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Connecting Formal Mentoring Empirical Principles to the Applied World

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Connecting Formal Mentoring Empirical Principles to the Applied World

by

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

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Honors Thesis

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This is to certify that the Honors Thesis of

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Abstract

Onboarding is a process in which new employees develop the knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes to succeed in their new job and within their new organization (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Outcomes of successful onboarding include the development of a professional identity, increased job performance, role clarity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and reduced withdrawal intentions (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). One specific onboarding tactic organizations implement to spread the information of the company to new employees, allowing them to adjust, is through a mentoring program. Research suggests mentored individuals are more satisfied with their career, more likely to believe that they would advance in their career, and more likely to be committed to their career than non-mentored co-workers (Allen, 2004). Furthermore, Allen and colleagues' (2004) meta-analytic analysis of mentorship programs called for more studies to provide support in creating a robust understanding of workplace mentoring in organizations. Bauer and Erdogan (2011) explained the need for various longitudinal studies to gain a better picture of the socialization process, and Lawler and Hall (1970) highlighted the need for a stronger support between the relationship of job involvement and job characteristics in the onboarding processes. The present study looks to strengthen the current state of literature by conducting a formal mentoring program intervention using a repeated measures within-subject design to clarify the dynamic relationship between empirically supported principles of mentoring and role clarity, job involvement, and job characteristics. Specifically, this study tested the intervention of a formal mentoring program over a thirty-day period with two self-report survey time points for individuals within an organization in the Southeast region of the United States. Overall, this study failed to find significant results, thereby failing to support the hypothesized relationship between a mentoring intervention, and role clarity and job involvement.

Introduction

Issue

The hiring and onboarding process contains numerous challenges for an organization. For example, job elasticity, the ability of an economy to create more job opportunities, continues to rise, thus, providing more opportunities to employees to switch their jobs. Indeed, the average individual in the United States holds 11.7 jobs from the age of 18-48 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015), an increase from 10 jobs in 2004. The growth of employment change creates an increase in the number of individuals an organization sends through their selection, hiring, and onboarding process. When an individual obtains a job position in an organization, the new hire needs to learn the organization's processes and culture. While the new hire goes through the onboarding process: salary, orientation, training, and drainage of others employee's time tax the organization (Rollag, Parise, & Cross, 2005).

Ultimately, hiring a new employee brings new demands to any organization. Rollag (2005) summarized the above into three challenges organizations face when attempting to hire a new employee quickly. The first examines how new hires drain productivity by demanding more resources than the average employee (Williams, 2003). The second describes the emergence of a gridlock or a withholding of new ideas from new employee’s creativity. This lack of information sharing occurs when a new employee is not familiar with the culture norms of the organization, causing them to not share ideas and experiences that could potentially benefit the organization (Wang & Noe, 2010). Lastly, companies must face the challenge of employee attrition. The highest chance of turnover peaks when an individual has completed eighteen months of service to the company (Dickter, 1996).

Additionally, Bradt and colleagues (2009) noted that an employee's inefficiency to complete a specific task while at work stems from four types of failures: role, personal, relationship, and/or engagement failure. Role failures occur from an unclear understanding of one's job requirements. For example, a new employee is required to send out weekly meeting notes to all attendees; however, the first week they did not send the meeting notes out to the team because they did not know this role was theirs. Personal failure is related to individual strengths and motivation. For example, a new employee tells himself that he is not good at using a specific software. When his manager asks them to use that specific software to turn in a report, his motivation is low and leads to poor performance. Relationship failure occurs from an interpersonal conflict that leads to withholding information or resources, causing that individual not to deliver on their task. For example, a new project manager receives new demands from their client's order. However, the project manager chooses not to tell the sales representative in fear that the sales representative will ruin the sale; ultimately leading to a miscommunication and loss of the entire sale. Lastly, engagement failure happens when a new hire does not engage with the rest of their team or superiors, which leads to communication errors. For example, a new hire feels they do not fully understand the team discussion in their Monday meetings and chooses not to ask questions in fear of looking unintelligent, and believes will learn eventually. However, this failure to ask questions leads the team to appoint the new hire with a task the new hire didn't know how to complete. Despite all of these failures highlighting the individual employee, organizations processes have the ability to anticipate and adjust for these inefficiencies to mitigate the chance of them occurring.

In sum, the growing economic market and a generation of employees who like to change jobs more frequently make for a more fluid workforce than we have ever had in the past. This

creates a challenge for organizations not just through increased hiring demands, but also in trying to quickly anticipate the potential pitfalls these new hires experience when brought into an organization.

Solution

The four reasons new employees fail to deliver on their tasks when brought to an organization (role, personnel, relationship, and engagement) can be addressed, in part, through changes in organizational policy and procedures. Organizations need to take the new employee and transform them from an outsider to an insider. This process is called organizational socialization or onboarding (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). By onboarding new hires, an organization can inform them about the expectations of their role in the company, gather information about their personal strengths, influence relationships by introducing the new hires to their team before giving them tasks, and promote engagement through activities on work collaboration (Bradt, et. al., 2009). Since research has identified the four main reasons new hires fail, organizations have the opportunity to develop a competitive advantage by addressing those issues head on through effective onboarding. But to do this, human resource departments must be able to identify, develop, implement, and evaluate effective onboarding processes.

Emerging Research

Onboarding can improve employee effectiveness, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational withdrawal (Bauer et al., 2007), thus solving the challenges of productivity, creativity, attrition, and potential failures of a new hire. Most research examining the onboarding process captures socialization tactics such as orientation or mentoring programs (Baurer, 2011), adjustments such as role clarity (Baurer, 2011; Adkins, 1995), and attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction (Baurer et al., Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003).

Although research has highlighted the benefits of onboarding, previous studies typically rely on lengthy surveys and, if longitudinal data is collected, it is often over relatively large timescales (e.g., three months) (Baurer, 2007). Research suggests that these data collection periods of the onboarding processes do not adequately provide the full picture of what these new hires experience, particularly attitudinal adjustments throughout the onboarding process (Fisher, 1986). For example, role clarity has been found to fluctuate through the first twelve months of working at an organization (Bauer, 2011). However, the research does not suggest what the exact longitudinal nature of these changes may be. Typically, studies have only noted a decrease and then an increasing trend from the three-month interval surveys within a total of a six month period (Bauer, 2011).

Bauer and Erdogan (2011) called for various longitudinal studies to allow research to capture a better picture of this process. Additionally, requesting further research of the onboarding processes of mentoring to examine the difference in adjustments over time between mentor/protégé dyadic relationships across different industries. Allen and colleagues' (2004) meta-analysis on mentorship programs requested more studies to provide support in creating a robust understanding of the impacts of mentoring programs in organizations and on the individual employees. Ultimately, research is emerging about onboarding programs, but one area that needs attention is in understanding the effects of such programs on employee attitudes within those different data points.

Mentoring's Theoretical Development

To further explain mentoring's impact on attitudinal changes of protégés within a thirty day period, the onboarding processes needs to be further defined. Organizational socialization or onboarding contains many intricate parts. However, it is only one part of Bauer's socialization

model. Bauer (2011) created a socialization model to illustrate the role of onboarding within the process of a new employee becoming an insider within the organization. The input variables highlighted were new employee characteristics, new employee behaviors, and organization efforts (i.e. all variables from both the individual and organization). Onboarding programs would be considered organizational efforts within the context of this model. Next, the process variables in the model are role clarity, self-efficacy, acceptance by organizational insiders, and knowledge of organizational culture (i.e. all variables that could change while working together). The outcome variables include job satisfaction, commitment, turnover, and performance (i.e. the results of working together).

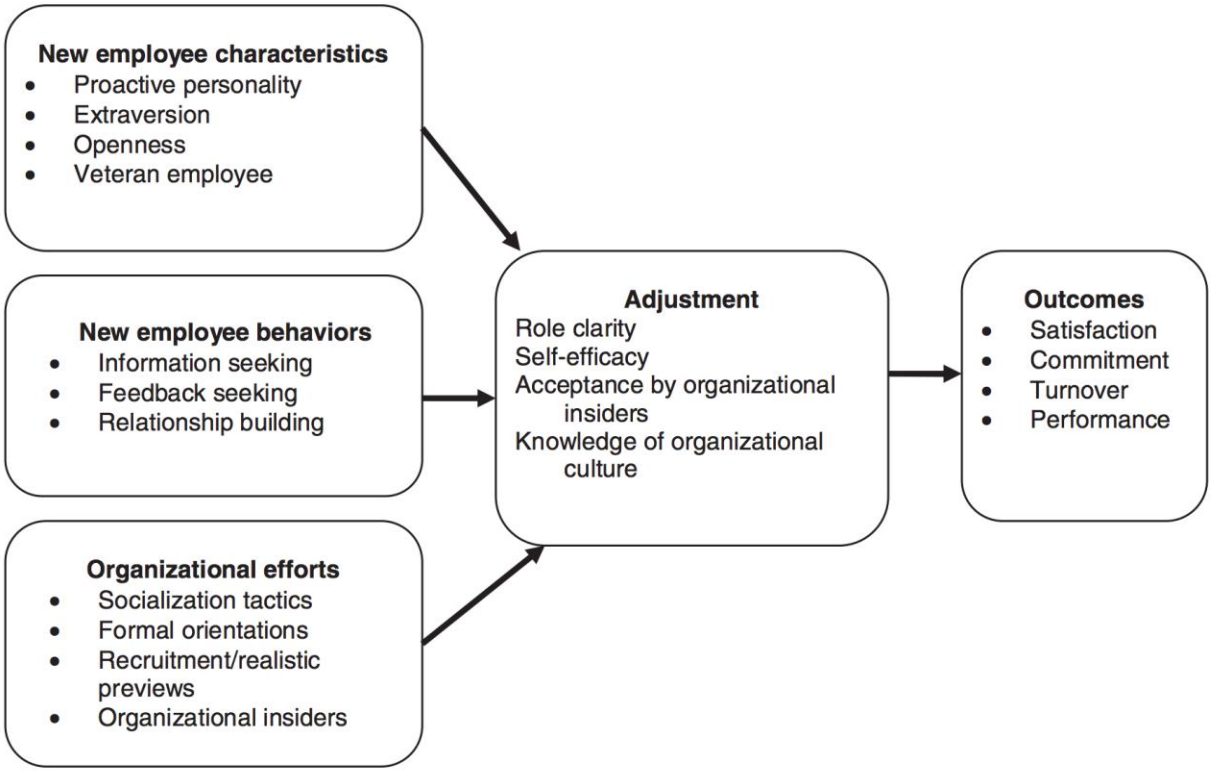

Figure 1. Adapted from Bauer and Erdogan's model of socialization (2011).

Organizational socialization tactics or onboarding specify a particular form of an organizational effort, an input variable from the organizational socialization model above. Thus,

the onboarding tactic of mentoring would represent an input variable in socialization model. Bauer (2007) defined socialization tactics as "organizational approaches to information dissemination to facilitate adjustment in new roles" (p.709). One specific tactic organizations implement to spread the information of the company to new employees, allowing them to adjust through social interaction is a mentoring program. Mentoring has gained popularity in three key areas: mentoring youth, teacher-student mentoring, and workplace mentoring, each with slightly different definitions (Allen & Eby, 2007). This study focuses on workplace mentoring as an onboarding tactic.

Due to the success of workplace mentorship programs, research has been gaining a stronger understanding of its positive effects on protégés. (Allen, 2006). Research suggests mentored individuals are more satisfied with their career, more likely to believe that they would advance in their career, and more likely to be committed to their career than non-mentored co-workers (Allen, 2004). Mentoring programs look to solve the outcomes of retention issues and improve employee efficacy over time. There are two types of workplace mentoring, career related and psychosocial (Noe, 1988). Noe explains that career-related mentoring focuses on career development and allows opportunities for protégés to advance in their careers. This mentoring includes promotion, exposure, and access to resources. The second function of workplace mentoring is psychosocial support, which allows protégés to increase their competence, identity, and role effectiveness within the organization. This includes the mentor acting as a role model, a champion of the protégé, a counselor to settle initial anxieties, and an informal friend (Noe, 1988).

Social learning theory (SLT) explains the success of mentoring. SLT states that observational learning positively impacts an individual's self-efficacy to complete a task.

Additionally, this perceived ability to perform a task strengthens when that individual can practice and experience what they observed (Bandura, 1977). Mentoring relates to SLT through career related and psychosocial mentoring. Through the mentoring process, the mentor allows opportunities for the protégé to observe them completing tasks similar to what the protégé will do in the future. After observation the protégé mirrors the mentor by practicing what they notice, allowing the protégé to learn and develop particular skills within the workplace. This development contributes to the productivity of that particular organization, demonstrating that workplace mentoring, supported by social learning theory, directly benefits new employees within an organization as part of the onboarding process.

Eby, Rhodes, and Allen (2007) provide seven relational dimensions of how pairs within a dyadic mentoring relationship interact. First, the seven relational dimensions will be defined below, and then the application of how this study fits within those seven dimensions will be examined. The first dimension focuses on context, whether the relationship is in an academic, community/youth, or workplace. For example, in a workplace mentoring relationship a manager might act as a role model for another employee trying to develop into a management position within the company. The second is determined by the scope of influence, whether the relationship is likely to impact each party's academic, social, career, or personal life. For example, a professor may act as a mentor to a student wishing to obtain a certain degree. The scope of the influence would be academic. The third dimension focuses on the degree of mutuality or reciprocity between the two, whether both parties receive some intrinsic or extrinsic reward from the relationship. For example, a mentor at work may provide knowledge to their protégé while the mentor receives the intrinsic reward of feeling good about helping someone. In the end both feel they have given and received an equal amount. The fourth dimension explains

the relationships initiation, whether a third party matches the mentor and protégé (i.e., formal) or the pair authentically matches (i.e., informal). For example, if a company asks all of their managers to mentor an assigned protégé in their department, then this initiation would be formal. The fifth dimension examines relational closeness, which varies from low to high depending the amount of self-disclosure or how much each shares about themselves with each other. For example, if the mentor and protégé do not disclose too much information to each other about work and or experiences outside of work, then the relational closeness would be low. This is because they both do not know much about each other. The sixth dimension focuses on whether the dyadic interaction is required. For example, most mentoring relationships the pair must communicate and interact to set expectations. Most mentoring relationships are required (Eby et al., 2007). The only type of mentor relationship not required is role modeling (Eby et al., 2007) because the protégé can watch and develop new skills from observation and practice. Lastly, the seventh dimension focuses on the power difference between the mentor and the protégé, which varies depending on the type of relationship, and how and why they were paired. For example, a manager can mentor another manager, and the power difference can be small. However, a partner at a law firm could mentor a new intern, and the power difference would be high.

The present study focuses on a formal workplace mentor-protégé relationship that targets the social and career goals of the new hire. The interaction between the two is required, and the power difference between the two varies due to the organization matching the mentor and protégé based on multiple similarities not only job description or job title.

The study's purpose looks to strengthen the current state of literature by conducting a formal mentoring program intervention using a repeated measures within-subject design to clarify the dynamic relationship between empirically supported principles of mentoring and role

clarity, job involvement, and job characteristics. Specifically, this study will test the intervention of a formal mentoring program over a thirty-day period with two self-report survey time points for individuals within an organization in the Southeast region of the United States.

Research has found that mentoring as an onboarding process affects the adjustment of role clarity. Bauer and Erdogan (2011) define *role clarity* as how well a newcomer feels about the job requirements and expectations. Role clarity requires referent information which entails knowing job instructions, job rational, organizational procedures, organizational goals, nuances of rules, information networks, amount of responsibility, job goals, reason for doing task, job procedures, how to get a promotion or raise, new ideas or ways to do things, what work needs to be done, interpretations of activities or events, and meaning of organizational symbols (Miller & Jablin, 1991). Role clarity is associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance (Aldkins, 1995), and turnover intentions (Bauer, 2007). Thus, an intervention that increases role clarity should have a positive impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and performance.

Role clarity has been found to increase and decrease over yearlong periods while new employees go through an onboarding process within an organization (Bauer et al., 2011). However, as stated earlier, these data points were taken at three-month intervals, and thus fail to provide the level of granularity needed to understand the relationship between mentoring interventions and role clarity. With the limited amount of research examining role clarity adjustment at a granular level, only general patterns can be determined. Typically, role clarity decreases from the start date to the end of the first three months and rises from the third month to the sixth month while in the organization (Bauer et al., 2011). Here lies the gap in the research. Research does not know the exact time point in which role clarity decreases, only that it

decreases within the first three months. Additionally, research shows that over long periods of time onboarding efforts positively affect role clarity, which can predict other positive attitudes and behaviors; despite role clarity decreasing after the first three months of onboarding. However, organizations can attempt to intervene within the first three months to eliminate and or reverse the decrease in role clarity from their first day or baseline reading. Thus, this study looks to enhance role clarity adjustment by implementing the intervention of a mentoring program a part of an organizations onboarding processes as research shows that mentored individuals are more satisfied with their career, more likely to believe that they would advance in their career, and more likely to be committed to their career than non-mentored co-workers (Allen, 2004). By measuring the adjustment of role clarity over a thirty-day period within an organization instead of three months, this study uncovers whether the mentoring intervention increases role clarity adjustment instead of decreasing as past research has found with no intervention. This leads the first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: Role clarity will increase within thirty days after the formal mentor program intervention.

Aside from role clarity, other variables can help determine key outcomes of mentoring interventions. For example, job involvement is "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or importance of work in their total self-image" (Lodahl & Kenjer, 1965). Job involvement has also been shown to be distinct from job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mathieu, 1991; Lawler & Hall, 1970). Lodahl (1965) concluded that individuals with high job involvement are typically leaders, intelligent, hold team-involvement positions, satisfied with their job, and motivated. Job involvement is related to important outcomes such as a supervisor reported performance, organizational citizenship

behavior (Diefendorff, 2002) and psychosocial benefits (Noe, 1988). In context to this mentoring invention, Noe (1988) found positive findings of psychosocial benefits within protégés that reported high job involvement when in a mentoring relationship. Thus, this mentoring invention should increase the job involvement scores of protégés, allowing to predict positive outcomes such as performance and organizational citizenship behavior. This leads the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Job involvement will increase within thirty days after the formal mentor program intervention.

Method

Data was collected from a company implementing a formal mentoring program to onboard new hires into their organization. This study used self-report survey responses of role clarity, job involvement, and job characteristics, the dependent variables, with a repeated measures within-subject design.

Participants

Participants were new hires brought into the organization starting January 1, 2017. A total of thirty-five new hires were brought into the program. On average six new hires were brought in weekly. A total of thirty-one responded to the baseline survey sent on their first day, and eleven responded the post-intervention survey, thirty days into the program. No demographic data was collected from these participants.

Procedures

The organization nominated senior employees as mentors for incoming new hires. Before introducing the mentors and new hires, the first round of surveys were sent to the new hires within the first 24 to 48 hours of starting with the company. Once completed both the mentors

and new hires were brought to a kickoff meeting to match the two based on workload similarities and personal characteristics. The organization provided instructions on the three-month mentoring program. The pairs signed a contract stating their responsibilities to each other. After thirty days the new hire/protégé received their second survey through their email asking them to participate in a non-mandatory fifteen-minute survey. The survey in the email was accessible through a link provided in the text.

Data collection: An online software (Qualtrics) collected all data for this study. Participants were informed through the online consent that responses were voluntary and anonymous. To prevent gathering identifiable information while connecting data longitudinally, this study asks participants to make non-identifiable codes each time they fill out the survey. The delivery of surveys to employee emails was scheduled based on each protégé's starting date. Participants received the link to the survey within 24 to 48 hours of starting with the organization. Reminder emails were sent at the end of the week if the response rate was not 100%. Thirty days after the first survey was sent, the same survey was sent out again.

Measures

Role clarity was measured using a three-item scale developed by Cammann and colleagues which assess the "attitudes and perceptions of organizational members" (1983, p. 78). Participants responded to items on a five-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Items are located in appendix A. The scale was found to have an adequate reliability (a = .86)

Job Involvement was measured using an eight-item scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) which assess the "degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in their total self-image" (p. 27-28). Participants responded to

items on a five-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Items are located in appendix A. The scale was found to have an adequate reliability (a = .77)

Job Characteristics was measured using a seventeen-item developed by Hackman (1971) assessed the six sub-dimensions; variety, autonomy, task identity, feedback, dealing with others, and friendship opportunities. Job characteristics do not change unless the nature of the job changes. Thus, job characteristics can be used as an experimental control variable, which should not change as a result of the intervention. Participants responded to items on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = very little, 4 = moderate, 7 = very much). Items are located in appendix A. The scale was found to have an adequate reliability (a = 92)

Results

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are provided in Table 1. Table 1 used all thirty-one responses for time one results and all eleven responses for time two results. Additionally, hypotheses were tested using paired samples t-tests. All t-tests used the data from the eleven participants who completed both surveys, not the twenty who did not complete the second survey. Hypotheses 1 proposed that role clarity would increase within thirty days after the mentor program intervention. Individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (n = 11, M = *5.33 SD* = 1.27) did not have a significant increase in role clarity scores in time period two (n = 11, *M = 5.66 SD = 1.19; t(10)*= -0.77, p = .46), therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Hypotheses 2 proposed that job involvement would increase following a formal mentoring program intervention. Individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (n = 11, *M = 5.27 SD = 0.75*) did not have a significant increase in job involvement scores in

time period two (*n* = 11, *M = 5.25 SD = 0.74; t(10)*= 0.22, *p* = .82), therefore, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

To determine if changes were due to the targeted intervention, or growth/maturation, we also captured a variable, job characteristics, that could have, but should not have changed over time, and would not be related to the intervention. Individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 11, *M* = 4.57 *SD* = 2.32) did not have a significant increase in job characteristic scores in time period two (*n* = 11, *M* = 5.28 *SD* = 1.18*; t(10)*= -1.32, *p* = .21).

Additionally, the sub-variables of job characteristics were examined. For *variety*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 11, *M* = 4.68 *SD* = 2.53) did not have a significant increase in the job characteristic score of variety in time period two (*n* = 11, *M* = 5.13 *SD* = 1.61*; t(10)*= -0.60, *p* = .56). For *autonomy*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 11, *M* = 4.59 *SD* = 2.20) did not have a significant increase in the job characteristic score of autonomy in time period two (*n* = 11, *M* = 5.04 *SD* = 1.68*; t(10)*= -1.15, *p* = .28). For *task identity*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 10, *M* = 4.95 *SD* = 1.88) did not have a significant increase in the job characteristic score of task identity in time period two (*n* = 11, *M* = 4.81 *SD* = 1.30*; t(9)*= -0.18, *p* = .85). For *feedback*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 9, *M* = 5.38 *SD* = 1.02) did not report a significant increase in the job characteristic of feedback in time period two (*n* = 9, *M* = 5.27 *SD* = 1.52*; t(8)*= 0.10, *p* = .92. For *dealing with others*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 9, *M* = 6.05 *SD* = 0.95) did not report a significant increase in the job characteristic of dealing with others in time period two (*n* = 9, *M* = 5.77 *SD* = 0.98*; t(8)*= 0.00, *p* = 1.0). Lastly, for *friendship opportunities*, individuals starting the onboarding processes in time period one (*n* = 9, *M* = 5.39 *SD* = 0.96) did not report a

significant increase in the job characteristic of friendship opportunities in time period two (n = 9, M = 5.68 SD = 1.29; $t(8)$= -2.06, p = .07).

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations of Study Variables

	M *SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Job Characteristics Time 1 Total	*4.57* *0.75*	1																	
2. Job Characteristics Time 2 Total	*5.66* *1.19*	**.64***	1																
3. Variety-Job Characteristics Time 1	*4.68* *2.53*	**.92****	.59	1															
4. Variety-Job Characteristics Time 2	*5.13* *1.61*	.38	**.93****	.33	1														
5. Autonomy-Job Characteristics Time 1	*4.59* *2.32*	**.92****	.56	**.94****	.31	1													
6. Autonomy-Job Characteristics Time 2	*5.04* *1.68*	**.88****	**.76****	**.83****	.55	**.83****	1												
7. Task Identity-Job Characteristics Time 1	*4.95* *1.87*	**.86****	.50	**.68****	.20	**.71****	**.86****	1											
8. Task Identity-Job Characteristics Time 2	*5.05* *1.11*	.53	**.86****	.47	**.79****	.49	.56	.46	1										
9. Feedback-Job Characteristics Time 1	*3.38* *1.02*	**.90****	.10	**.79****	.27	**.85****	-.03	**.63****	-.02	1									

Table 1 (Continued)

	M *SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
10. Feedback-Job Characteristics Time 2	*5.33* *1.62*	.24	**.82****	.21	**.909****	.17	.40	.20	**.76****	.30	1								
11. Dealing with Others-Job Characteristics Time 1	*6.05* *0.95*	**.88****	.55	**.74****	.53	**.69****	**.79***	**.80****	.05	**.68****	.47	1							
12. Dealing with Others-Job Characteristics Time 2	*6.05* *0.80*	**.68***	**.85****	**.64***	**.73***	.60	**.79****	.55	**.64***	.01	.47	.44	1						
13. Friendship Opportunities-Job Characteristics Time 1	*5.39* *0.96*	**.82****	.57	**.55****	.46	**.55****	.63	**.75****	.43	**.71****	.48	**.79****	.33	1					
14. Friendship Opportunities-Job Characteristics Time 2	*5.94* *0.81*	.51	**.79****	.52	**.70***	.46	.56	-.06	.59	-.27	.49	.57	**.72***	.59	1				
15. Role Clarity Time 1	*5.33* *1.27*	**.65****	.14	**.55****	.08	**.57****	.26	**.58****	.10	**.55****	.11	**.67****	.08	**.52****	.07	1			
16. Role Clarity Time 2	*5.66* *1.19*	.59	**.81****	**.61***	**.76****	.60	.56	.38	**.76****	-.05	**.66***	.07	**.62***	-.05	**.73****	.32	1		
17. Job Involvement Time 1	*5.28* *0.75*	**.61****	**.69***	**.50****	.52	**.51****	**.71***	**.52****	**.61***	**.45***	.33	**.51****	**.73****	**.55****	**.64***	.17	.49	1	
18. Job Involvement Time 2	*5.25* *0.74*	**.77****	**.80****	**.73***	**.63***	**.69***	**.76****	**.68***	**.72***	-.04	.41	.22	**.93****	.36	**.65***	.15	**.62***	**.84****	1

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Job Involvement Total Time 1 - Job Involvement Total Time 2	0.02760	0.41337	0.12464	-0.25011	0.30531	0.221	10	0.829
Role clarity total time 1 - Role clarity total time 2	-0.33333	1.43759	0.43345	-1.29912	0.63245	-0.769	10	0.460
Job Characteristics Time 1 Total - .Job Characteristics Time 2 Total	-0.71753	1.80780	0.54507	-1.93203	0.49696	-1.316	10	0.217
Variety Time 1 - Variety Time 2	-0.45455	2.50454	0.75515	-2.13712	1.22803	-0.602	10	0.561
Autonomy Time 1 – Autonomy Time 2	-0.45455	1.31253	0.39574	-1.33631	0.42722	-1.149	10	0.277
Task Identity Time 1 – Task Identity Time 2	-0.10000	1.67995	0.53125	-1.30176	1.10176	-0.188	9	0.855
Feedback Time 1 – Feedback Time 2	0.05556	1.62874	0.54291	-1.19640	1.30751	0.102	8	0.921
Dealing With Others Time 1 – Dealing With Others Time 2	0.00000	0.93541	0.31180	-0.71902	0.71902	0.000	8	1.000
Friendship Opportunities Time 1 - Friendship Opportunities Time 2	-0.55556	0.80795	0.26932	-1.17660	0.06549	-2.063	8	0.073

Discussion

Findings

Overall, results failed to support the hypotheses that a mentoring intervention would increase role clarity and job involvement within the first thirty days of the intervention. It is worth noting that scores for role clarity did increase from period one to period two, but given the small sample size, these changes failed to reach significance, despite trending in the expected direction.

Additionally, the constant variable, job characteristics, did not change enough to be statistically significant. If the change in role clarity and or job involvement were statistically significant, then the measurement of job characteristics would have further proven the strength of the relationship of the mentoring intervention and change in role clarity and job involvement. However, no significant relationships were found within the thirty-day period to conclude that the lack of change in job characteristics emphasized the impact of the mentoring intervention.

Limitations

Overall, the study faced several limitations that could partially explain the lack of significant results of hypothesis testing. First is the small sample size. The first time point received thirty-one responses. However, the second received eleven responses, thus severely limiting the power of this study.

Second, the time the participants took the first survey was not monitored or required on the first day of work. Emails with the survey for new hires to participate were sent out on their first day at the company. However, since the survey was voluntary and available via the Internet, participants could have taken the first survey at any point during their onboarding process. If many participants did wait to take the survey, then scores might not have changed as much since the protégés already have been influenced by the intervention.

Third, the quality and frequency of interaction was not measured in time 1 or time 2 surveys. If a protégé perceived the quality of their dyadic relationship with their mentor to be poor, then there is the possibility that role clarity and job involvements scores would be different than individuals with a high-perceived quality of the interaction. Additionally, this applies to the frequency in which the pair met over the thirty-day period. All dyadic relationships contain unique interactions in which some individuals might receive more attention then others. Thus, if

these two measures were used, then there is the potential to explain the large variance in scores captured in this study. Furthermore, some mentors had multiple protégés allowing the dynamic of the relationships to be diluted in regards to the definition and dimensions of a workplace mentoring relationship. After data collection, the organization stated that finding mentors was difficult. Thus, some mentors received multiple new hires to be their protégés.

Fourth, the high initial scores of job involvement and role clarity could be a result of the Hawthorne Effect. The Hawthorne effect is a positive effect of an intervention resulting from the participants' knowledge that they are involved in a study or their feeling that they are in some way receiving special attention (Fraenkel & Hyun, 1993). This study was a new intervention for the organization's onboarding processes, and the hiring employees could have informed the new hires they were a part of a "special" program, causing their scores to start high.

Fifth, the time frame of the two surveys might have been too close to each other thus failing to capture true changes that may have occurred after data collection. The entire mentoring program in the organization was ninety days. However, this study only examined the first thirty days of the program. Participant's expectations of a change in job involvement and or role clarity could have been for the end of the program, not within the first thirty days.

Theoretical Implications

Overall, this study contains multiple contributions to research. First, despite the lack of significant change in role clarity scores, mean scores did increase. As discussed above, this study examined role clarity adjustment a granular level and this short period of time could explain the lack of significance in the findings. However, the intervention could have still been the cause of the increase in mean scores of role clarity. Thus, potentially showing the nuances of role clarity with social learning theory in a formal mentoring intervention.

Secondly, this project contributes to the literature by providing another sample to represent the multiple forms of workplace mentoring relationships in literature. Addressing, Allen and colleagues (2004) call for more studies to provide support in creating a robust understanding of workplace mentoring in organizations. This particular study adds to the literature that examines workplace mentoring as an intervention of an onboarding process using a repeated measures within subjects design, advancing researchers understanding of role clarity, job involvement, and job characteristics in a thirty day period of the onboarding process.

Thirdly, this study allows other researchers to see the temporal stability of job involvement and role clarity within the first thirty days of a mentoring intervention, as they did not increase or decrease significantly.

Lastly, these results show insight into Bauer and colleagues' findings that role clarity decreases from the start of a new job to the end of the first three months (Bauer et al., 2011). These findings allow the opportunity to conclude that the decrease in role clarity Bauer and colleagues documented might not happen until the second or third month while a new hire is in a company as this study saw no decrease in role clarity within the first thirty days. Certainly, however, the theoretical implications of this study are limited given the failure to find significant results, likely due to underpowered analyses.

Practical Implications

Overall, there are a few practical implications of this study. First, this study shows that empirical findings might not fully represent the population practitioners are trying to manipulate. Thus, this study sheds light on the importance for practitioners to carefully examine the empirical research they are using to determine particular programs to implement within organizations. Slight differences in procedures, (e.g. measuring variables at different times from

other studies) and samples (e.g. some mentors have one protégé and others might have more) could produce non-significant results. Second, if practitioners notice a decline in role clarity and job involvement within new hires, this study shows that implementing a mentoring intervention may help prevent this decrease as these scores did not significantly change in this study.

Future Research

Future research should address four main concerns from this study. First, research should capture many time points during the intervention to give research a full temporal picture of that particular intervention implemented. For this particular study, surveys captured every thirty days until the end of their second year with the organization's consent would show a much more clear picture of employee's attitudes toward their job involvement and role clarity throughout the process. Thus, allowing research to find critical moments when scores might change and provide additional resources to those employees at those particular time points.

Second, future researchers should capture a larger sample size as this particular intervention contained only eleven responses for both surveys, a thirty-one percent completion rating. More participants are needed to give power to the statistical analysis. This will give researchers the ability to make stronger conclusions on the relationships of role clarity, job involvement, and job characteristics within a mentoring intervention

Third, researchers should consider capturing more variables including specific items listed in Bauer and Erdogan's socialization model (2011). Recommended variables for future research are: frequency of mentor/protégé interaction, quality of mentor/protégé interaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover, and performance. Measuring these additional variables allow research to find potential mediating and moderating effects. Also, allowing researchers to find critical moments in the onboarding processes in which certain variables might

change due to other variable changes. Thus, contributing to both Bauer and Erdogan (2011) call for more longitudinal onboarding studies and Allen and colleague's (2004) call for more diverse mentoring.

Lastly, future research should ensure the procedures of the intervention remain constant across all participants. This allows for more certainty that the results occurred from the intervention, not other variables that were not measured. In anticipation for the possibility of changes, the research team should attempt to capture all responses within a similarly short period of time and monitor any changes to the procedures. This study saw these changes over a three-month period as mentors in the first month received one protégé and by the end received multiple. Thus, adding a potential limitation to the data collected. Future research must attempt to hold as many variables and procedures constant across data collection, especially in an applied setting as it is more difficult than a controlled lab study.

Conclusion

Overall, this study failed to find significant results, thereby failing to support the hypothesized relationship between a mentoring intervention as an onboarding process and the adjustment of role clarity and job involvement. Although most mean scores changed from period one to period two and the constant variable did not significantly change, scores were not significant enough to conclude the mentoring intervention caused the change in mean scores. However, this study sheds light on the temporal stability of role clarity and job involvement within the first thirty days of a mentoring intervention. Specifically, this study shows role clarity's stability, as it did not decrease significantly over the first thirty days. However, this relationship was found in prior studies (Baurer et al., 2011). All in all, further research is needed

to conclude a mentoring interventions impact on role clarity and job involvement as part of an onboarding process within an organization.

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Appendix A: Measures

Role clarity: a five-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

1. Most of the time I know what I have to do on my job.
2. On my job, I know exactly what is expected of me, and on my job.
3. Most of my tasks are clearly defined.

Job Involvement: a five-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree).

1. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it.
2. For me, mornings at work really fly by.
3. How well I work does not affect the way I feel about myself.
4. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work.
5. I enjoy discussing my work with people outside the company.
6. I like to talk about my work with my friends.
7. I prefer a job where I can put my own ideas to work.
8. I would like a chance to make important decisions.

Job Characteristics: a seven-point Likert scale (1 = very little, 4 = moderate, 7 = very much)

1. How much variety is there in your job?
2. How much autonomy do you have on your job?
3. How much are you left on your own to do your own work?
4. To what extent do you do a "whole" piece of work (as opposed to doing part of a job which is finished by some other employee)?
5. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?

6. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?
7. To what extent is dealing with other people part of your job?

A seven-point Likert scale (1 = none or a minimum amount, 4 = a moderate amount, 7 = a maximum amount).

1. The amount of variety in my job.
2. The opportunity to do a number of different things.
3. The opportunity for independent thought and action.
4. The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job
5. The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to the end (i.e., the chance to do a whole job).
6. The opportunity to complete work I start
7. The opportunity to find out how well I am doing in my job.
8. The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly
9. The opportunity, in my job, to give help to other people
10. The opportunity in my job to get to know other people.
11. The opportunity to develop close friendships in my job.