings of uncertainty and acquire desired attitudes, behaviors, and knowledge (Bauer, Morrison, and Callister, 1998; Jones 1986; Van Maanen and Schien, 1979). Socialization may be viewed in terms of role adjustment and it involves the process of learning about the expectations of an organization, which then determines commitment, productivity, loyalty, and turnover (Ruth and Sethi 1998; Arnold 1986). It is common that managers of new hires proactively seek to provide critical information and guidance to new hires (e.g., Ashford and Black, 1996; Louis et al., 1983; Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992; Reichers, 1987). Also, managers of new hires have been seen as role models for new hires (Holton and Russell, 1997) and as mentors (Green and Bauer, 1995). When management encourages the use of social media for daily work tasks or actively upload documents to be accessed via social media tools, new hires are more likely to view this behavior as acceptable and as part of the organizational norm. New hires seeking

information via social media can learn about the organizational culture, thus we hypothesize

H3: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to knowledge of organizational culture.

Furthermore, social media tools enable virtual interactions among employees (Cunha and Orlikowski, 2008; DiMicco et al, 2008; Majchrzak et al., 2009), enable users to share information (Denyer, Parry, and Flowers, 2011) and can revolutionize business practices (e.g. McAfee 2006; Wagner and Majchrzak, 2006). New hires form social relationships and engage in online interactions that provide them opportunities to gain an understanding of organizational characteristics and norms. In addition, social media offers new hires a way to tap into different social networks that provide different resources (DiMicco et al, 2008). Many times new hires establish relationships with other employees outside of their immediate circle of friends because of the transparency and boundary breaking characteristics of social media. Through this process, friendships are formed and maintained via social media social interactions. For example, a new hire may have “friended” someone they met during new hire orientation from a different department who they can contact for either help with a project that involves a level of expertise that the other new hire may have or simply contact him or her for a meet up lunch to catch up on their latest activities on a personal level. Moreover, interaction with more senior employees is the principal means by which new hires learn about organizational culture (Schein, 1971b). These types of activities are more likely to constitute a level of social related use of social media. Therefore we hypothesize,

H4: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to knowledge of organizational culture.

The introductions of modern technologies (e.g., laptops, mobile devices, and Internet access) have made it difficult for individuals to completely separate themselves from work even while on a family outing or social event (Lindgren et al 2008; Tarafdar et al. 2007). Organizational social media implementations are designed to integrate social and work life (Koch et al, 2012; DiMicco et al., 2008). By encouraging socializing activities through the use of social media, organizations create a working environment that is accepting of online chatting or blogging during regular working hours. For instance, social media tools are most commonly used for “friending” friends and family, discussing personal likes and dislikes about a particular topic, updating personal profile statuses, blogging about any topic of interest, or uploading personal videos or images (Kaplan and Haenlien, 2010). When new hires entering an organization are given access to an internal social media, it is probable that they will perceive it for personal use (Collins, 2010), as is their customary practice on a daily basis. The ability to create and maintain relationships with friends and family via social media allows for individuals to feel connected (boyd and Ellison, 2008). Employees will tend to initially begin to connect with other employees with similar interests in order to create an internal social network of friends.

The formation of relationships or connections among employees may reduce the boundaries between social and work roles (Koch et al., 2012). Friendships begin to emerge out of day-to-day interactions on a personal level (DiMicco et al., 2008; Koch et al., 2012; Majchrzak et al., 2009). Developing relationships (i.e., an internal social network) may help facilitate new hires to better understand the dynamics among different work groups (Chao et al., 1994). Learning about work groups is one way an employee

familiarizes himself or herself with informal and formal working relationships (Chao et al 1994). Over time, new employees are likely to identify those co-workers that they can turn to in times of task uncertainty and those co-workers that they can form friendships with (Aguilera et al., 2006). The forming of such relationships will allow new hires to not only have friends at work they can socialize with (Leidner et al. 2010), but also to develop a sense of acceptance by others whom they eventually collaborate with on projects as well (DiMicco et al., 2008). Because social media can play an integral part in developing connections among employees, this implies that

H5: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to social acceptance.

4.2 The Impact of Internal Social Media Use on Commitment

Organizations may choose to ease the transition of new hires by providing formal strategies of socialization practices (Jones, 1986) in order to achieve greater employee commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). According to McLean et al. (1991), the first few months of employment are critical in the development of commitment; it is the time that new hires attempt to verify how well the job meets his or her expectations. A previous study concluded that MIS graduates entering a new job have particular expectations (i.e., challenging tasks, promotional opportunities) and when organizations meet these expectations, employee loyalty increases (McLean, Smits, and Tanner 1991). Thus, it is in the best interest for an organization to not only meet new hires' expectations (McLean et al., 1991), but also decrease the levels of uncertainty by minimizing factors such as role conflict or role ambiguity in order to eliminate experiencing negative impacts on new hires' performance and retention (King and Sethi, 1998). It has been found that the

power of commitment once created in an employee is persistent over time (Baraim, 2010).

The most prevalent approach to organizational commitment is one that is built upon an affective or emotional attachment to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment is such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990). According to Sheldon (1971), commitment is related to the social involvement with colleagues. Employees who have a sense of community and who develop relationships with coworkers are more likely to feel an emotional attachment. For example, employees who describe their co-workers as friends report that they are unable to conceive them as anything less than a close friend or family member (Leidner et al., 2010). The relationships and interactions among employees have been known to determine whether or not organizational identity is achieved (Lee, 1971). It has been suggested that adjustment of new hires arises primarily through interpersonal communications between new hires and other employees of the organization (Moreland and Levine, 2001; Reicher, 1987). Employees normally want to remain in organizations that provide them with positive work experiences because they expect these positive experiences to continue and place value on them (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Employees who enjoy working at an organization continue to put forth efforts (i.e., log into discussion boards or challenge a co-worker to a tennis match) to remain connected with others and to participate in social events, which reinforce positive emotional outcomes that lead to building personal resources (i.e., Leidner et al., 2010). For example, employees who have friends within the organization will usually seek them out for support during difficult times (Leidner et

al., 2010). These types of relationships help new hires establish a sense of belonging. New hires not only establish new friendships, but they will also experience a level of adjustment to the organization. New hire adjustment includes knowledge, confidence, motivation for performing a work role, and commitment to the organization and its goals (Ashford and Taylor, 1990; Hulin, 1991; Nicholson, 1984). Commitment is described as the strength between an individual's sense of organizational identification and his or her involvement with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). As such,

H6: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to affective commitment.

Continuance commitment reflects the perceived costs that may be associated with leaving the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). According to Becker (1960), commitment is viewed as a continual engagement in activities that a discontinuation of such activities would result in a loss of an investment (i.e., time spent on training) or cost (i.e., relocation). Similarly, Kanter (1968) described continuance commitment as that which occurs when there is a profit associated with remaining at the organization and a cost associated with leaving. This type of commitment only develops when the potential costs of leaving are recognized (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Perceived costs can take many forms inclusive of work and non-work related significance (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Perceived costs may include: losing the time and effort spent on training to acquire non-transferable skills, losing benefits, giving up rank associated privileges, or having to relocate and leave close family and friends behind (Meyer and Allen, 1991). If organizations provide a culture that embraces social media and relaxes the working environment in such a way that it develops a sense of work-life balance, employees are more likely to identify a perceived cost involved in an external job switch. In terms of

positive experiences, employees using a social media tool have been known to build relationships, to become more engaged, to develop a sense of community, and to be more productive (DiMicco et al., 2008; Leidner et al., 2010; Majchrzak et al., 2009; Smith, 2011; Koch et al., 2012). Because of these potential benefits, employees may perceive that the threat of losing out on such experiences is worth more than a potentially higher salary elsewhere. Organizations are embracing social media to connect employees and increase their commitment (Mullaney, 2012). Therefore we hypothesize,

H7: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to continuance commitment.

Moreover, employees may experience a feeling of obligation to stay with an organization because of pressures exerted on them prior to or after entry into the organization (Wiener, 1982). This can be referred to as normative commitment. Normative commitment may develop when an organization provides an employee with advanced rewards or incurs significant costs in providing employment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Because the concept of new hire adjustment is at the heart of organizational entry, which includes knowledge, confidence, and motivation for performing a work role, and commitment to the organization and its goals (Ashford and Taylor, 1990; Hulin, 1991, Nicholson, 1984), many new hires may experience feeling a level of obligation when an organization is perceived as having made an investment in time and effort in any of these areas. For example, sending an employee to training or providing a new hire with a company vehicle is considered an investment in time and effort by the organization to accommodate the new employee. If an employee feels that there is an imbalance in the relationship between the employee and the organization because of the investments made by the organization, the employee may feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing

himself or herself to the organization until the debt is paid (Scholl, 1981). Although the organization may not be explicitly stating their expectations for that employee to remain in the organization, the new hire is likely to develop a sense of obligation through the organization's actions (Meyer and Allen, 1991) of providing certain socialization opportunities that make a new hire feel that the organization is making an investment in him or her. When an employee feels that the organization has gone beyond the norm to provide a working environment that embraces the employee, helps him or her along the way to better understand his or her role, gain confidence, and invests in his or her well-being, the new hire is more likely to reconsider leaving the organization because a sense of loyalty has been developed. For the most part, new hires do not want to leave a bad impression and leave within a short period of time because they know that some investment has been made, but when an organization fails to give new employees guidance and instructions in order to acclimate them to the organization and their new role as part of the socialization process (e.g., Louis 1980; Saks and Ashforth 1997), those new employees may not necessarily feel an obligation to remain because they have not been made to feel as if they are important to the organization.

As the demand from new hires increases (Armour, 2005; Hickey, 2011; Grant, 2011), organizations are listening more to those needs in order to make new hires aware that they are considered important, but in turn organizations expect for new hires to be committed to the organization. Social media implementation initiatives serve as a recruitment mechanism of new hires by giving them access to technologies that are most likely part of their daily activities and providing them with the flexibility of social media use during the work day (Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2011). Social media is a

selling point for organizations trying to gain the expertise of new hires. New hires will be able to use social media to contribute, participate and engage for organizational purposes (Bradley, 2011). The act of social media implementation may be perceived as an organization's outreach that is beyond the norm. New hires using the social media tool to gain the knowledge they need to accomplish their work tasks or to seek information about the organization are benefiting from an investment made for them. By continual social media use for purposes of achieving job related outcomes, new hires may learn to value this investment and determine that their commitment to the organization is a sense of loyalty and obligation. As such, it can be hypothesized that

H8: The extent of internal social media system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to normative commitment.

4.3 Summary

Employees who engage and develop a strong association with their organizations are more likely to experience affective, continuance or normative commitment. The organization may offer opportunities for employees to socialize and assume organizational identity, but a new employee may choose whether or not to engage in such activities. Commitment is the involvement in work activities (Morris and Sherman 1981) and social media use can increase the ability of new hires to be involved within the organization. Organizations that have a committed workforce will gain a competitive advantage, experience lower turnover, gain higher productivity, and experience financial success (Rashid and Zhao 2010; Arthur 1994; Macduffie 1995). Although commitment has been found to be an outcome of socialization (Meyer and Allen, 1991), little is known of the direct impact of socialization tactics or practices on commitment. The use of

technology may be integrated into the process of socialization. Progress in technologies has been a catalyst for a transformation in our daily lives, work, and relationships (Reich 2000). Implementing internal social media tools provide organizations with a technology that new hires are accustomed to using daily that make new hire transition into the organization appear seamless. When social media tools are implemented to enhance the socialization experience of new hires, it is more likely that organizations will benefit from having committed employees. It can be assumed that various practices of socialization can result in socializing a new employee, but the greater availability of such opportunities to socialize, the more likely that a new employee will gain a sense of commitment to the organization.

CHAPTER FIVE

Methodology

In order to test the hypotheses presented in the research model in chapter 4, social media users in a military financial services organization were surveyed. The purpose of survey research is to gather descriptive assertions about the participants, to make an explanatory assertion about the participants, and to explore a particular topic that is not fully understood (Babbie, 1973). Surveys are often considered to be less expensive, easier, and quicker to gain information (Alreck and Settle, 1995). This chapter presents the methodology for this dissertation.

5.1 Company Background, New Hire Program and the Social Media Tool

The military financial services organization is one of the largest providers of financial planning, investments, insurance, and banking. The organization's mission is to serve and facilitate the financial security of its U.S. military members, associates and their families. As of June 2012, the organization had been in existence for ninety years and had over 23,000 employees, revenue of 21.3 billion and assets worth 104 billion.

The organization's IT department includes more than 2,500 employees. Unfortunately, the IT department was suffering from a high turnover rate of 60-70%. The IT new hires were exiting the organization within their second year of employment. IT management viewed this as a major issue and felt that the cause of the problem was the existing disjointed and unorganized new hire program. Management viewed the new

hires as poorly trained. And new hires would lose connections with others soon after the new hire orientation sessions were over.

In 2007, an IT director began to restructure the new hire program. Then, in 2008, an internal social media tool was implemented. The internal social media is a Web 2.0 technology that is described as the organization's internal "Facebook". The social media consists of social networking, discussion forums, microblogs and profile pages. The organization relaxed its Internet use policies in order to encourage social media use. The new policies allowed employees to use both external and internal social media applications.

With executive oversight, IT new hires with less than 3 years of employment develop and maintain the content of the social media tool on a voluntary basis. Initially, the internal social media tool was used to connect new hires with the organization and others prior to their first day of work. In addition, the social media tool has been used by new hires to set up meet up events or to engage in informal communications. IT new hires describe the system as one that helps them build relationships and provides them with a sense of belonging.

5.2 Research Design, Level of Analysis, Company Selection

A survey was developed and placed online in February 2012. Data was collected during a two-week period. The survey, included in the Appendix, was sent out via email with the survey link to approximately 450 IT employees. A total of 198 valid responses (44.0% response rate) resulted from the data collection. Participants were primarily IT new hires. Because the social media tool had been implemented to target IT new hires as part of the organization's new hire program, these employees were the most appropriate

people to answer the survey. The survey took an average of 10-20 minutes to complete. Because surveys are one of the most common types of quantitative research (writing@csu.ed, 1993-2012), this quantitative approach was used as the means to explore the impact of social media use on socialization and commitment.

Quantitative research refers to the systematic empirical investigation of social phenomena in which statistical, mathematical or computational techniques are applied (Given, 2008). Being that SMS research has mostly consisted of qualitative case study research (i.e., DiMicco et al, 2008; Jackson et al., 2007; Majchrak et al, 2009; Leidner et al, 2010; Koch et al., 2011; Koch et al., 2012; Majchrak et al, 2006; Murali, 2006; Richter and Riemer, 2009; Denyer et al, 2011; Akkirman and Harris, 2008; Stocker and Tochtermann; and Wagner and Majchrzak, 2006-2007), this dissertation applies a quantitative approach in order to provide statistical support for internal SMS research and enhance the understanding of organizational benefits gained by social media use.

This dissertation is conducted at the individual level of analysis. Hence, the survey measures the IT employees' perceptions of the variables. The social media system was implemented solely to target the new hire population of the IT department; therefore this is not considered an enterprise-wide system. The system is managed and maintained voluntarily by the new hires and they develop the content as well. The social media tool is not restricted on type of use: employees can use it for work-related purposes or social-related purposes. Because the type of social media use is flexible, it is important to better understand how each type of use impacts the organization.

The organization was chosen based on a working relationship with a faculty member who had attended a presentation in 2008 about the organization's internal social

media system. Because this represented a novel idea, which few organizations had implemented internal social media, it seemed appropriate to pursue an investigation of what the organization described as having a positive impact on its IT new hire program.

Because the survey was to be filled out by individuals, the dissertation proposal was submitted to the Internal Review Board (IRB) for approval. The IRB reviewed and approved the dissertation study. All of the information gathered from the surveys is confidential and participation was voluntary by employees. Employees were informed that the information collected via the survey would be confidential and their names and identity would remain anonymous. The organization's identity will remain anonymous as well. The organization was given a copy of the IRB assurance agreement as well as the participant's consent form.

It is through this dissertation that the investigation can provide some insight about the direct impact the internal social media has on new hires. The data collected from the survey will assist in better understanding which aspects of the social media use are contributing the most to new hire socialization and commitment. In addition, the survey will provide an analysis that distinguishes between heavy users, medium users, and infrequent/low users of the social media system. Such information may be useful for organizations in that it may offer insights into the direct organizational benefits afforded by the system.

5.3 The Survey

In order to collect data on the variables depicted in the research model (see Figure 2) in chapter 4, a survey was developed. The survey collected information about the social media use, whether it is work-related or social-related, and the impact of the social

media use on socialization and commitment. The survey was reviewed by two former interns who had been at the organization and who used the social media tool in order to ensure that the wording of the directions and questions of the survey were clear and understandable. In addition, the organization being studied required several iterations of the survey to be tested internally to meet the expectations and requirements of several governing committees (i.e. survey governance committee, human resource committee, and communications committee). This process ensured that the survey's intent, wording, and readability would not be misinterpreted in such a way that would jeopardize the employee's well-being and the organization's reputation. The initial request to conduct the survey was sought in May 2011, approval was granted in July 2011, survey was ready for distribution in November 2011, and final approval of survey was granted in January 2012. Such a process helps reduce bias in response from misinterpretation and, as noted by Straub (1989), helps to establish content validity.

5.4 Measures

The majority of the measures for this study were adapted directly from extant literature, except for two variables (i.e. work-related use and social-related use) that were developed because prior validated measures were not available, but were part of case study results. The organization being investigated limited the number of questions. For most of the variables, a minimum of four items comprised the construct. All constructs were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. Although there were other variables (i.e., frequency of use, IT satisfaction, and job satisfaction) in the survey, these will not be used in the analysis of this dissertation. The following addresses the variables included in this dissertation.

5.4.1 Organizational Socialization

Four dimensions of socialization effectiveness are represented in our current research model: role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture, and social acceptance.

Role clarity refers to having sufficient information about the responsibilities of one's job. A measure developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) was used to measure role clarity. The four items, preceded by the corresponding question number and statement were:

4. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your position:
 - a. I feel certain about how much authority I have in my position.
 - b. I know what my responsibilities are.
 - c. I know exactly what is expected of me.
 - d. I feel that I have sufficient time to perform.

Self-efficacy refers to the opportunities given by the employer to new employees to obtain the skills necessary for the new employee's job role. Items measuring self-efficacy were adapted from an instrument used by Hsieh, Rai, and Keil (2011). The three items measuring self-efficacy were:

5. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:
 - a. I feel comfortable in my position.
 - b. I can easily perform job tasks on my own.
 - c. I feel comfortable in my position even if there is no one around me to tell me how to perform a task.

Knowledge of organizational culture refers to an employee's comprehension of the organizational goals and values, the employee's job role, and the organizational culture. Taormina's (2004) organizational socialization inventory (OSI) instrument was used to measure knowledge of organizational culture. The five items used to measure knowledge of organizational culture were:

6. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire:
 - a. I know very well how to get things done in this organization.
 - b. I have a full understanding of my duties in this organization.
 - c. The goals of this organization have been made very explicit.
 - d. I have a good knowledge of the way this organization operates.
 - e. This organization's objectives are understood by almost everyone who works here.

Social acceptance refers to a new hire's acceptance and assistance by other employees. Social acceptance was measured with a subcategory of Taormina's (2004) OSI labeled co-worker support. The five items measuring social acceptance include:

7. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire:
 - a. Other workers have helped me on the job in various ways.
 - b. My co-workers are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice.
 - c. Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of this company.
 - d. My co-workers have done a great deal to help me adjust to this organization.
 - e. My relationships with other workers in this company are very good.

5.4.2 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to the feelings concerning an employee's relationship with an organization. Organizational commitment was measured with a version of Mowday, Steer, and Porter's (1979) organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ). Meyer and Allen (1990) incorporated this questionnaire when identifying three components of commitment (i.e., affective, continuance, and normative). The statements in the survey measuring the 12 items for organization commitment were:

8. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire:

Affective Commitment:

- a. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- b. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- c. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
- d. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)

Continuance Commitment:

- e. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R)
- f. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
- g. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
- h. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.

Normative Commitment:

- i. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
- j. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R)

- k. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.
- l. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.

An “R” denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.

5.4.3 Social Media Use

The use of social media is the type of use identified by the participant whether it be for work-related purposes (i.e., posting an update on a project) or for social-related purposes (i.e., setting up a social event). Because no previous items measuring social media use exist, the measures for the use of social media were developed for this study by referring to findings in case study research (i.e., Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2011; Majchrzak et al., 2009; DiMicco et al., 2008). The social media use measures respondents’ purpose of use (i.e., work related versus social related purposes). These 13 items were:

10. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning the SNS:

Work-Related Purposes:

- a. I use social media to post updates on work projects.
- b. I use social media to set up meetings with colleagues about work projects.
- c. I use social media to share information about organizational objectives with colleagues.
- d. I use social media to share information about organizational policies and procedures.
- e. I use social media to organize my working files.
- f. I use social media to upload credible information for future use.
- g. I use social media to share my expertise in a particular area.

h. I use social media to gain access to others with expertise in a particular area.

Social-Related Purposes:

- i. I use social media for setting up a social event with co-workers after working hours.
- j. I use social media to make friends within the organization.
- k. I use social media when I feel I need a break from work.
- l. I use social media to chat with others while at work.
- m. I use social media to find people with similar interests.

Each subscale of the socialization and organizational commitment questions used a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Each subscale of the social media use questions used a 5-point Likert-type response scale ranging from 1 (no extent) to 5 (very great extent). Participants answered each question by clicking the appropriate number on the scale. The items within each variable will be averaged together for the composite score calculation. The following chapter will discuss the results of the data analysis.

CHAPTER SIX

Data Analysis and Results

This chapter presents the results of the study. After surveys were completed, various quantitative analyses of the data were conducted. The survey responses were exported from the Qualtrics website into a spreadsheet file and SPSS format, then converted to .csv file format.

6.1 Data Cleansing

Data cleansing is necessary in order to ensure that the data is evaluated for identification of missing data, identification of outliers, and tested for the assumptions underlying most univariate and multivariate techniques: normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of errors (Hair et al. 2006).

The data was first reviewed using SPSS 18.0. Variable names were relabeled to reflect an abbreviation of the construct being measured. The beginning date of employment variable and the beginning date of the social media use variable were recoded from a text data type to a numeric data type reflecting the total of months for each variable.

According to Hair et al. (2006), cases with a minimum of 15% or more missing data are candidates for deletion. Following this rule of thumb, nineteen cases had to be removed. There were a few cases that left only one to four items blank. These cases contained less than 10% missing data; therefore any imputation method could be applied as a remedy (Hair et al., 2006). The mean substitution method was used to replace the

missing values. After reviewing the data for missing values, three variables were reverse coded to a new variable.

Following identification of missing values, the data was tested for outliers. A univariate analysis allowed for the calculation of the z -score for each of the variables. Any z -score greater than ± 3.0 may be deleted for sample sizes greater than 80 (Hair et al., 2006). Although the initial response rate was 44.0% (198/450), after the removal of missing data and outliers, 151 observations remained resulting in a response rate of 33.5%. For further analyses, it is important to determine the appropriate descriptive and inferential statistics in order to minimize the incorrect interpretation about the significance of the research (Jamieson, 2004). Statistical techniques differ for ordinal and interval variables (Cohen, 2000; Cleg, 1998). Ordinal data is described as one where the order of the data matters but not the difference between their values, while for interval data the difference between intervals is meaningful (Hair et al, 2006). This dissertation used Likert scales, providing a range of responses from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Likert scales fall within the ordinal data measurement (Pett, 1997; Blaikie, 2003; Hansen, 2003). Methodological and statistical texts point out that the mean and standard deviation are inappropriate measures for ordinal data (Blaikie, 2003; Clegg, 1998). It is suggested that researchers employ the median or mode because the arithmetic operations required in calculating the mean and the standard deviation are not applicable for ordinal data (Blaikie, 2003; Clegg, 1998, Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, a composite of the variable was created using the median. Afterwards, a multivariate analysis was performed to identify any additional outliers in the data by evaluating Mahalanobis distance measures and none existed.

The final step taken in examining the data involves testing the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Hair et al., 2006). The most fundamental assumption is normality because in order to use the F and t statistics, normality is required (Hair et al., 2006). In testing for the normality assumption, the skewness and kurtosis measures provide an understanding of how close the data set is to a normal distribution (Field, 2009). An effective graphical technique for showing the skewness and kurtosis of a data set is the histogram (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2006), but the two numerical measures of skewness and kurtosis give a more precise evaluation (Brown, 2011). While skewness describes the lack of symmetry of data that is clustered at one end of the scale, kurtosis describes how pointy the data distribution is (Field, 2009). Both measures should have the value of 0 and any values above or below 0 indicate a deviation from a normal distribution (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009). Another test, the Shapiro-Wilk test was specifically developed to test for normality (Field, 2009; Shapiro and Wilk, 1965). Thus, the skewness and kurtosis values were calculated, the histograms were created and the Shapiro-Wilk test was performed. The majority of the variables consisted of extreme degrees to which the skewness of the distribution varied from the normal distribution. The visual review of the histograms and the results of the Shapiro-Wilk test confirmed the normality assumption violation ($p < 0.05$). Recalling that the Shapiro-Wilk test tests the null hypothesis that a sample came from a normally distributed population, the null hypothesis must be rejected when the p-value is less than 0.05 (Field, 2009). Therefore the data is significantly non-normal. Linearity is often assessed by examining scatterplots of the variables and by identifying nonlinear patterns in the data (Hair et al., 2006). In examining the data's graphics, nonlinearity of the data

patterns confirms non-normal data. In terms of the homoscedasticity assumption, the results of the Levene's test depicted that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated for most of the variables ($p > 0.05$); see Table 2.

Table 2. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

Variable	F	Sig.
Role Clarity	2.264	0.041
Self-Efficacy	1.685	0.129
Knowledge of Org Culture	1.387	0.224
Social Acceptance	3.812	0.001
Affective Commitment	1.384	0.225
Continuance Commitment	0.849	0.534
Normative Commitment	0.380	0.891
Work-Related Use	0.458	0.838
Social-Related Use	0.351	0.909

To further explain, the homogeneity of variance describes the equal variances across a data set (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009). The Levene test (Levene, 1960) can be used to verify the homogeneity of variance assumption (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009). Also, the Levene test is less sensitive to distribution departures from normality. Although most of the variables did not violate the homogeneity of variance assumption, the results (see Table 2) demonstrate that role clarity and social acceptance violated the assumption ($p < 0.05$). This means that the error variance in role clarity and social acceptance is not equal, which is referred to as heteroscedasticity. These results can be interpreted to mean that as one individual may experience a high level of role clarity, another individual may experience a low level of role clarity across the different levels of

social media use. The same can be said of social acceptance. In other words, the dispersion between the high and the low measures is large and very spread out around the mean (Field, 2009). As for the other variables in this dissertation, the error variances are equal. This means that the group is experiencing similar levels of the socialization and commitment factors that have met the homogeneity of variance assumption ($p > 0.05$).

6.2 Participants

The participants in this study were from a new hire group in an IT department of a military financial institution. Participants included a variety of titles including: 65% software developers, 26% engineers, and 9% other IT. While 71% of the participants have been employed for less than one year to three years, 29% have been employed between four to six years. Table 3 illustrates the breakdown by years of service.

Table 3. Years of Service by No. of Employees

Years of Service	Number of Employees
Less than a year	31
1	43
2	17
3	16
4	16
5	18
6	10
Total	151

New hires using the social media were categorized by number of years they had been using the social media. The breakdown results demonstrate that 21% of the

participants had been using the social media for less than a year, 23% of the participants had been using the social media for more than a year, 51% had been using the social media for more than two years and 6% of the participants noted that they used the system infrequently.

6.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics usually are aimed at providing an understanding about the data (Borg and Gall, 1989). Survey items form data distributions with central tendency measures, which can be demonstrated through descriptive summaries of the data (i.e., mean, median, mode, and standard deviation) (Alreck and Settle, 1995). In order to provide descriptive statistics of the data, the average of the items was calculated for the composite variable. Table 4 presents the mean, standard deviation, median, minimum, and the maximum for each variable.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	St. Deviation	Median	Min	Max
Role Clarity	4.12	0.480	4.00	2.75	5.00
Self-Efficacy	4.12	0.733	4.00	2.00	5.00
Knowledge of Org Culture	4.29	0.441	4.20	3.00	5.00
Social Acceptance	4.70	0.0384	4.80	3.60	5.00
Affective Commitment	4.19	0.649	4.25	2.25	5.00
Continuance Commitment	3.39	0.843	3.50	1.00	5.00
Normative Commitment	3.28	0.697	3.25	1.50	5.00
Work-Related Use	2.05	0.804	2.00	1.00	3.63
Social-Related Use	2.99	1.22	3.20	1.00	5.00

6.4 Statistical Analysis Performed

As previously mentioned in Chapter Five, the items for each construct of the study were adapted from previous research except for the work-related use construct and the social-related use construct, which are formative constructs that were developed from existing qualitative research case studies.

To examine the strength and direction of the relationship between social media use and socialization as well as the relationship between social media use and commitment, a Spearman's correlation analysis was used. Spearman's correlation coefficient was used because the Spearman coefficient is a non-parametric test that does not require numerous assumptions to be met (Field, 2009), which this data violates.

Table 5. Spearman's rho Correlations for Research Model

Variable	Measures	Work Related Use	Social Related Use
Work Related Use	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.605**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
Social Related Use	Correlation Coefficient	.605**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
Role Clarity	Correlation Coefficient	-.123	-.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.121	.078
Self-Efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	-.059	-.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.464	.377
Knowledge of Org Culture	Correlation Coefficient	.074	.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.356	.942
Social Acceptance	Correlation Coefficient	-.175*	-.017
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027	.835
Affective Commitment	Correlation Coefficient	.148	.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.449
Continuance Commitment	Correlation Coefficient	.071	.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.376	.687
Normative Commitment	Correlation Coefficient	.198*	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.012	.315

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

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

The correlation analysis revealed both positive and negative relationships between variables versus the predicted positive only relationships; see Table 5. In addition, there were minimal significance levels identified by the correlation coefficient table. Further analysis was done by testing the research model using a more robust statistical technique.

6.4.1 Model 1 Test

The measurement model was tested in two steps using SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende, and Will, 2005). First, the PLS algorithm was performed. In this process, factor cross loadings, convergent and discriminant validity, and reliability were analyzed. The first test of the measurement model provided poor results. Because a number of items resulted in factor loadings $< .5$, several iterations of the test were performed in order to reach a final structural model. Each low item was removed one at a time until each item loaded higher in its own factor versus on other factors. A total of 13 items from various constructs were dropped in the measurement model. The items AC2, AC3, AC4Rev, KOC3, KOC4, KOC5, CC4, RC1, SA4, and SA5 were eliminated because they did not load at 0.50 or above on any factor. The items WRU7 and WRU8 had high cross-loadings with the social related use factor. The item NC2Rev did not have a primary factor loading of 0.60 or above. Table 6 provides the factor loadings for the respective latent constructs. Although KOC2 has a high cross loading with role clarity, eliminating the variable would not be acceptable because each construct should not contain less than two items (McIver and Carmines, 1981; Hair et al., 2006). A single-item measure is less likely to fully represent the complex concept (McIver and Carmines, 1981) and less likely to capture the breadth of a construct's domain (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Schwab, 1980). It is important to note that a single-item measure cannot

be tested for internal consistency reliability (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). Therefore, the validity, the accuracy and the reliability of a single item measure are often unknown (McIver and Carmines, 1981; Gliem and Gliem, 2003). Two indicators per construct is not optimal (Steinmetz, Davidov and Schmidt, 2010), but it can be tested as a multi-item measure for reliability (Gliem and Gliem, 2003).

The factor loadings and cross loadings of each item had standardized estimates of 0.50 or above and were higher within itself when compared to another item (see Table 6); therefore, discriminant validity is met (Hair et al., 2006). Table 7 provides the construct convergent validity and reliability results. Based on the average variance extracted (AVE) results, all but one met validity ($AVE > 0.50$) (Fornell and Larcker, 1981); reliability was met (composite reliability, $CR > 0.70$) (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) was calculated because it is the most common measure of internal consistency reliability (Field, 2009; Grover and Goslar, 1993). If a measure is unreliable then the validity may be considered questionable (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). When reviewing Cronbach's alpha, most of the variables confirm the validity ($\alpha > 0.70$) results of the AVE (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009). The continuance commitment, the normative commitment and the knowledge of organizational culture constructs did not meet the 0.70 or above acceptable value (Field, 2009, Hair et al., 2006). Yet, the values of these constructs are above the unsatisfactory value of 0.50 (George and Mallery, 2003). A low value of alpha may be caused by a low number of items in a construct (Tavakol and Dennick; 2011). Thus, relaxing Cronbrach's alpha to 0.60 or above, internal consistency reliability is met for all constructs.

Table 6. Loadings and Cross Loadings

Item	Affec Com	Cont Com	Know Cult	Norm Com	Role Clarity	Social Accep	Self Effic	Social Use	Work Use
AC1	<i>1.000</i>	0.265	0.281	0.554	0.188	0.151	0.346	0.106	0.174
AC2	<i>0.553</i>	0.221	0.293	0.279	0.237	0.247	0.230	-0.002	0.095
CC1									
Rev	0.097	<i>0.565</i>	-0.083	0.118	-0.102	-0.056	-0.081	0.065	0.038
CC2	0.165	<i>0.842</i>	-0.136	0.101	-0.209	-0.096	-0.154	0.108	0.129
CC3	0.304	<i>0.903</i>	-0.045	0.304	-0.195	-0.016	-0.083	0.145	0.072
KOC1	0.160	-0.130	<i>0.680</i>	0.012	0.289	0.160	0.511	-0.068	-0.008
KOC2	0.279	-0.079	<i>0.968</i>	0.033	<i>0.716</i>	0.241	0.560	-0.201	-0.096
NC1	0.322	0.138	-0.025	<i>0.632</i>	-0.044	-0.015	0.062	0.025	0.117
NC3	0.516	0.343	0.055	<i>0.836</i>	-0.041	0.094	0.100	0.119	0.214
NC4	0.389	0.040	0.019	<i>0.773</i>	-0.105	-0.010	0.033	0.107	0.192
RC2	0.142	-0.214	0.645	-0.107	<i>0.942</i>	0.331	0.501	-0.149	-0.169
RC3	0.211	-0.195	0.607	-0.042	<i>0.906</i>	0.216	0.465	-0.152	-0.134
SA1	0.131	-0.013	0.180	0.085	0.230	<i>0.928</i>	0.158	0.182	-0.054
SA2	0.096	-0.120	0.263	-0.102	0.337	<i>0.791</i>	0.262	0.067	-0.250
SA3	0.157	-0.105	0.260	0.038	0.276	<i>0.769</i>	0.333	0.062	-0.162
SE1	0.355	-0.073	0.449	0.113	0.433	0.329	<i>0.849</i>	0.052	-0.083
SE2	0.286	-0.138	0.537	0.067	0.414	0.122	<i>0.859</i>	-0.117	-0.058
SE3	0.249	-0.139	0.609	0.041	0.505	0.163	<i>0.887</i>	-0.115	-0.078
SRU1	0.115	0.156	-0.103	0.074	-0.110	0.113	0.003	<i>0.902</i>	0.436
SRU2	0.100	0.159	-0.134	0.109	-0.125	0.172	-0.072	<i>0.926</i>	0.431
SRU3	0.056	0.033	-0.252	0.118	-0.149	0.166	-0.087	<i>0.890</i>	0.378
SRU4	0.136	0.160	-0.190	0.164	-0.188	0.090	-0.026	<i>0.866</i>	0.428
SRU5	0.074	0.137	-0.150	0.074	-0.152	0.152	-0.083	<i>0.920</i>	0.435
WRU1	0.133	0.049	-0.109	0.236	-0.168	-0.176	-0.067	0.312	<i>0.910</i>
WRU2	0.158	0.115	-0.096	0.220	-0.165	-0.249	-0.104	0.324	<i>0.919</i>
WRU3	0.136	0.081	-0.024	0.173	-0.116	-0.010	-0.087	0.543	<i>0.829</i>
WRU4	0.207	0.053	-0.026	0.229	-0.095	0.026	-0.038	0.535	<i>0.808</i>
WRU5	0.091	0.091	-0.114	0.218	-0.141	-0.206	-0.080	0.248	<i>0.875</i>
WRU6	0.189	0.168	-0.010	0.121	-0.151	0.035	-0.056	0.566	<i>0.724</i>

Table 7. Reliability and Validity

Construct	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
AffecCom	0.6527	0.7763	0.7208
ContCom	0.6145	0.8218	0.6840
KnowCult	0.6998	0.8189	0.6440
NormCom	0.5657	0.7942	0.6238
RoleClarity	0.8535	0.9210	0.8306
SelfEfficacy	0.7484	0.8992	0.8340
SocialAccep	0.6922	0.8701	0.8238
Social Use	0.8119	0.9557	0.9420
Work Use	0.7170	0.9379	0.9210

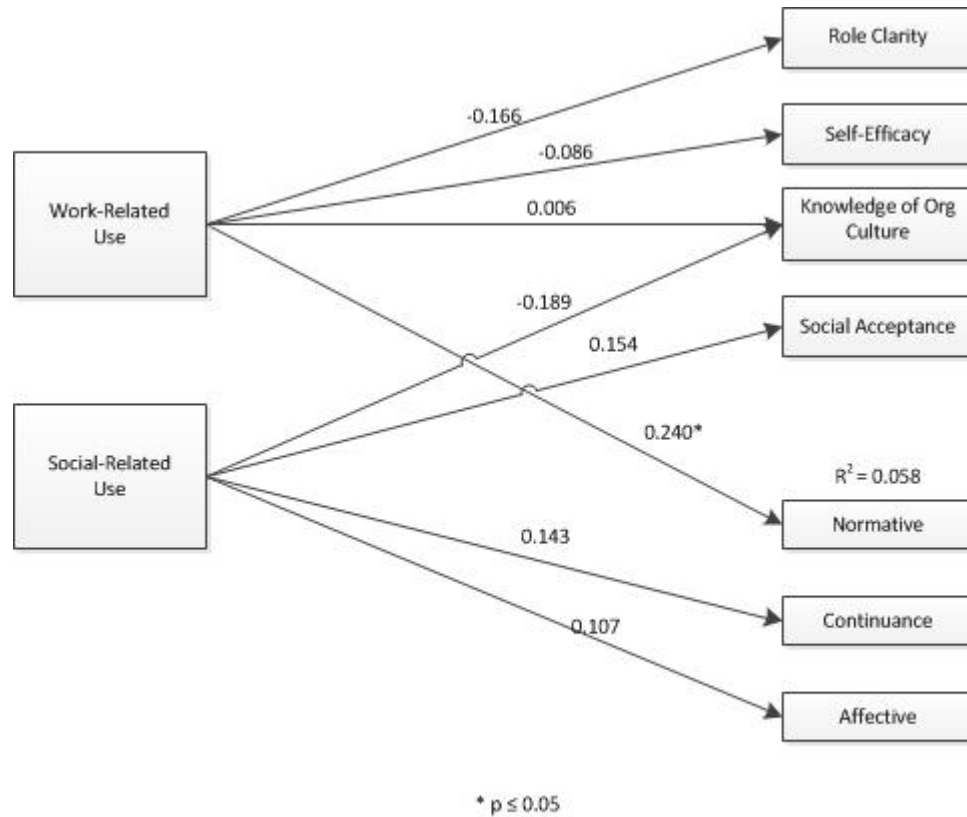


Figure 3. Model 1 Results

Second, the standard bootstrapping method was performed in order to evaluate the significance of the structural model. Figure 3 illustrates the model results from the analysis with explanatory powers (R²) and standardized path coefficients.

The results show that 1 of the 8 hypotheses were supported. Work-related use explained 5.8% of the variance in normative commitment. Although 7 hypotheses were not unsupported, the relationship between work-related use and role clarity and the relationship between social related use and knowledge of organizational culture were moderately close to a significant level.

6.4.2 Model 2 Test

Due to the poor results of the initial structural model, a second model was tested. The second model separated the work-related use hypotheses from the social-related use hypotheses in an attempt to test each of these as separate models. Model 1 was broken into two models (i.e., Model 2 and Model 3). The testing procedure of Model 2 followed the same principles as in Model 1. The cross loadings are illustrated in Table 8. Results of the measurement model indicate that satisfactory reliability (composite reliability, CR > .70) and satisfactory validity for all constructs (average variance extracted, AVE > .50) were achieved; see Table 9.

The structural model was tested using the standard bootstrapping method. Figure 4 illustrates the model results from the analysis.

Similarly to the results of Model 1, Model 2 results show that 1 of the 8 hypotheses were supported. Work-related use explained 4.9% of the variance in normative commitment; this percentage is slightly lower than in Model 1. Furthermore,

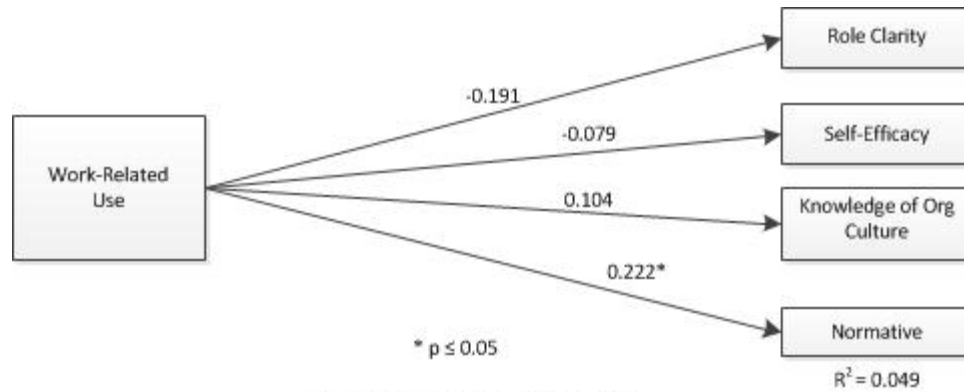
the relationship between work-related use and role clarity was moderately close to reaching a significant level. This was also demonstrated in Model 1.

Table 8. Loadings and Cross Loadings

Item	KOC	Norm	RC	SE	WR
KOC3	<i>0.9483</i>	0.0227	0.1853	0.1645	0.1088
KOC4	<i>0.6645</i>	0.1212	0.2858	0.3043	0.0462
NC1	0.0412	<i>0.5913</i>	0.0260	0.0601	0.0846
NC3	0.0434	<i>0.8535</i>	0.0541	0.0968	0.2065
NC4	0.0535	<i>0.7759</i>	-0.0554	0.0309	0.1744
RC2	0.2776	-0.1049	<i>0.8556</i>	0.5005	-0.1592
RC3	0.3245	-0.0439	<i>0.8416</i>	0.4678	-0.1419
RC4	-0.0529	0.1950	<i>0.5751</i>	0.2185	-0.1351
SE1	0.2251	0.1139	0.4688	<i>0.8291</i>	-0.0694
SE2	0.2228	0.0664	0.4219	<i>0.8661</i>	-0.0549
SE3	0.1793	0.0411	0.4702	<i>0.9012</i>	-0.0775
WRU1	0.0714	0.2403	-0.1578	-0.0657	<i>0.8588</i>
WRU2	0.0921	0.2203	-0.1789	-0.1022	<i>0.8710</i>
WRU3	0.0147	0.1696	-0.1391	-0.0868	<i>0.8385</i>
WRU4	-0.0155	0.2311	-0.0875	-0.0380	<i>0.8333</i>
WRU5	0.0543	0.2204	-0.1416	-0.0802	<i>0.8048</i>
WRU6	0.1582	0.1258	-0.1891	-0.0580	<i>0.7888</i>
WRU7	0.1251	0.0929	-0.1917	-0.0522	<i>0.6878</i>
WRU8	0.1814	0.072	-0.1178	0.0097	<i>0.6884</i>

Table 9. Reliability and Validity

Construct	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
Know of Org Cul	0.6706	0.7978	0.5643
Norm Com	0.5601	0.7889	0.6238
Role Clarity	0.5904	0.8078	0.6300
Self-Efficacy	0.7499	0.8996	0.8340
Work Related	0.6388	0.9336	0.9189



6.4.3 Model 3 Test

Model 3 was created and tested in order to evaluate the social-related use hypotheses. Following the same procedures applied in previous model testing, the cross loadings are provided in Table 10, both reliability and validity measures listed in Table 11 (AVE > 0.05; CR > 0.70) were satisfactorily achieved. Because alpha values for continuance commitment and knowledge of organizational culture are between 0.60 and the acceptable 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2006), it is important to note that the values of these constructs are above the unsatisfactory value of 0.50 (George and Mallery, 2003). According to Cortina (1993), the value of alpha depends on the number of items. Therefore, it is possible that a construct with a large number of items will have a higher alpha than constructs with a small number of items (Field, 2009). Thus, relaxing Cronbrach's alpha to 0.60 in this analysis may be interpreted to mean that internal consistency reliability is met for all constructs.

Following previous procedures, the structural model was tested using the bootstrapping method. The model results are illustrated in Figure 5.

Contrary to other results, this model proved to be non-significant. Social-related use did not have any significant relationships with the depicted socialization and commitment variables. The separation of model 1 into models 2 and 3 did not help prove any new hypotheses.

Table 10. Loadings and Cross Loadings

Item	Affective	Continual	Know of Org Cul	SMS Use	Social Accept
AC1	<i>0.9999</i>	0.2652	0.2806	0.1057	0.1508
AC2	<i>0.5528</i>	0.2210	0.2924	-0.0016	0.2467
CC1Rev	0.0972	<i>0.5647</i>	-0.0833	0.0648	-0.0562
CC2	0.1653	<i>0.8423</i>	-0.1357	0.1079	-0.0958
CC3	0.3042	<i>0.9029</i>	-0.0447	0.1449	-0.0156
KOC1	0.1604	-0.1298	<i>0.6778</i>	-0.0675	0.1597
KOC2	0.2794	-0.0792	<i>0.9689</i>	-0.2006	0.2413
SA1	0.1307	-0.0133	0.1800	0.1824	<i>0.9280</i>
SA2	0.0961	-0.1204	0.2632	0.0669	<i>0.7905</i>
SA3	0.1572	-0.1048	0.2595	0.0616	<i>0.7685</i>
SRU1	0.1145	0.1564	-0.1032	<i>0.9017</i>	0.1126
SRU2	0.0996	0.1586	-0.134	<i>0.9262</i>	0.1721
SRU3	0.0560	0.0333	-0.2517	<i>0.8900</i>	0.1656
SRU4	0.1357	0.1597	-0.1901	<i>0.8659</i>	0.0898
SRU5	0.0740	0.1369	-0.1504	<i>0.9200</i>	0.1520

Table 11. Reliability and Validity

Construct	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
Affective	0.6527	0.7763	0.7208
Continuance	0.6145	0.8218	0.6840
Know of Org Cul	0.6991	0.8184	0.6440
Social Related Use	0.8119	0.9557	0.9420
Social Accept	0.6922	0.8701	0.8238

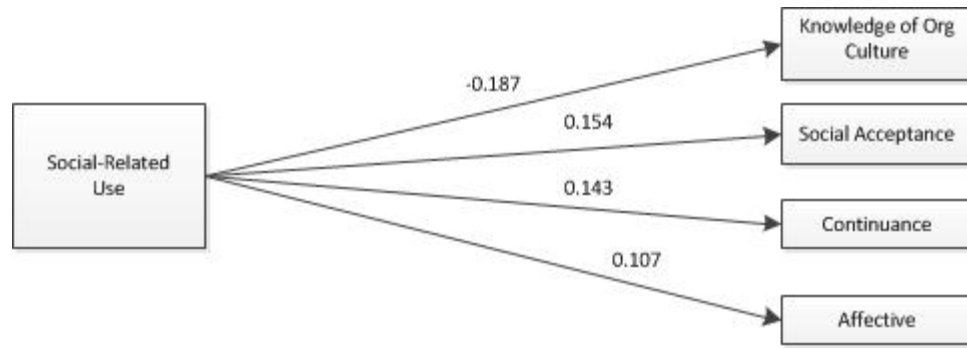


Figure 5. Model 3 Results

6.4.4 Data Transformation

Data transformations are used to modify variables for one of two reasons: 1) to correct violations of the assumptions underlying the multivariate techniques, or 2) to improve the relationship between variables (i.e., correlation) (Hair et al., 2006). In either case it is necessary to proceed many times by trial and error, monitoring the improvement after the transformation (Hair et al, 2006). Many possibilities exist for transforming the data. The most common transformations include: logarithms, square root, squared or cubed terms, and inverse. A more sophisticated and complicated method of data transformation is the BoxCox technique (Hair et al, 2006; Box and Cox, 1964).

Although the first attempt to analyze the data was to proceed with testing different models in SmartPLS because it is a statistical procedure that is robust to data violating assumptions, it was determined that the data is a good candidate for data transformation since the initial results were poor. Because the data violates the normality assumption, data transformation may be used to minimize this problem (Field, 2009). According to Field (2009), data transformations apply the same type of transformation (i.e, logarithms, inverses) to all of the data; therefore the transformation will not change the relationship

between variables, but changes the differences between different variables (i.e., units of measurement).

Following this guideline, data transformation was applied on all the variables of the dataset. In addition, it is important to consider different methods of data transformation and identify the most appropriate method by reviewing the skewness and kurtosis measures and by identifying if the data set is a positive or negative skew (Hair et al., 2006; Field, 2009). For purposes of this study, the most common data transformations (i.e., logs, square root, squared, and BoxCox) were applied and reviewed in order to determine if the normality issue was improved.

6.4.5 Model 4 Test (Transformed)

The logarithm data transformation was performed on all of the items of the latent constructs: role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture, social acceptance, affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Because the data set is positively skewed and has unequal variances, the log transformation is the most appropriate method (Field, 2009). Also, the log transformation was done in an attempt to improve the violation of the normality assumption with no major improvements. In order to evaluate if different results would be achieved when testing the measurement model with transformed data, the logarithms of the data were tested in Model 4.

Once again, similar procedures were followed to test the measurement model as in previous models. It is important to note that the data imported into the model was the log of the data versus the original measure. Convergent and discriminant validity was examined for the model. Convergent validity was measured in three ways: average

variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability, and Cronbach's alpha. Discriminant validity was measured through factor loadings and cross loadings. A rule of thumb suggests that the factor loadings of each item must be higher when compared to other items, which standardized loading estimates should be 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2006). After dropping twelve items, the cross loadings show each item loading higher on its own factor than on other factors (Table 12), therefore, satisfying discriminant validity.

Table 12. Loadings and Cross Loadings After Log Transformation

Item	Affec Com	Cont Com	Know Cult	Norm Com	Role Clarity	Self Effic	Social Use	Social Accep	Work Use
lgAC2	0.807	0.263	0.458	-0.284	0.233	0.252	0.012	0.282	-0.083
lgAC3	0.904	0.167	0.321	-0.337	0.217	0.215	0.023	0.229	-0.056
lgAC4	0.798	0.081	0.330	-0.226	0.289	0.280	0.017	0.253	0.020
lgCC2	0.115	0.905	0.117	-0.199	-0.167	-0.180	0.128	-0.044	-0.145
lgCC3	0.232	0.891	0.158	-0.318	-0.061	-0.093	0.121	0.026	-0.058
lgKOC3	0.382	0.118	0.883	-0.043	0.152	0.190	0.181	0.335	-0.090
lgKOC5	0.324	0.143	0.802	-0.024	0.266	0.245	0.107	0.300	0.040
lgNC1	-0.226	-0.147	0.018	0.590	-0.111	-0.072	0.007	-0.002	0.089
lgNC3	-0.313	-0.355	-0.097	0.873	-0.143	-0.114	-0.092	-0.096	0.241
lgNC4	-0.219	-0.078	0.033	0.737	0.044	-0.043	-0.090	0.031	0.176
lgRC3	0.271	-0.172	0.342	0.045	0.795	0.491	-0.118	0.266	0.160
lgRC4	0.192	-0.036	0.045	-0.190	0.808	0.230	-0.117	0.246	0.165
lgSA1	0.257	0.032	0.265	-0.097	0.228	0.159	0.216	0.891	0.005
lgSA2	0.178	-0.057	0.370	0.099	0.323	0.287	0.104	0.833	0.197
lgSA3	0.292	-0.046	0.381	-0.043	0.297	0.359	0.100	0.813	0.135
lgSA5	0.343	-0.039	0.360	-0.097	0.343	0.356	0.018	0.653	0.246
lgSE1	0.240	-0.107	0.304	-0.096	0.428	0.806	0.001	0.361	0.085
lgSE2	0.252	-0.148	0.180	-0.085	0.362	0.897	-0.128	0.174	0.106
lgSE3	0.256	-0.140	0.180	-0.094	0.375	0.880	-0.118	0.224	0.083
lgSRU2	0.088	0.165	0.215	-0.105	-0.144	-0.075	0.954	0.184	-0.474
lgSRU3	-0.063	0.029	0.090	-0.103	-0.085	-0.113	0.862	0.168	-0.422
lgSRU5	-0.013	0.147	0.140	-0.055	-0.158	-0.098	0.932	0.150	-0.485
lgWRU1	-0.039	-0.043	0.020	0.251	0.143	0.096	-0.251	0.198	0.879
lgWRU2	-0.055	-0.098	-0.019	0.246	0.182	0.124	-0.265	0.249	0.897
lgWRU3	0.052	-0.083	0.014	0.221	0.173	0.122	-0.510	0.062	0.896
lgWRU4	-0.032	-0.081	0.012	0.261	0.117	0.076	-0.531	0.026	0.889
lgWRU5	0.005	-0.083	0.043	0.242	0.152	0.116	-0.131	0.238	0.830
lgWRU6	-0.093	-0.161	-0.127	0.160	0.203	0.065	-0.530	0.022	0.839
lgWRU7	-0.064	-0.112	-0.087	0.141	0.229	0.071	-0.618	-0.088	0.755
lgWRU8	-0.101	-0.127	-0.167	0.109	0.178	0.030	-0.695	-0.078	0.741

Although Cronbach's alpha was .4418 for role clarity, results of the measurement model indicate that satisfactory convergent validity and reliability (composite reliability, CR > .70; average variance extracted, AVE > .50) were achieved; see Table 13.

The structural model was tested and the results supported 2 of 8 hypotheses. Work-related use explained 6.1% of the variance in normative commitment and explained 4.1% of the variance in role clarity. Although, the relationship between social-related use and knowledge of organizational culture was non-significant in the structural model, if the *t* statistic is relaxed to 1.80 or above, the relationship between these two variables is significant. The results are illustrated in Figure 6.

Table 13. Reliability and Validity

Construct	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
AffecCom	0.7017	0.8755	0.7929
ContCom	0.8065	0.8929	0.7603
KnowCult	0.7114	0.8311	0.5991
NormCom	0.5510	0.7823	0.6128
RoleClarity	0.6417	0.7818	0.4418
Self Efficacy	0.7427	0.8963	0.8267
Social Use	0.8401	0.9402	0.9079
SocialAccep	0.6433	0.8769	0.8518
Work Use	0.7103	0.9513	0.9411

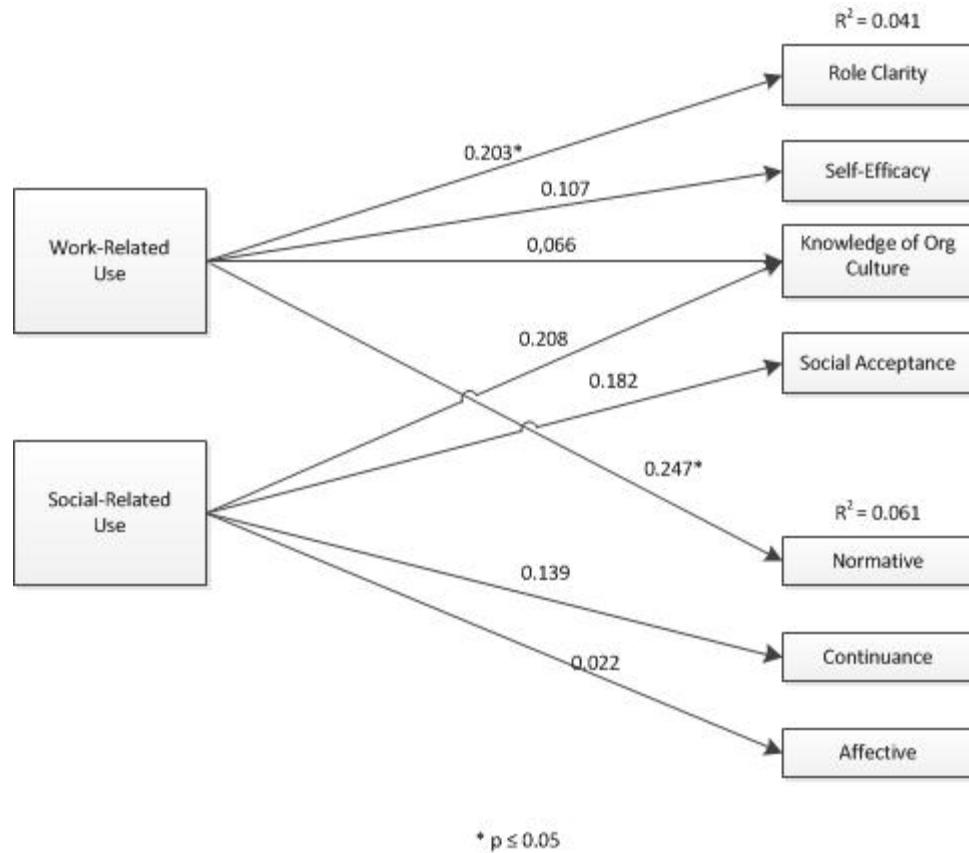


Figure 6. Model 4 (Transformed) Results

6.4.6 Model 5 Test (BoxCox)

In an attempt to confirm greater significance levels in the structural model, the BoxCox data transformation was applied. Box and Cox (1964) proposed a parametric power transformation technique that extends the traditional options to assist researchers in identifying the optimal normalizing transformation for each variable (Osborne, 2010). Results from the measurement model showed high cross-loadings for items in more than its own factor (i.e., work-related use and social-related use) and showed low (< .50) cross-loadings for items in knowledge of organizational culture. As such, work-related use and social-related use were combined as one construct and knowledge of organizational culture was dropped. The cross-loadings for all the constructs are shown in

Table 14. Because the factor loading of each item is higher on its own factor versus on another item, discriminant validity is met (Hair et al., 2006). The measurement model showed satisfactory reliability and convergent validity (composite reliability, CR > .70; average variance extracted, AVE > .50) (Table 15).

Table 14. Loadings and Cross Loadings After Box Cox Transformation

Item	Affec Com	Cont Com	Norm Com	Role Clarity	SMS Use	Self Efficacy	Social Accep
AC1	<i>0.9300</i>	0.2394	0.4999	0.2141	0.1318	0.2972	0.1988
AC2	<i>0.8014</i>	0.1826	0.2933	0.2386	0.0598	0.2430	0.3131
AC3	<i>0.7477</i>	0.0486	0.3673	0.2413	0.0447	0.2050	0.2693
CC1	0.0533	<i>0.5148</i>	0.1403	-0.0599	0.0481	-0.1162	-0.1434
CC2	0.1857	<i>0.8979</i>	0.1255	-0.2112	0.1396	-0.1814	-0.1129
CC3	0.3305	<i>0.8225</i>	0.3017	-0.1392	0.0930	-0.0963	-0.0227
CC4	-0.0371	<i>0.6551</i>	-0.0120	-0.0076	0.0531	-0.1824	-0.1525
NC1	0.2919	0.1296	<i>0.5701</i>	0.0190	0.0707	0.0539	-0.0148
NC3	0.4709	0.2857	<i>0.8675</i>	0.0562	0.2089	0.0888	0.0608
NC4	0.3586	-0.0009	<i>0.7680</i>	-0.0645	0.1640	0.0350	0.0452
RC2	0.1962	-0.2009	-0.1011	<i>0.8646</i>	-0.1935	0.4964	0.3721
RC3	0.1398	-0.0213	0.1935	<i>0.5855</i>	-0.1575	0.2130	0.2508
RC4	0.2695	-0.1684	-0.0461	<i>0.8590</i>	-0.1730	0.4781	0.3303
SA2	0.1689	-0.1144	-0.0930	0.3612	-0.1386	0.2636	<i>0.8443</i>
SA3	0.2397	-0.1191	0.0480	0.3256	-0.0932	0.3377	<i>0.8115</i>
SA4	0.2276	-0.0887	0.0676	0.3398	-0.2072	0.2951	<i>0.8522</i>
SA5	0.2940	-0.1164	0.1156	0.3739	-0.2188	0.3400	<i>0.8855</i>
SE1	0.2867	-0.1368	0.0816	0.4810	-0.0587	<i>0.7429</i>	0.4070
SE2	0.2762	-0.1823	0.0733	0.4277	-0.1223	<i>0.9186</i>	0.2984
SE3	0.2567	-0.1652	0.0628	0.4781	-0.1074	<i>0.9087</i>	0.2912
SRU1	0.0835	0.1198	0.0853	-0.1404	<i>0.7114</i>	-0.0572	-0.0538
SRU2	0.0951	0.1209	0.1156	-0.1588	<i>0.7119</i>	-0.1091	0.0152
SRU3	0.0024	0.0122	0.1240	-0.1457	<i>0.6512</i>	-0.1351	-0.0145
SRU4	0.1051	0.1374	0.1822	-0.2053	<i>0.7233</i>	-0.0685	-0.0961
SRU5	0.0610	0.1186	0.0765	-0.1709	<i>0.7064</i>	-0.1156	0.0015
WRU1	0.0747	0.0610	0.2239	-0.1928	<i>0.8127</i>	-0.0976	-0.2784
WRU2	0.1006	0.0898	0.2246	-0.2154	<i>0.8369</i>	-0.1192	-0.3193
WRU3	0.0347	0.0979	0.1997	-0.1664	<i>0.8866</i>	-0.1180	-0.2184
WRU4	0.1265	0.0721	0.2439	-0.1135	<i>0.8743</i>	-0.0718	-0.1930
WRU5	0.0144	0.0970	0.2070	-0.2066	<i>0.7536</i>	-0.1257	-0.3033
WRU6	0.1584	0.1657	0.1501	-0.2013	<i>0.8443</i>	-0.0680	-0.1475
WRU7	0.1539	0.0929	0.1134	-0.1903	<i>0.7622</i>	-0.0647	-0.0737
WRU8	0.1383	0.1111	0.0786	-0.1217	<i>0.7552</i>	-0.0269	-0.0590

The standard bootstrap resampling procedure was used to test the structural model in SmartPLS. Figure 7 illustrated the model results from the analysis.

Table 15. Reliability and Validity After Box Cox Transformation

Construct	AVE	Composite	
		Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha
AffecCom	0.6888	0.8681	0.8046
ContCom	0.5442	0.8209	0.7282
NormCom	0.5558	0.785	0.6236
Role Clarity	0.6094	0.8198	0.6584
SMS Use	0.6002	0.9509	0.9465
Self Efficacy	0.7405	0.8946	0.8301
SocialAccep	0.7204	0.9115	0.8772

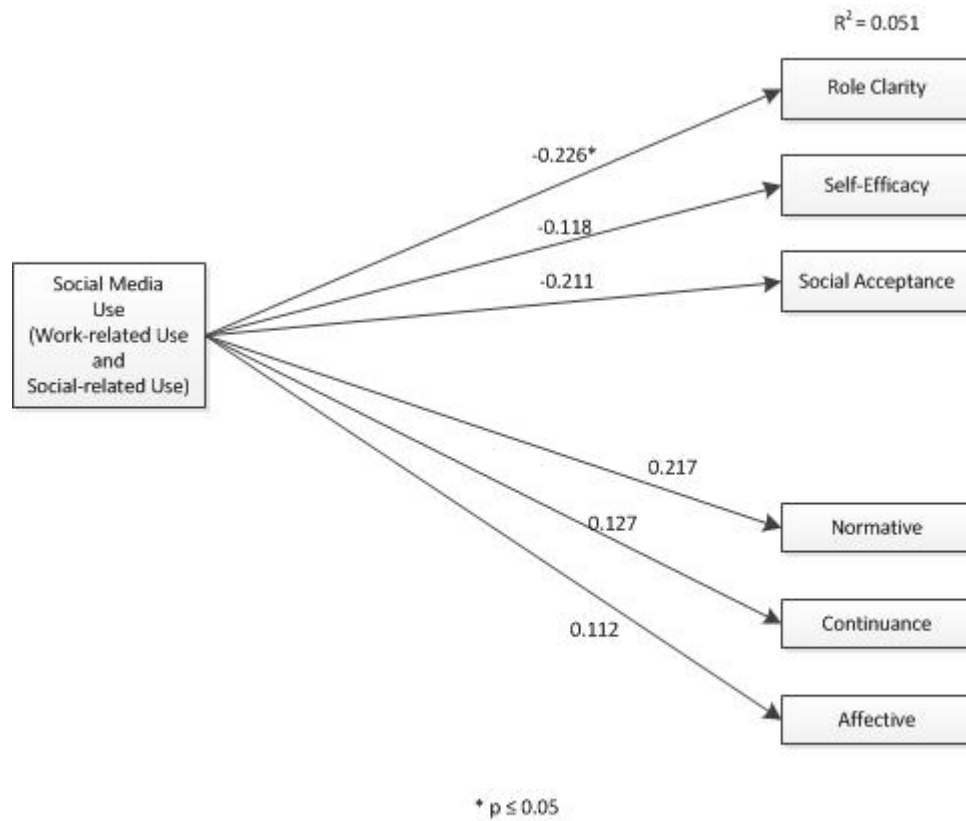


Figure 7. Model 5 (Transformed) Results

The results show that social media use (work-related use and social-related use combined) is negatively related to role clarity, contradictory to previous results. Because there is a negative relationship, this can be interpreted that the more the social media is used, the less likely that employees will gain role clarity. If we compare this to the results from Model 4 (log transformation), we find that work-related use is positively related to role clarity; meaning that the more the social media tool is used for work-related purposes, the greater role clarity that is gained. By expanding on this result, we may find that social-related use is what negatively impacts role clarity. In Model 5, social media use explained 5.1% of the variance in role clarity.

Although data transformations were applied to the data analysis, Sakia (1992) notes that this transformation does not always fulfill the basic assumptions of linearity, normality and homoscedasticity as suggested by Box and Cox (1964). For example, transformed data may result in reducing the positive skew in one variable, but may result in a more negative skew in a different variable (Field, 2009). In other words, as one variable reaches an acceptable measure of normality, another is caused to spread further from the normal distribution. Transformations are often thought as the answer to address assumption violations, but transformations do not necessarily always produce a solution to a problem because even if one problem is solved, it usually creates different problems in the process (Field, 2009).

6.4.7 Non-parametric Test

In addition to the bootstrapping method available in SmartPLS that is considered to be a robust statistical test built to handle violations of parametric assumptions, there are a number of non-parametric tests (i.e., Spearman R, Kendall-tau, Mann-Whitney,

Kruskal-Wallis, Jonckheere-Terpstra, among others) that can be used to test non-normal data. Non-parametric tests have an advantage over parametric tests in that they do not require the assumptions of normality or homogeneity of variance (Field, 2009). These types of tests compare the medians of the data rather than the means and if outliers exist in the data, their influence is negated. Non-parametric methods may be considered “weak” in comparison to parametric methods, but it allows for insights about the data when nothing is known about the parameters of the variable of interest (StatSoft, 2012). Non-parametric, also referred to as distribution free tests can be used when one feels that the assumptions required by parametric tests have been extremely violated (Weaver, 2002).

Because the data is violating normality, non-parametric testing was used as a final step to test the data. The four most common non-parametric tests include: the Mann-Whitney test, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, the Friedman’s test, and the Kruskal-Wallis test. After much review, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilcoxon, 1945) was identified as the most appropriate method to use because when the need for comparing two sets of data that come from the same participants exists, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test can be used to assess whether the mean ranks of the two related samples differ (Field, 2009). Furthermore, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test is used as the equivalent of the dependent t -test and serves as an alternative when the data is not normally distributed or the data is on the ordinal scale (Field, 2009). In this dissertation, the data collected violated the normality assumption and reflected different variables (i.e., role clarity, self-efficacy, and others) for each of the participants. For each of the observations, the variables were paired in all of the possible combinations to denote if there is a change within the data.

In using this approach, the social media use type was converted to identifying the type of user (i.e., low, high, strictly work-related, or strictly social-related). The results of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test are found in Table 16. The highlighted cells identify significance between two variables.

In order to properly interpret these results, a negative z-score does not imply a negative relationship as when we interpret path coefficients. The positive or negative symbol simply refers to the variable that is listed first in the mathematical calculation of the test. For example, if we are comparing role clarity (RC) and social acceptance (SA), the mathematical equations is $RC-SA$; if the difference is positive, this means that RC has a greater number than SA; if the difference is negative, this means that SA has a greater number than RC.

Although we do not see a significant level of change in every case between variables, the results demonstrate that different types of users experience some differences for certain types of socialization and commitment levels. In terms of socialization, all users experience social acceptance more than any other type of socialization. While social media users that primarily use the tool for social purposes experience a significant level of knowledge of organizational culture, others do not. In other words, social-related users solely experience a level of knowledge of organizational culture that allows them to gain a better understanding about the social norms of the organization. Interestingly, all four types of users (i.e., low users, social-related users, work-related users, and high users) experience social acceptance. Because social acceptance can be achieved at any level of social media use, one may wonder what other factors may have an impact on this dimension of socialization. Socialization is

determined by four factors for which two of the factors - role clarity and self-efficacy – did not have significance. In this analysis, it can be said that social media use has the potential to acclimate a new hire by developing the areas of social acceptance and knowledge of organizational culture.

Table 16. Wilcoxon Test Results

Type of User	1-Low	2 -Work Related	3 –Social Related	4 -High
Role Clarity and Self-Efficacy	$z = .476$ $p = .634$	$z = 1.41$ $p = .157$	$z = -1.28$ $p = .200$	$z = -1.03$ $p = .305$
Knowledge of Culture and Social Accept	$z = 4.29$ $p = .000$	$z = 1.00$ $p = .317$	$z = 5.374$ $p = .000$	$z = 1.90$ $p = .058$
Role Clarity and Knowledge of Culture	$z = 1.06$ $p = .291$	$z = 1.73$ $p = .083$	$z = 2.55$ $p = .011$	$z = 1.07$ $p = .284$
Role Clarity and Social Acceptance	$z = 4.70$ $p = .000$	$z = 2.00$ $p = .046$	$z = 6.324$ $p = .000$	$z = 2.57$ $p = .010$
Self-Efficacy and Knowledge of Culture	$z = .383$ $p = .702$	$z = 1.00$ $p = .317$	$z = 2.96$ $p = .003$	$z = 1.94$ $p = .052$
Self-Efficacy and Social Acceptance	$z = 3.76$ $p = .000$	$z = 1.41$ $p = .157$	$z = 5.71$ $p = .000$	$z = 2.67$ $p = .000$
Affective and Continuance	$z = -3.55$ $p = .000$	$z = -.184$ $p = .854$	$z = -5.61$ $p = .000$	$z = -3.57$ $p = .000$
Continuance and Normative	$z = -.938$ $p = .348$	$z = -.577$ $p = .564$	$z = -1.61$ $p = .107$	$z = -.265$ $p = .791$
Affective and Normative	$z = -5.23$ $p = .000$	$z = -1.63$ $p = .102$	$z = -7.12$ $p = .000$	$z = -3.96$ $p = .000$

Furthermore, in analyzing the levels of commitment, there is no significance for continuance or normative commitment. Most users experience affective commitment through social media use. Social media helps create affective commitment, but does not help create normative or continuance commitment. An employee who experiences an affective level of commitment develops an emotional attachment to the organization and wants to remain in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). In addition, an employee who is affectively committed identifies with organizational values (Meyer and Allen, 1991). In this analysis, social media builds an emotional attachment that influences the desire to remain in the organization rather than build a sense of obligation or build a sense of need to stay in the organization.

6.5 Summary

Table 17 summarizes the results of the hypotheses from the various analyses.

Table 17. Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis	Result
H1: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to role clarity.	Supported; Model 4
H2: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to self-efficacy.	Not supported.
H3: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to knowledge of organizational culture.	Not supported.
H4: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to knowledge of organizational culture.	Supported; Wilcoxon Test
H5: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to social acceptance.	Supported; Wilcoxon Test
H6: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for work-related purposes will be positively related to normative commitment.	Supported; Model 1, Model 2 and Model 4
H7: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to continuance commitment.	Not supported.
H8: The extent of social networking system use by new hires for social-related purposes will be positively related to affective commitment.	Supported; Wilcoxon Test

CHAPTER SEVEN

Discussion and Conclusion

Given the importance that has been placed on social media and its potential for organizational benefits, there is a need to gain a better understanding of the value that can be gained through the use of social media technologies. In this study, the purpose was to quantitatively examine the relationship of social media use (i.e., work-related use versus social-related use) to the types of socialization effectiveness and the types of commitment experienced by new hires. When considering a combination of methods, two out of eight hypotheses were supported and three additional hypotheses were supported by the Wilcoxon non-parametric test. This final chapter presents the implications, limitations, and future research.

7.1 Implications

Findings indicate that social media use for work-related purposes has positive impacts on role clarity. Social media tools are providing the means for new employees to acquire or seek information (Majchrzak et al., 2006; Moskaluluk and Kimmerle, 2009), which can be used to gain role clarity. Role clarity is one of the key areas for positive new hire socialization (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). New hire socialization may be influenced by the organization's use of socializations tactics and practices that will assist new hires as soon as they begin their first day of work (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979; Wanous, 1992; Louis et al., 1983). As new hires use social media for work related purposes (i.e., information seeking, learning about job tasks, or post a job related

question on a discussion board), they are more likely to gain a better understanding about their role in the organization. According to Kayworth and Leidner (2001/2002), role clarity can be impacted by an individual's leader. When organizational leaders use an inappropriate strategy to socialize new hires, it is possible that new hires will be disappointed because they do not have the guidance or support system to achieve role clarity (Kayworth and Leidner, 2001/2002). Managers of new hires can be perceived as role models (Holton and Russell, 1997) and as mentors (Green and Bauer, 1995); therefore their support of social media use can be leveraged for socialization effectiveness. Part of the socialization process is to have new employees become an organizational insider (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003). This finding extends our understanding of organizational socialization in that social media technologies can assist in the socialization of new hires by increasing their ability to gain role clarity. Technology can serve as tool for socializing new hires rather than simply being a tool for completing a particular job task.

Organizations implementing social media need to be aware that social media use has to have a purpose and that potential outcomes are not achieved simply by social media implementation (Andriole, 2010). For example, the lack of the necessary information to a given organizational position may increase the probability that a person will experience anxiety, will be dissatisfied with his or her role, will distort reality, and will perform less effectively (Rizzo et al., 1970). When organizations fail to provide a platform for which new hires can tap into organizational resources, they are less likely to witness socialized employees.

Findings also indicate that work-related social media use is positively related to normative commitment. Employees using the social media may perceive the availability of such technology, flexibility of social media use and relaxed working environment as an organizational investment. Such actions by an organization may be considered to be a reach outside of the norm that new hires may feel that a debt is owed to the organization (Scholl, 1981). If an employee recognizes the social media as a perceived investment, he or she is more likely to develop a sense of obligation to remain at the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Employees who use the social media to further develop their skills or abilities, acquire information, learn about the organization, or collaborate with others (Moskaluluk and Kimmerle, 2009; Majchrak et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2007) are making use of the social media for work related purposes. New hires that use social media during the work day without fear of repercussions will potentially be more inclined to feel obligated to remain at the organization until the debt is repaid. New hires may experience a higher level of morale obligation (Meyer and Allen, 1997) through the social media use for work related purposes.

Research suggests that socialization is an antecedent to commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Contrarily, our finding suggests that social media use can directly impact an individual's level of commitment. Individuals do not necessarily have to be socialized before becoming committed. This finding extends socialization and commitment research by identifying a potential direct impact through the use of an IT. It appears that when social media serves a work related purpose, value is placed on social media use. Thus, an individual perceives the value of social media use as one of time and effort made by the

organization. This can be interpreted as the organization ensuring that relevant work related objectives are made accessible via the social media.

The findings also demonstrate that work-related social media use is not associated with self-efficacy or knowledge of organizational culture. Self-efficacy and knowledge of organizational culture help new hires experience a confidence about their abilities to perform at their new job and gain a level of understanding about the organization and its goals (Bauer et al., 2007; Taormina, 1994). Although social media facilitates the dissemination of information, new hires are not gaining such critical information or training. There are several explanations to be considered. One explanation is that employees using social media may relate social media with recreational purposes (Collins, 2010) that they have difficulty viewing the technology as a work-related tool; therefore they do not use social media for learning new skills or gaining knowledge about the organizational culture. This inability to disconnect social media from personal use can create a misperception of its capabilities (Koch et al., 2011).

Another explanation is the boundary blurring impact of social media on work and social life that make it difficult for employees to draw a line from when work life ends and social life begins (Koch et al., 2012). This blurring effect makes it difficult and unclear as to how to use social media for particular purposes. In addition, new employees tend to pick up cues regarding attitudes and behaviors, the norms and values of the organization and hierarchical structures within work groups by observing other employees' actions and words (Epstein, 1983). If social media is not a widely used application for work related purposes among employees, it is more likely that new hires will follow the group's norm. Perhaps the most effective way to develop self-efficacy in

an employee or pass along knowledge of organizational culture through the use of social media is to lead by example. When the majority of activities surrounding the social media are for social-related purposes, it tells employees that the social media is for socializing. In order to promote social media use for developing job skills or sharing knowledge, then the social media implementation should revolve on activities that tie to such objectives. Because most organizations take an ad hoc approach to social media governance, conflicting messages may arise when there are no set rules about social media use; therefore it is important for organizations to develop policies that fit within the organizational culture and stipulates what can and cannot be done (Cisco, 2010).

Furthermore, organizations do not fully understand the “what” about social media leads to organizational benefits (Andriole, 2010; Pettit, 2010). Social media is expected to transform organizations, industries and even governments (Bradley, 2011), but it is not necessarily clear as to how to effectively use such technology (Andriole, 2010). Organizations are still learning about social media (Andriole, 2010) and are at the beginning stages of embracing social media for socialization and commitment initiatives (Mullaney, 2012). Potential issues arise when social media implementations are being done without properly allocating the right resources to target specific goals and objectives. The findings provide a better understanding of social media use for organizational outcomes. Social media demonstrated a potential to assist organizations acclimate new hires and increase commitment. Organizations that focus on developing socialization and commitment in new hires may experience organizational outcomes such as, a decrease in employee turnover and an increase in job satisfaction. By understanding the outcomes that can be achieved through social media use, organizations can customize

the technology to fit their particular needs. For example, if organizations are interested in increasing self-efficacy or knowledge of organizational culture, management should consider tapping into features of social media that can be used for these specific purposes. The implementation of social media will not automatically create the desired outcomes (Andriole, 2010). Management needs to develop a strategic plan that integrates the organizational objectives and goals into the social media. Consequently, when organizations seek to acclimate new hires by developing any of the four dimensions of socialization (i.e., role clarity, self-efficacy, knowledge of organizational culture, and social acceptance), it is important that the social media activities that employees will participate in be aligned to the desired socialization dimension.

Findings demonstrated that social-related social media use is associated with knowledge of organizational culture and social acceptance. Social media users tapping into internal social networks allow them to learn about organizational norms (Jackson et al., 2007). After entry into the organization, new hires are exposed to those surrounding them that they learn to function in an organization by internalizing values, attitudes, and behaviors as a way of understanding the new working environment (Feldman, 1980). When employees use social media, employees are enabled to post and answer questions, tap into knowledge resources, chat online, build personal relationships, and learn about the organization (Leidner et al., 2010; DiMicco et al., 2008; Cunha and Orlikowski, 2008; Majchrzak et al., 2009; Jackson et al., 2007). Because social media has been highly used for personal reasons (Collins, 2010), new hires are more likely to perceive internal social media as a recreational tool. The flexibility to use social media for socializing may create a greater sense of belonging as new hires begin to connect with others on a personal level

(Leidner et al., 2010). In connecting people from parts of the organization that normally would not have contact, social media seem to create a strong social system within the organization (Jackson, et al., 2007). In the process of building relationships, new hires are building social capital (Coleman, 1988) and may be inadvertently strengthening weak ties (DiMiccio et al., 2008). According to Granovetter (1973), weak ties allow individuals to have access to information that they would not have had. Social media use by new hires gain new knowledge of the organization by tapping into these new resources. These newfound friends may also serve as a support system when a new hire faces a stressful situation (Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2012). This finding contributes to socialization research by identifying the use of social media as a socialization practice that leads to the socialization of new hires. Technology use has not been studied as a socialization practice. This finding provides insights to organizations that seek to better understand social media for organizational purposes.

Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, social-related social media use is not associated with continuance commitment. Continuance commitment is the perceived cost of losing organizational gains by leaving the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991). This finding suggests two explanations. First, employees with strong continuance commitment are unwilling to leave the organization because the perceived alternative employment opportunities do not over compensate their existing employment (Johnson, Chang, and Yang, 2010). If employees do not have an external constraint, such as receiving a reward or avoiding a loss (Becker et al., 1996), they are less likely to develop continuance commitment. Because social media use may be perceived as being unproductive or a waste of time (Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2012), employees may

not necessarily feel that they are investing in something from which they will be rewarded when remaining in the organization or will be at a loss if they were to decide to exit the organization. Although organizations are eager to identify the potential of social media (Andriole, 2010), they may disregard the need to provide incentives to employees for the continual use of social media. When the organization fails to provide rewards for social media use, employees may not identify the value of social media for organizational outcomes. In order to influence employee behavioral compliance to use social media, employees need to have external drivers in order to build continuance commitment. If new hires feel they are viewed as unproductive (Leidner et al., 2010) or under surveillance (Denyer et al., 2011) when using social media, they are less likely to perceive their continual use of social media as a means to build an accumulation of organizational benefits (i.e. bonuses or pensions). Second, organizations are increasingly struggling to attract the highly qualified IT worker (Hickey, 2011; Grant, 2011). If organizations are to meet the needs of new hires, organizations must go beyond simply implementing a social media tool and expect them to use it. Organizations need to provide opportunities for employees to develop side-bets (Becker, 1960) through the use of social media. Continuance commitment is based on Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, which posits that employees are more likely to remain at an organization as a way of preserving organizational benefits or when their perceived costs of leaving will mean sacrificing the existing gains (Meyer and Allen, 1991). If an IT worker who desires a challenging job (Allen et al., 2008; Pare and Tremblay, 2000) finds no purpose in the social media tool for developing specialized skills or enhancing their confidence in their job responsibilities, he or she is more likely to determine that it has no value. When

social media use does not create anything tangible, new hires will simply disregard how social media use may lead to a valuable outcome (i.e., professional growth). These types of activities that may be compensated or rewarded could possibly lead to new hires remaining in the organization out of fear of losing investments that may otherwise be unavailable at employment opportunities at other organizations. It is highly probable that new hires need to be oriented and guided to identify how social media use provides the means for which their continual use may develop skill sets or expertise that may lead to external rewards (i.e., bonuses).

Furthermore, the findings also demonstrate that social media use for social-related purpose is associated with affective commitment. This finding suggests that employees who socialize and make friends at work develop an emotional attachment to the organization (Leidner et al., 2010; Koch et al., 2012). Employees using social media tend to establish connections with others in the organization participate in open communication and build personal relationships (DiMiccio et al., 2008; Majchrak et al., 2009; Leidner, et al., 2010). These types of activities seem to lead to employees committing to the organization because they “want to” (Meyer and Allen, 1991). As employees engage in social media use, they tend to develop closer ties with others. It has been suggested that these ties among employees lead to a sense of family (Leidner et al., 2010). Socializing at work gives employees the flexibility to relax and provides relief during the workday (Leidner et al., 2010). Organizational cultures that embrace social media use for social related purposes will tap into employees’ emotional side. Previous research assumes that the use of social media has the potential for decreased turnover and higher levels of acclimation by increasing positive emotional experiences (Liedner, et al.,

2010; Koch, et al., 2012). It is possible that other factors play a role in social media use outcomes (i.e., psychological well being). This finding contributes to commitment research by reinforcing that new hires that experience positive work experiences develop organizational commitment. As employees engage within the organization, their level of job satisfaction increases. The impact of social media use on affective commitment provides another dimension that can be considered to further advance research.

Lastly, five general points can be made about the findings. First, new hires are being socialized in spite of the type of social media use. It is important to note that whether or not new employees are highly using the social media or whether or not they use it for work versus social related purposes, they are still experiencing some form of socialization. This is interesting in that the social media is not necessarily the primary reason why new hires are experiencing socialization into the organization. It appears that other types of socialization practices are influencing the socialization experience as well. Although other socialization practices may be in place, it is possible that a social media tool can help achieve higher levels of socialization or lessen the time it takes to acclimate a new employee. Simply, a social media tool has the potential to socialize new hires.

Second, the same principle as above applies to organizational commitment. Any type of social media use leads to developing a sense of emotional attachment in new hires. Apparently social media users all experience affective commitment whether or not they use it for social versus work related purposes. The interesting finding in the association of social media use and commitment is that it is a direct impact on commitment. This contradicts previous research that suggests socialization comes

before commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Social media tools can serve to develop commitment alongside socialization.

Third, social media use is not having an impact on self-efficacy and continuance commitment at any level. This may be discerning to organizations that wish to achieve these two outcomes. Given that self-efficacy plays a key role to developing a sense of self-confidence in new employees (Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg, 2003), organizations may become more interested in how social media can be used for developing self-efficacy. Similarly, organizations that wish to develop continuance commitment over normative and affective commitment may decide to experiment with social media features and capabilities in a manner that will have a higher probability to lead to continuance commitment. What organization would not want employees that have a sense of “needing to stay” because they perceive that they have a lot more to lose than gain from exiting the organization? Interestingly, one may figure that self-efficacy and continuance commitment have some association. When employees invest time into learning a specialized skill for their job, attend trainings, or develop expertise in their area, the perceived cost of leaving increases. Therefore their sense of loss is far greater than they would like to experience from leaving their organization.

Fourth, organizations wishing to develop specific types of socialization effectiveness or organizational commitment should develop strategies that target those elements that are desired. For example, if an organization would like to develop self-efficacy perhaps embedding training modules in a social media tool may enhance the ability for new hires to gain new skill sets. Organizations will need to strategize to integrate certain elements of socialization or commitment into social media. This will

give social media a purposeful meaning and assist with value creation for the organization.

Fifth, social media research has been enhanced by the findings. This dissertation has contributed to social media research by providing insights of internal social media use and its impact on organizational outcomes. It is important for social media research to fully understand how and what organizations can gain from such technologies. Although very few quantitative studies have been done to support findings of qualitative studies, research on social media use can benefit from the development of quantitative measures. It is apparent that social media use has the potential to directly impact the organization. Social media research should look beyond the social aspects and begin to identify which features embedded in the applications can be used for organizational purposes. When organizations use social media, it is not for personal reasons, but rather for organizational gains. Therefore, social media research needs to be challenged to step away from the student use perspective and further explore organization's experiences of internal social media.

7.2 Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the results were from data that was collected from one organization. This does not allow for the results to be generalizable. If data were collected from more than one organization, the potential of capturing different levels of social media use may have been captured. Data collection from various companies could shed light on the impacts of social media use on organizational outcomes (i.e., turnover, job satisfaction and commitment). Second, the use of non-parametric tests impact how the results are interpreted (Field, 2009). The lack of normal

distribution and lack of variance prevented the data from demonstrating more significant results during parametric testing. Therefore, the majority of the results must be interpreted in terms of potential associations between two variables without being able to identify the degree of association (Field, 2009). Third, the structural model only had two independent variables trying to predict seven variables, which can be problematic in that it limits the number of factors that may have an impacting role on the potential outcomes. Specifically in this case, the two independent variables could be combined to reflect one main construct that could lead to even more issues. Fourth, the survey was limited in the number of questions therefore it was not maximized to collecting additional items per construct that could have impacted the results. Other research can examine more items per construct that may provide more positive results of social media use. Fifth, a lack of quantitative studies in this area did not provide a foundation for understanding social media use. For this dissertation, social media use measures were developed rather than testing existing measures. Sixth, this dissertation used a mono-method that can create a bias in the investigation and may threaten the validity of the measures. Lastly, a few constructs had internal consistency reliability that did not meet the satisfactory measure of 0.70 or above.

7.3 Future Research

In spite of its limitations, this study provides an insight to the use of organizational social media technologies. Contrary to many studies that focus on personal social media use and external organizational use (i.e., branding, recruiting) (Huysman, 2011), this study provides an inside perspective of social media use. As researchers we understand the value that comes from investigating a phenomena (i.e.

internal social media). Whether or not organizations fully understand social media, it is important to note that social media have changed the way individuals work. As social media continues to mature, one may wonder: What's next for social media research? Even though some organizations have leveraged social media in innovative ways, organizations are still struggling to understand social media impacts. Therefore, the limitations in this dissertation can be addressed by future research solutions.

First, the results of this dissertation relied on data collection from one organization. Therefore, generalizability issues arise (Lee and Baskerville, 2003). Because social media users may have different purposes of use, organizations may implement social media technologies with a particular purpose in mind that impacts the experiences of social media users (Culnan et al., 2010). Social media use may also be regulated by organizational policies and procedures that limit how the social media tool is used (Koch, et al., 2010). When employees vary on the purpose of use and the amount of time that is spent using social media, the organizational impacts may differ. Many case studies (i.e., Culnan et al, 2010; DiGangi et al., 2010, Gallagher and Ransbotham, 2010; Koch, et al., 2012) have noted the benefits of social media. Future research should critically examine the use of internal social media technologies across organizations in order to better understand the phenomena and potentially create a social media taxonomy that helps organizations identify the potential for organizational benefits through social media use.

Second, although the results indicate that social media use has an impact on socialization and commitment, the results were not achieved from one structural model. The results were achieved by evaluating multiple structural models, followed by non-

parametric tests. Non-parametric tests cannot be used to define the degree of the relationship between two variables; therefore the findings are limited in interpretation (Field, 2009). The analyses provide insights to social media impacts on socialization and commitment, but the lack of significance and weak variance measures suggests that construct formation of social media use needs further development. This type of research is important because organizations strive to acclimate new hires and retain current employees (Kluwer, 2009-2012; Lesonsky, 2011). Thus, organizations implement socialization practices and tactics that will assist in new hire adjustment (Bauer and Erdogan, 2011). The potential of social media (Andriole, 2010) to facilitate socialization and commitment leads to a need to better understand the impacts of social media use and the items used to measure these impacts. Future research needs to advance how social media use can be measured by customizing the items and by aligning the embedded features of social media with the theoretical framework of socialization and commitment measures.

Third, the numbers of items per construct and the number of dependent variables were limited. The gathering of only two dependent variables to capture social media use inhibited the findings. There are other factors that may be used to describe and capture the dimensions of social media use (i.e., amount of time using social media, type of social media and tasks completed using social media) that can potentially be aligned with socialization tactics and practices (VanMannen and Schien, 1979). Future research can be enhanced by investigating other dimensions of social media use. Consequently, this may also increase the number of items per construct. A multi-item construct allows for the theoretical complexity of the domain of the construct to be captured (Cook and

Campbell, 1979). Future research can consider the need to further develop and identify measures that capture the multi-faceted domain of social media use.

Fourth, this dissertation was an initial attempt to quantify past qualitative studies on social media. Many studies on social media (i.e., Majchrzak et al., 2009; Leidner et al., 2010; and DiMicco et al., 2008) use qualitative approaches. The lack of quantitative research in this area suggests that a need for quantitative analyses exists. Future research needs to advance the case studies linking internal social media to positive organizational outcomes with quantitative evidence (Gray et al., 2011; Kiron 2012). In addition, embarking on a mono-method research approach may lead to bias findings. Future research could develop methodologies that are mixed methods in order to gain a better understanding of the impacts that social media has on previous findings on collaboration, learning, information sharing, knowledge management and communication (DiMicco et al., 2008; Moskaluluk and Kimmerle 2009; Culnan et al., 2010; Majchrzak et al., 2009) and the resulting impacts these factors have on key performance indicators such as turnover, innovation, and commitment (Gray et al., 2011; Leidner et al., 2010).

Because internal consistency reliability did not meet the .70 or above measure for knowledge of organizational culture, normative commitment and role clarity, Cronbach's alpha needs to be improved for these measures. It is likely that as the number of items increases, Cronbach's alpha increases (Hair et al., 2006). This reinforces the need for future research to include the appropriate number of items per construct. It becomes critical that the data collected be reliable. Reliability will ensure that the data collected does not limit the researcher's ability to conduct a thorough analysis of the results.

Future research needs to consider the limitations of the measurement instrument (i.e., survey) and collect a reasonable number of items per construct.

Further more, with the continuous advancement of social media tools, future research will need to investigate how the advancements like Web 3.0 and the big data generated from internal social media will impact organizations (Andriole 2010; Bonabeau 2009; Stolley 2009). It is predicted that the social media landscape will become more crowded in 2012; therefore organizations will need to pick what to use (King, 2012) and determine how it will lead to greater benefits. Although predictive analytics based on social media has gained momentum, there is still much to be learned about what works or does not work in social media (Pettit, 2010). Future predictive social media research will allow researchers to extract information from data about social media in order to predict what types of social media will evaporate over time and which social media are more likely to prosper (Pettit, 2010). Since organizations are fairly new to social media implementations, organizations want to avoid mishaps or major losses. While social media have potential, organizations may inappropriately invest in incorrect social media that do not result in the desired organizational outcome. Future research may attempt to identify the potential influencers (antecedents, moderators or mediators) of social media on organizational outcomes. If organizations want to experience positive outcomes, they will need to start using social media more strategically.

7.4 Conclusion

Social media has been perceived as a technology that has a potential for organizational benefits (Majchrak et al., 2009; DiMicco et al., 2008; Leidner et al, 2010; Koch et al., 2012). Organizations strive to maintain employee stability and minimize

costs that are involved in replacing old employees with new employees (Lesonsky, 2011). Previous studies have reported that new hires tend to leave the organization between 18 and 24 months of employment (Insala, 2010; Leidner, et al., 2010). Because of such turnover issues, organizations seek ways to acclimate and develop greater levels of commitment among new hires. If organizations are to leverage internal social media for socialization and commitment, it is important for organizations to understand how and what types of social media use lead to these two organizational outcomes. Organizations have been known to be hesitant about social media implementations, so how will they be able to determine if social media is the right tool for them or not? Instead of focusing on the external use of social media and the misperceptions of social media as a “waste of time” (Koch et al., 2011), the IS field can inform organizations of social media’s true potential and assist them in developing strategies that will guarantee positive organizational outcomes. Social media technologies are advancing and organizations continue to try to understand how these applications can be leveraged (Andriole, 2010). As such, this dissertation has found that there is a potential of social media use to develop two dimensions of socialization (i.e. knowledge of organizational culture and social acceptance) and two dimensions of commitment (i.e., affective and normative commitment). Socialization and commitment are important factors for organizations that they continuously seek ways to develop positive socialization experiences. Organizations who understand the capabilities embedded in social media and strategize to align social media features with socialization activities and commitment are more likely to find value in social media initiatives. Future research can provide insights about social media by developing constructs that can capture the complexity of social media use for

organizational outcomes. This will help organizations better understand how to maximize internal social media technologies.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

New Hire Survey

Use of Social Media for Socialization and Commitment

Construct	Scale
Section A: PERSONAL INFORMATION	
Personal Information	1. What is your official job title or position? 2. How long have you been working for this organization? 3. When did you first start using the social media tool?
Section B: SOCIALIZATION INFORMATION For the purposes of this survey, please consider those activities that would have a significant impact on your socialization experiences as a new hire. Please evaluate your experiences during this transitional period.	
Role Clarity (Kayworth and Leidner, 2001/2002)	4. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your position: e. I feel certain about how much authority I have in my position. f. I know what my responsibilities are. g. I know exactly what is expected of me. h. I feel that I have sufficient time to perform.
Self-Efficacy (Hsieh, Rai, and Keil, 2011)	5. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements: d. I feel comfortable in my position. e. I can easily perform job tasks on my own. f. I feel comfortable in my position even if there is no one around me to tell me how to perform a task.
Knowledge of Org Culture (Taormina, 2004 – Understanding Items only)	6. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire: f. I know very well how to get things done in this organization. g. I have a full understanding of my duties in this organization. h. The goals of this organization have been made very explicit. i. I have a good knowledge of the way this organization operates. j. This organization’s objectives are understood by almost everyone who works here.
Social Acceptance (Taormina, 2004 – Co-Worker Support Items only)	7. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire: f. Other workers have helped me on the job in various ways. g. My co-workers are usually willing to offer their assistance or advice. h. Most of my co-workers have accepted me as a member of this company. i. My co-workers have done a great deal to help me adjust to this

	<p>organization. j. My relationships with other workers in this company are very good. (1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)</p>
<p>Section C: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT INFORMATION The questions in this section pertain to your commitment to the organization. Please evaluate your organizational commitment.</p>	
<p>Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment (Adapted from Allen and Meyer, 1990)</p>	<p>8. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning your experiences as a new hire:</p> <p>Affective Commitment:</p> <p>m. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. n. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it. o. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. p. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)</p> <p>Continuance Commitment:</p> <p>q. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. (R) r. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. s. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. t. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.</p> <p>Normative Commitment:</p> <p>u. I think that people these days move from company to company too often. v. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. (R) w. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. x. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.</p> <p>An "R" denotes a negatively phrased and reverse scored item.</p> <p>(1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)</p>
<p>Section D: SOCIAL NETWORKING SYSTEM USAGE INFORMATION The questions in this section pertain to your use of Nexus.</p>	
<p>Use of SNS (Adapted from Ellison, Steinfield and Lampe, 2007)</p>	<p>9. Please rate the following statements using the scale indicated concerning your use of the SNS.</p> <p>Frequency:</p> <p>a. In the past week, on average, approximately how many hours per day have you spent on the SNS?</p>

	<p>(1= less than 1 hour, 2 = between 1-2 hrs, 3 = between 2-3 hrs, 4 = between 3-4 hrs, 5 = more than 4 hrs)</p> <p>b. The SNS is part of my everyday activity. c. I feel out of touch when I haven't logged onto the SNS for a while. d. The SNS has become part of my daily routine.</p> <p>(1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)</p>
<p>Type of SNS Use (Self-developed based on previous studies by Leidner, Koch, and Gonzalez, 2010; Koch, Gonzalez, and Leidner 2011; Majchrzak, 2009)</p>	<p>10. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements concerning the SNS:</p> <p>Work-Related Purposes:</p> <p>n. I use social media to post updates on work projects. (C) o. I use social media to set up meetings with colleagues about work projects. (C) p. I use social media to share information about organizational objectives with colleagues. (I) q. I use social media to share information about organizational policies and procedures. (I) r. I use social media to organize my working files. (D) s. I use social media to upload credible information for future use. (D) t. I use social media to share my expertise in a particular area. (K) u. I use social media to gain access to others with expertise in a particular area. (K)</p> <p>Social-Related Purposes:</p> <p>v. I use social media for setting up a social event with co-workers after working hours. w. I use social media to make friends within the organization. x. I use social media when I feel I need a break from work. y. I use social media to chat with others while at work. z. I use social media to find people with similar interests.</p> <p>Key: C = Collaboration, I = Information Sharing, D = Document Management, K = Knowledge Repositories</p> <p>(1=No Extent, 2=Small Extent, 3=Some Extent, 4=Large Extent, 5=Very Great Extent)</p>
<p>Section E: IMPACTS OF THE USE OF SOCIAL NETWORKING SYSTEM For purposes of this survey, please consider how the use of social media has made an impact.</p>	
<p>IT Satisfaction (Adapted from Doll and Torzadeh, 1988)</p>	<p>11. Please rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements concerning your use the social networking system:</p> <p>a. The SNS provides the precise information that you need. b. The SNS provides sufficient information. c. The SNS is easy to use. d. The SNS is user friendly. e. The SNS presents the output in a useful manner. f. The information is clear. g. The SNS provides up-to-date information. h. I am satisfied with the SNS.</p>

	(1=No Extent, 2=Small Extent, 3=Some Extent, 4=Large Extent, 5=Very Great Extent)
Job Satisfaction (Adapted from Lounsbury, Moffitt, Gibson, Drost, and Stevens, 2007)	<p>12. Please assess your overall satisfaction with the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Job Work Tasks b. Compensation c. Opportunities for Advancement d. Job Security e. Coworkers f. Supervision g. Job As A Whole <p>(1=Very Dissatisfied, 2=Dissatisfied, 3=Somewhat Satisfied, 4=Satisfied, 5=Very Satisfied)</p>

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