

Taking Stock of Two Relational Aspects of Organizational Life: Tracing the History and Shaping the Future of Socialization and Mentoring Research

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As part of the centennial celebration for the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, this article reviews the literature on organizational socialization and mentoring. Our review includes a comparison of organizational socialization and mentoring as processes for employee adjustment and development, the historical context that fueled the emergence of these two areas of study, and a chronological mapping of key foundations, trends, themes that emerged across time, and major milestones. Along the way, a special emphasis is placed on research published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* and high impact work is highlighted. We conclude with a discussion of five areas for future research. Specifically, we outline ideas for bridging the socialization and mentoring literatures, better understanding and capturing dynamic processes across time, the development of multilevel theories and models, addressing causality, and considering the implications for organizational socialization and mentoring research based on how technology is changing the way we work.

Keywords: organizational socialization, mentoring, influence tactics, protégés, newcomers

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In building a strong workforce, organizations have many issues to consider, including how to develop employees and the best ways to assist them as they adapt to new organizational roles. Individuals also expend considerable time and energy, and often experience anxiety, in their efforts to successfully transition into new roles and advance in their careers. In this article, we review literature that addresses these issues through a focus on organizational socialization and mentoring. The literature on these topics took root nearly 50 years ago, and as the research fields developed in the *Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP)* and elsewhere, they are topics in which there has been a great deal of advancement over the past several decades.

Although these are clearly distinct literatures, they share several commonalities. First, socialization and mentoring both involve dynamic processes that unfold over time (e.g., [Feldman, 1976](#);

[Kram, 1985](#)). Moreover, both are processes that individuals may experience multiple times throughout their careers as they encounter the need to adapt to inter- and intraorganizational changes. Learning is another common denominator; it is typically embedded in the definition of organizational socialization (e.g., [Bauer & Erdogan, 2011](#); [Chao, 2012](#)) and is part of the exchange that occurs between mentors and protégés ([Lankau & Scandura, 2002](#)). Relational processes also play a key role in our understanding of socialization and of mentoring. By definition, *mentoring* is a relationship between two individuals ([Kram, 1985](#)) whereas one important way by which socialization occurs is through relational interactions with others within the organization ([Morrison, 2002](#)). Furthermore, socialization and mentoring can both occur informally as well as by formal interventions managed by the organization ([Chao, 2007](#)). Finally, adjustment is a factor that binds the two topics. For example, socialization is a process by which newcomers adjust to a new organization or to a new job. Mentoring can be a tool to facilitate that adjustment. Although there are common threads that interlace these two topics, they each have their own distinct theories and empirical literature bases. As such, we review these literatures separately while also identifying points of connection between the two.

Our two topics reside at the intersection of the individual and the organization. For example, socialization involves organizational tactics designed to mold employees to fit the needs of the organization as well as attempts by employees to define themselves within the organization ([Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007](#)). Likewise, mentoring is an important developmental

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experience for individuals, and mentoring programs are often a part of an organization's training and career development efforts (Allen, Finkelstein, & Poteet, 2009). Thus, we consider the perspective of both the individual and the organization in our review. Our treatment of these topics also recognizes that the phenomena of interest reside at multiple levels. For example, mentoring involves individuals in dyadic relationships embedded within an organizational context. Similarly, socialization processes occur at the individual, team, and organizational levels.

In the sections that follow, we briefly review the historical context in which these literatures evolved. Next, the centerpiece of this article includes a chronological review of the foundations, trends, themes, and milestones associated with each of these areas of study. When relevant, we identify points of intersection between the two literatures and consider practical implications along the way. After our retrospective account of current research, we close the article with a look forward and identify an agenda for future research.

Historical Context

Formative work defining organizational socialization can be traced to Schein (1968), who defined socialization as "the process by which a new member learns the value system, the norms, and the required behavior patterns of the society, organization, or group which he is entering" (p. 3). Later refinements of a definition of organizational socialization have examined this construct from a process perspective (Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) and a content perspective (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994). In terms of workplace mentoring, Kram's (1985) research provided the catalyst for scholarly attention in this area. Kram defined mentoring as a developmental relationship "between a younger adult and an older, more experienced adult that helps the younger individual learn to navigate in the adult world and the world of work" (p. 2). Explicit in this definition is the idea that organizational mentoring involves a one-on-one hierarchical relationship whereby the mentor possesses more experience or expertise than the protégé.

Growth in one or both of these topics over the past several decades can be traced to several societal and industrial factors. For example, following the Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s, more women began entering the workforce. To illustrate, the participation rate of women in the workforce was 34% in 1950, 51.5% in 1980, and increased to 57% by 2014 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). As the number of women in organizations rose and employment opportunities improved, the development of mentoring relationships was considered crucial to their socialization and advancement (Noe, 1988). Similar arguments were made with regard to the importance of mentoring for the career development of racial/ethnic minorities (D. A. Thomas, 1989).

Economic and organizational structural changes over the past several decades also motivated socialization and mentoring research. The organization of the 1980s was stable and hierarchical, whereas individual careers were typically linear in trajectory and managed by the organization (Mirvis & Hall, 1996). Decades of organizational restructuring and economic variability have resulted in more frequent individual job and career changes. In fact, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2015) estimates that baby boomers born between 1957 and 1964 will, on average, change jobs 11.7 times throughout their careers. These economic and structural

changes set the stage for repeated socialization experiences and the need for lifelong learning, which can be facilitated through participation in mentoring relationships. Finally, globalization has fueled both socialization and mentoring research. The globalization of work has increased the demographic diversity of the workforce, bringing to the forefront issues such as the recruitment and retention of high-potential employees from diverse backgrounds and the need to create an inclusive work environment. In addition, globalization has increased the number of workers moving transnationally, making socialization processes and the development of mentoring networks even more crucial in terms of preparing workers for new challenges and increasing the success of global assignments. In addition, multinational companies face special challenges with regard to the creation, diffusion, absorption, and transfer of organizational knowledge that mentoring and socialization processes help to address (Bhagat, McDevitt, & McDevitt, 2008).

Foundations, Trends, Themes, and Milestones

Overview

In this section, we identify foundational issues, trends, themes, and milestones across time and highlight influential scholarship that created shifts in foci in socialization and mentoring research. To inform our review, searches of the key terms "mentoring" and "socialization" within *JAP* were conducted using the Web of Science search engine. In addition, we identified articles currently in press at *JAP*. The number of articles that included socialization and/or mentoring published or in press at *JAP* was 38 as of October 2015. For focus, and because another article in this Centennial Issue spotlights international issues, several articles on expatriate socialization and/or nonsocialization related adjustment were excluded from our review. In addition to *JAP* publications, articles published in other journals as well as book chapters and books were included when it was determined that they played an important role in the evolution of these topics. To facilitate easy identification, in this section, articles published in *JAP* are denoted by adding *JAP* after the date in the citation.

Consistent with the purpose of the Centennial Issue, our review is illustrative rather than comprehensive. Inclusion decisions were made on the basis of citation rates and the consensus judgment of two or more members of the authorship team. Bodies of scholarship were grouped chronologically and thematically via an iterative discussion process among the authors. In the following sections, we first provide a foundation for each topic and then identify and discuss, at a high level, key pieces of work published and how these works have shaped subsequent research. Figure 1 provides a summary of the key themes identified in the socialization and mentoring literatures across time. Table 1 highlights key milestones and high-impact articles published in *JAP*. Appendix A of the online supplemental materials includes a chronological listing of key scholarship and impact as indicated by citations. Because of space constraints, not all of the work that appears in Appendix A is referenced in the text. Appendix B of the online supplemental materials provides additional citation information concerning research published in *JAP* over time. We begin with a review of the organizational socialization literature, followed by the mentoring literature.

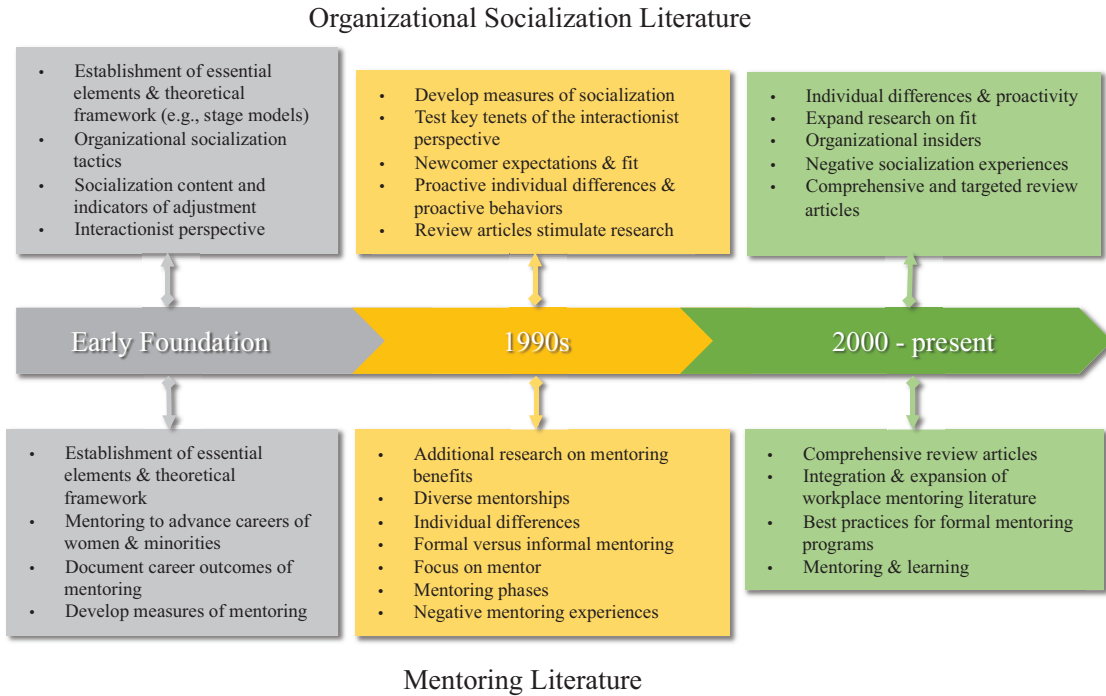


Figure 1. Research themes and timeline for organizational socialization and mentoring. See the online article for the color version of this figure.

Organizational Socialization

Socialization basics and early foundation. Early work in the area of organizational socialization was relatively limited in terms of the quantity of empirical research articles published before 1990. Our review indicates that the literature up to that point was characterized by four specific themes, including *stage models*, the

introduction of *organizational socialization tactics*, *socialization content and indicators of adjustment*, and the *interactionist perspective*. Stage models are often used to describe socialization as a process (see Ashforth, Sluss, & Harrison, 2007, for a review). Most models define three stages: (a) the anticipatory socialization stage describes expectations that a newcomer has about the job/

Table 1
Research Highlights of Organizational Socialization and Mentoring Work Published in the Journal of Applied Psychology

Highlight	Mentoring	Socialization
First article appeared	Dreher & Ash (1990): A Comparative Study of Mentoring Among Men and Women in Managerial, Professional, and Technical Positions.	Thomson (1941): An Inventory for Measuring Socialization—Self-Seeking and its Relationship to the Study of Values Test, the Ace Psychological Examination, and the Strong Vocational Interest Blank
Article with highest total citations	Ragins & Cotton (1999): Mentor Functions and Outcomes: A Comparison of Men and Women in Formal and Informal Mentoring Relationships. (310 citations)	Chao, O’Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner (1994): Organizational Socialization: Its Content and Consequences. (310 citations)
Article with highest average per year number of citations	Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima (2004): Career Benefits Associated With Mentoring for Protégés: A Meta-Analysis. (25.33 citations per year)	Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker (2007): Newcomer Adjustment During Organizational Socialization: A Meta-Analytic Review of Antecedents, Outcomes, and Methods. (22.22 citations per year)
Sum of all citations	1,495	2,931
Number of citing articles	859	1,936
Average citations per item	133.11	108.56
Total number of articles published	10	28

Note. Citation data taken from Web of Science, November 1, 2015.

organization before starting work; (b) the accommodation stage is the heart of socialization and includes learning, sense making, and adjustment; and (c) the role management stage involves fine tuning lessons learned and added responsibilities expected from full-fledged organizational members (cf. Feldman, 1976). As individuals begin new jobs or join new organizations across a lifelong career, the stages are reexperienced, with new lessons interpreted with the benefit of knowledge from previous socializations.

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) introduced a set of tactics that organizations might use in order to help them socialize new employees. These six tactics include *context tactics* that socialize newcomers (a) formally or informally, and (b) singly or in groups; *content tactics* that socialize newcomers (c) with a standard sequence of experiences or randomly determined experiences, and (d) within a fixed or variable time frame; and *social tactics* that socialize newcomers (e) through established role models versus no role models, and (f) by acceptance of the newcomer's unique qualities or by forcing the newcomer into strict standards of behavior. Jones (1986) moved this line of inquiry further along by developing scales to measure these tactics.

Several articles in the early years examined socialization content, or *what* is learned (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Fisher, 1986; Schein, 1968, 1971). Learning how to perform one's job successfully is a common content area, often necessary to avoid termination. Other areas include learning to work in a particular group, learning about the organization, and learning about oneself as one's career progresses. Schein (1968) wrote that the learning of values, norms, and behavior patterns of an organization was the price of membership.

By the end of the 1980s, two key articles appeared that helped shape future decades of organizational socialization research. Louis's (1980) ethnographic study of newcomer experiences found evidence of both "shock and sensemaking" shortly after organizational entry. Her study laid the foundation for subsequent work in the areas of proactive newcomer behaviors that developed into the 1990s. Reichers (1987) extended this work, introducing the *interactionist perspective* of organizational socialization. The primary tenet of this approach is that socialization involves interactions between organizational insiders and newcomers that may be symbolic of shared understanding between the two parties. Socialization is neither only what the organization does in terms of processes, tactics, or orientations, nor just about newcomers and their experiences.

An early review of organizational socialization (Fisher, 1986) acknowledged some support for socialization stages, but there was little research on tactics or content, and a well-articulated interactionist perspective had yet to be published. Fisher recommended more longitudinal research, more research with diverse organizations and jobs, and more research on different socialization agents (e.g., supervisor, peers, subordinates), including individuals as agents of their own socialization.

The 1990s. This period saw a dramatic increase in terms of both the quantity and quality of socialization research (as characterized by longitudinal research designs and theoretical rigor). Themes include measure development, testing the interactionist perspective, newcomer expectations, newcomer fit, newcomer individual differences, and proactive behaviors. As a complement to organizational tactics, individual tactics were also researched, recognizing that newcomers take proactive roles in learning how to

adjust to new jobs or to new organizations. Newcomers can observe others, ask direct questions, and/or experiment with test behaviors to learn about what is expected and what limits can be pushed (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996, *JAP*). Individual tactics can be covert (e.g., consult written manuals and handbooks for information) or highly interactive with others (e.g., social network building with key organizational members; Morrison, 1993a, *JAP*); Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Measures of socialization helped to stimulate research on the topic. Chao et al.'s (1994, *JAP*) measure of socialization content underwent extensive validation across 5 years and identified six socialization dimensions: history, language, organizational goals/values, people, performance proficiency, and politics, all of which were related to socialization outcomes. Other measures of socialization have been developed that include content areas and socialization indicators such as job expectations (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), performance appraisal information (Morrison, 1995), understanding organizational structure (H. D. C. Thomas & Anderson, 1998), group socialization (Haueter, Macan, & Winter, 2003), and future prospects (Taormina, 2004), but the Chao et al. measure has been the most widely used (H. J. Klein & Heuser, 2008).

In addition to providing a new measure of socialization content, Chao et al.'s (1994, *JAP*) article called attention to the fact that organizational tactics may describe *how* a newcomer learns information but do not describe *what* that person learns. Their conception and measure of socialization content received the 1995 Outstanding Publication in Organizational Behavior award from the Academy of Management, and was a major milestone, as indicated by the large number of citations it has garnered since publication (see Table 1).

The foundational work of the 1980s was critical for the line of research on testing the information seeking aspect of the interactionist perspective. For example, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) studied how newcomers acquire information and how that influences knowledge acquisition. Morrison (1993a, *JAP*, 1993b) examined the role of newcomer information seeking. Collectively, these longitudinal studies illustrated that newcomers seek different types of information from different sources, that insiders have a key role in the socialization process, and that information seeking was related to outcomes such as satisfaction, performance, and intent to turnover. Ashford and Black (1996, *JAP*) extended this work by examining additional proactive newcomer behaviors, including feedback seeking, relationship building, job-change negotiating, and positive framing during entry. They also found that desire for control related to all six of the newcomer tactics examined. Finally, Bauer and Green (1998) looked at the role of manager behaviors and information seeking in a sample of new college graduates. They found that if managers engaged in support and clarifying behaviors, newcomer information seeking was not important. In concert, these studies helped set the stage for future work on the interactionist perspective.

Further extending the work of Louis (1980) on newcomer surprise and shock upon organizational entry, the role of newcomer expectations was also examined in this decade. Wanous, Poland, Premack, and Davis's (1992, *JAP*) meta-analysis stimulated research in the area of met expectations for newcomers. They found met expectations related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intent to leave, performance, and actual turnover. However, they also found that there were significant between-studies

differences. This finding led to subsequent research focused on the role of met expectations on a wider set of job and occupational contexts, outcomes, and data collection at multiple time points. *Bauer and Green (1994)* studied new doctoral-level students in the hard sciences over their first year and found that those with realistic expectations were more involved in their programs, reported less role conflict, and felt more accepted. *Major, Kozlowski, Chao, and Gardner (1995, JAP)* examined the role of unmet expectations and socialization outcomes in a sample of 248 newcomers pre-entry and after an average of four weeks on the job. They found that the three types of met expectations studied related to important outcomes including satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment. Finally, in a rare example of experimental research, *Buckley, Fedor, Veres, Wiese, and Carraher (1998, JAP)* assigned new manufacturing employees to one of four experimental conditions: no orientation, traditional orientation, job-based realistic job preview (RJP), and an orientation program with a general expectation lowering procedure (ELP). They found that both RJP and ELP conditions were significantly more helpful than the other conditions in managing positive newcomer expectations and lowering turnover.

Although early models of socialization alluded to the important role of newcomer fit, it was not until the 1990s when research began to more explicitly examine this. *Chatman (1991)* studied new accountants over the first year at their new job and found that person–organization fit was related to adjustment, satisfaction, and intent to remain. This early work paved the way for subsequent scholarship in this area in the 2000s.

Finally, the 1990s had two highly cited and comprehensive reviews of the literature that reached similar conclusions. Reviews by *Bauer, Morrison, and Callister (1998)* and *Saks and Ashforth (1997)* took stock of the literature since *Fisher's (1986)* review and found that much had changed. As Bauer et al. noted, research was more likely to be based on data gathered at more than one point in time (70% of the papers reviewed went beyond cross-sectional designs), more attention was being paid to the interactionist perspective, and research improved in both quantity and quality. Saks and Ashforth noted that more research had been published in the area of socialization in the 5 years prior to their review than in all the years before combined. In addition to reviewing the literature, Bauer et al. also offered specific recommendations for future research and testable propositions, and Saks and Ashforth developed a conceptual model of socialization and highlighted key themes. These review articles served to continue to stimulate research on organizational socialization into the 2000s.

2000–present. Another key theme in the organizational socialization literature has been that of individual differences and newcomer proactivity. As we noted in the 1990s, the idea that newcomers engage in proactive behaviors was introduced to the literature. This work continued into the 2000s. Building on earlier research and using a latent growth modeling approach, *Chan and Schmitt (2000, JAP)* studied new graduate students across four time periods and found that changes in proactivity (information seeking, relationship-building) and adaptation outcomes (task mastery, role clarity, social integration) were systematically associated with time. For example, they found that technical information seeking tends to decrease across time, whereas referent information seeking tends to increase across time. *Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000, JAP)* examined the association of the

Big Five personality characteristics and proactive behaviors on work outcomes during the newcomer socialization process. Two personality characteristics, Extraversion and Openness to Experience, were associated with higher levels of proactive behaviors by newcomers. Moreover, feedback seeking and relationship building were the most important behaviors for social integration, role clarity, and turnover. *Harrison, Sluss, and Ashforth (2011, JAP)* studied new telemarketing employees. They found that curiosity was an important trait related to newcomer information seeking and positive framing behaviors that, in turn, were related to performance outcomes. *Li, Harris, Boswell, and Xie (2011, JAP)* found that for the newcomers within information technology and manufacturing industries, supervisors influenced newcomer in-role and extrarole performance by giving developmental feedback. This relationship was moderated by proactive personality such that feedback was more strongly related to helping behaviors by newcomers when proactive personality was lower.

Socialization content and indicators were generally viewed as a proximal outcome of socialization processes. Thus, a socialization tactic would affect what was learned, and that lesson (content) would affect more distal outcomes like job satisfaction and performance. In addition to these content areas, other key proximal outcomes serve as indicators of adjustment. For example, *Bauer et al.'s (2007, JAP)* meta-analysis found that the three indicators of adjustment that served as proximal outcomes were role ambiguity, self-efficacy, and social acceptance by organizational insiders, which mediated the relationships between socialization tactics and distal outcomes like job satisfaction, performance, and turnover. This paper was a major milestone in the socialization literature, as indicated by it having the highest average number of citations per year of any socialization paper published in *JAP* (see *Table 1*). Likewise, *Saks, Uggerslev, and Fassina's (2007)* meta-analysis identified role conflict, role ambiguity, and fit perceptions as indicators of adjustment, and found that these constructs mediated relationships between tactics and outcomes. The 2000s have also seen a continuation of research on the role of newcomer fit. For example, *Van Vianen (2000)* examined the role of fit between newcomers and their supervisors among a sample of new employees in the Netherlands. She found that when fit was high, higher organizational commitment and lower intentions to leave were observed. This study illustrates that fit has many levels that may matter. *Kim, Cable, and Kim (2005, JAP)* examined fit across seven organizations in South Korea. They found that the organizational socialization tactics employed were aided or negated by individual tactics utilized to help gain control over their environment. *Wang, Zhan, McCune, and Truxillo (2011)* examined mediating roles of person–environment fit on the relationships between newcomer adaptability and work outcomes. They found support for their hypothesized model on a sample of new employees in China. Thus, fit continues to be an important part of the socialization research conversation. Relatedly, in both an experimental field and lab setting, *Cable, Gino, and Staats (2013)* found that emphasizing a newcomer's "authentic self" being valued by the organization, rather than emphasizing to newcomers about how great the organization was, related to increased performance and lower turnover.

Boswell, Shipp, Payne, and Culbertson (2009, JAP) examined 132 newcomers during their first year on the job and found consistent patterns of job satisfaction such that it was highest upon

organizational entry and decreased after that point. Chen (2005) studied 65 project teams and found that initial newcomer empowerment, team expectations, and team performance were related to newcomers' early performance levels and performance improvements over time. These newcomer performance factors related to team performance and newcomer intent to turnover. Chen and Klimoski (2003) found that general self-efficacy and experience were related to the expectations of both newcomers and their teams. Further, work characteristics, social exchanges, and empowerment mediated the relationship between expectations and newcomer performance.

Another important theme has been the role of organizational insiders and adjustment. For example, Morrison (2002) examined how patterns of social networks related to newcomer adjustment and learning, and found that the size, density, strength, range, and status of newcomer networks was related to organizational knowledge, task mastery, and role clarity, whereas friendship networks were related to social integration and organizational commitment. However, things do not always go smoothly for newcomers as the foundational studies of "shock" and "surprise" alluded to decades earlier. Recent research has begun to examine more negative sides of newcomer adjustment. For example, Nifadkar and Bauer (2016, *JAP*) studied new software engineers and found that interpersonal conflicts with coworkers related to less information seeking from coworkers and increased relationship building with managers, which subsequently related to information seeking and adequacy, and, finally, to higher levels of task-related outcomes. Kammeyer-Mueller, Wanberg, Rubenstein, and Song (2013) found that newcomers felt less supported and more undermined by coworkers and managers over time as well as verbally abused by organizational insiders.

Integrative, comprehensive, and expanding summarization milestones in the 2000s include meta-analyses (Bauer et al., 2007, *JAP*; Saks et al., 2007), comprehensive handbooks (Wanberg, 2012), general reviews (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011; Chao, 2012), and targeted reviews (Ellis et al., 2015; Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011). These articles have helped to take stock of what was known to that point in time and to stimulate new research directions within the socialization domain. We now turn our attention to the mentoring literature.

Mentoring

Mentoring basics and early foundation. Although the roots of mentoring are often traced to Greek mythology and Homer's *Odyssey*, the foundation for workplace mentoring research is grounded in Levinson and colleagues' (1978) examination. Building on Levinson's work, arguably the most influential milestone in mentoring research to date was the publication of Kram's (1985) in-depth qualitative study of mentoring pairs. Kram (1985) delineated what is now referred to as *informal mentoring*, characterized by the spontaneous development of one-on-one relationships based on mutual attraction.

Augmenting Kram's (1985) original work on the topic has been discussion of alternative forms of mentoring, including peer mentoring, supervisory mentoring, team mentoring, relationship constellations, and virtual or e-mentoring (see Ragins & Kram, 2007), leading to concerns with regard to conceptual drift. In addition, scholars have used varying degrees of specificity in defining the

mentoring construct for research participants. This has led to confusion and disagreement among scholars as to the definition and key features of mentoring (Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Willbanks, 2011), and presents challenges in terms integrating research findings across studies that conceptualize and operationalize mentoring in different ways. Notwithstanding these different ways to think about mentoring relationships, in this section, we restrict our treatment of mentoring to include only those relationships that are consistent with Kram's original conceptualization of the construct, that is, hierarchical one-on-one developmental relationships between a less experienced individual (the protégé) and more experienced individual (the mentor).

Kram (1985) delineated two types of support behaviors provided by mentors. Career-related support involves mentor behaviors that help the protégé understand how the organization operates and prepares the protégé for advancement. This includes providing challenging assignments, coaching, exposure and visibility, sponsorship, and protection. Psychosocial support involves mentor behaviors aimed at helping protégés develop a sense of professional identity, self-efficacy, and self-worth. This includes providing unconditional acceptance and confirmation, counseling and friendship, and serving as a role model for the protégé. Collectively, these two types of support help protégés to deal with concerns about the self, career, and others by providing opportunities to develop knowledge, skill, and competence, as well as to identify effective strategies to deal with personal and professional dilemmas.

In an effort to quantify the amount of support provided to protégés, as well as the predictors and outcomes of these two types of support, a variety of measures have been developed. Noe (1988) examined the predictors of successful assigned mentoring relationships in a sample of educators. He developed the Mentoring Functions Scale, which assesses protégé perceptions of the amount of mentoring support provided by assigned mentors and includes two subscales (Career-Related Support and Psychosocial Support). Subsequent research by Ragins and McFarlin (1990) provided researchers with a more fine-grained measure of mentoring support functions that encompasses all of the specific aspects of career-related and psychosocial support as originally discussed by Kram (1985). This measure allows researchers to focus on the two overall types of support functions (career-related, psychosocial) or, alternatively, examine more specific types of mentoring support provided (e.g., challenging assignments, counseling). Consistent with Kram's original formulation, subsequent meta-analytic research by Eby et al. (2013) illustrates that career-related and psychosocial support behaviors are distinct conceptually and empirically. A third instrument developed by Scandura (1992) found support for a three-factor conceptualization of mentoring that included vocational support (analogous to career-related support), psychosocial support, and role modeling. It is worth noting that the most widely used instruments to assess mentoring are unidirectional, focusing on what protégés get from their mentors rather than also asking protégés how they support their mentors, an essential component of Kram's definition of mentoring.

The 1990s. It was not until 1990 that the first published study on mentoring appeared in *JAP* (Dreher & Ash, 1990, *JAP*). The authors found that individuals with more extensive mentoring support reported receiving more promotions and higher incomes, and were more satisfied with their pay and benefits than individ-

uals who reported less extensive mentoring support. Many of the other early mentoring studies were focused on establishing the outcomes associated with mentoring and the investigation of gender differences. There is some evidence that those with White male mentors reap greater career benefits than do those with non-White/female mentors. Specifically, those with White male mentors report the most compensation (Dreher & Cox, 1996, *JAP*) and the greatest number of promotions (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, *JAP*). However, the “White male mentor premium” appears to be attributable to the position, status, and power men hold within organizations, and not necessarily to their sex and race.

Building on earlier discussions of the importance of mentoring for the advancement of the careers of women and racial minorities (e.g., Ragins, 1989; D. A. Thomas, 1989), research on diverse mentoring relationships flourished during the 1990s, and diversity continues to be a prominent theme in the literature today. Diverse mentorships are those in which members differ on the basis of race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, class, religion, disability, and other group membership characteristics (Ragins, 1997). Ragins’s (1997) theory of diversified mentoring relationships in organizations delineated the behavioral and perceptual processes underlying diversified relationships, laying the groundwork for future empirical work on the topic. Other than a few exceptions investigating age (e.g., Finkelstein, Allen, & Rhoton, 2003) and sexuality (Hebl, Tonidandel, & Ruggs, 2012) in relation to mentoring, research on diversity outside of race and gender is sparse. Meta-analytic research generally shows that protégé gender, protégé race, and demographic similarity have negligible relationships with mentoring support (Eby et al., 2013). However, there is evidence that deep-level similarity (i.e., similarity in attitudes, values, beliefs, or personality) does matter, such that greater similarity is associated with reports of greater psychosocial support, career support, and higher relationship quality (Eby et al., 2013).

Moving beyond the focus on demographic factors, researchers began to investigate other individual differences that influence mentorship processes. Turban and Dougherty (1994) found that protégé personality characteristics were associated with the extent that individuals took the initiative to seek out mentoring relationships and the degree of mentoring support received. Specifically, those with an internal locus of control, higher self-monitoring, and higher emotional stability received a greater degree of mentoring support as mediated by relationship initiation than did those with an external locus of control, lower self-monitoring, and lower emotional stability. Subsequent research has shown that other individual differences such as protégé need for power and achievement, career motivation, and learning goal also matter (see Turban & Lee, 2007, for a review).

Several other research themes were prevalent during the 1990s. As the benefits of mentoring became more widely known, subsequent research identified *formal mentoring* as a potentially important counterpart to informal mentoring. This set the stage for research that identified important structural and relational differences between formal and informal mentoring (Ragins & Cotton, 1999, *JAP*) and differences in outcomes of formal (organizationally orchestrated) versus informal (naturally occurring) mentorships (Chao, Walz, & Gardner, 1992; Ragins & Cotton, 1999, *JAP*). To date, Ragins and Cotton (1999) has been the most highly cited article in the mentoring literature published in *JAP* (see Table 1). Subsequent meta-analytic research demonstrates that informal

mentorships are more beneficial than formal mentorships, but the difference is small (Eby et al., 2013).

Much of the early research on mentoring focused exclusively on the protégé. In the 1990s, research began to emerge from the perspective of the mentor. A major thrust of these early studies was the investigation of willingness to mentor others. Research findings generally indicated that there were few gender differences in willingness to mentor, and that the best predictor of future willingness to mentor was previous mentoring experience (as a mentor or as a protégé; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Subsequent work investigated the anticipated costs and benefits of being a mentor, finding that individuals who lack experience as a mentor anticipate greater costs and fewer benefits relative to those with mentoring experience (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Based on interviews with mentors, Allen, Poteet, and Burroughs (1997) laid the groundwork for a rich line of research on mentors, including topics such as mentor motives to mentor others, dispositional characteristics associated with mentoring others, organizational factors that influence mentoring others, factors related to mentor-protégé attraction, and outcomes associated with mentoring for the mentor. These topics continue to be examined in current research (e.g., Janssen, Van Vuuren, & De Jong, 2014).

Kram (1985) theorized that mentoring relationships proceed through four distinct phases: (a) coming together of mentor and protégé (initiation), (b) a period during which mentoring functions emerge and reach their peak (cultivation), (c) the end of the mentor-protégé relationship (separation), and (d) a final phase in which the relationship is redefined into something new (e.g., collegial friendship) or terminates (Kram, 1985). Not until the late 1990s did research emerge investigating mentoring phases. Chao (1997) was the first to empirically examine, and find some support for, Kram’s developmental sequence. Ragins and Scandura (1997, *JAP*) focused on the final phase of the mentoring relationship: termination. Based on a matched sample of men and women, they found no gender differences in the reasons for the termination of mentoring relationships. Surprisingly, there has been little research investigating the developmental trajectories of mentoring relationships, but Kram’s initial work remains the abiding framework.

In a shift from the positive lens through which mentoring was typically viewed, by the end of the 1990s, scholars began to acknowledge that mentorships could be marked by negative as well as by positive experiences (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000; Scandura, 1998). These studies found that both mentors and protégés report negative experiences. Common concerns reported by protégés include mismatched values, personalities or work styles, and neglect by the mentor. Less frequently reported are mentor manipulation, lack of skills, and evidence of personal problems that influence the quality of the relationship (Eby et al., 2000). Problems cited by mentors include poor protégé performance, unwillingness to learn, and engagement in destructive behaviors such as sabotage and breeches of trust (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2008, *JAP*). Unfavorable attitudinal, relational, and psychological outcomes associated with negative mentoring experiences occur for both protégés and mentors (Eby et al., 2000; Eby, Durley, et al., 2008; *JAP*).

2000–present. Several new themes and advancements emerged in the 2000s. Given that several decades of mentoring scholarship had accumulated by the early 2000s, the time was ripe for the emergence of integrative, comprehensive reviews of the

literature. Specifically, the first meta-analysis of workplace mentoring relationships was published in *JAP*, consolidating knowledge on the positive career outcomes of mentoring for protégés (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004, *JAP*). This paper has been highly influential, as indicated by it having the highest average number of citations per year of any mentoring paper published in *JAP* (see Table 1). Another milestone was the publication of the *Handbook of Workplace Mentoring*, providing the most comprehensive summary and review of workplace mentoring research to date (Ragins & Kram, 2007). Multidisciplinary integration of mentoring research across workplace, academic, and youth contexts was another advancement and expansion of the mentoring literature. Allen and Eby (2007) brought researchers together from these various disciplines, resulting in the publication of the *Handbook on Mentoring Relationships: A Multiple Perspectives Approach*, and subsequent multidisciplinary meta-analyses appeared (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & Dubois, 2008; Eby et al., 2013).

With the intent to inform practice, building on earlier work demonstrating that informal mentoring relationships have more beneficial outcomes than formal mentoring relationships, research began to emerge focused on the characteristics of formal mentoring programs (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006, *JAP*; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000; Wang, Tomlinson, & Noe, 2010, *JAP*). This body of research suggests that design features such as establishing clear objectives; support from top management; careful matching of mentors and protégés; selection of high-quality mentors; training for participants; establishing mechanisms for ongoing interaction, support, and accountability among mentoring partners; and program evaluation are keys to formal mentoring program success (Allen et al., 2009).

Another theme that emerged in the 2000s was a focus on learning within mentoring relationships (the importance of learning can also be traced to Chao et al.'s [1992] research on socialization as an outcome of mentoring). One of the main goals of mentoring is to pass knowledge, wisdom, and skills to the less experienced protégé (Kram, 1985). To that end, learning has been studied from a variety of angles. Lankau and Scandura (2002) developed a measure of personal learning that consisted of two dimensions: relational job learning and personal skill development. They found that participants with mentors reported significantly greater relational job learning, but not personal skill development, compared with participants without mentors. Allen, Smith, Mael, O'Shea, and Eby (2009) demonstrated that organizational-level mentoring was associated with organizational-level learning. Liu and Fu (2011, *JAP*) investigated protégé personal learning in teams. They found that autonomy support from mentors and protégés' autonomy orientation positively related to protégés' personal learning in teams. This study is also notable in that it examined mentoring within a multilevel framework that extended beyond the dyadic level. Most recently, Eby, Butts, Hoffman, and Sauer (2015, *JAP*) investigated the extent that employees learn helping behaviors from supervisors who provide mentoring support. Consistent with their hypothesis, they found that mentoring received was positively associated with employee interpersonally oriented organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Future Research and a Look Forward

As described in our review, a large body of research on socialization and mentoring has accumulated over the past several decades, expanding and deepening our knowledge of these two important topics. The research to date has several strengths. Both topics are strongly grounded in theory. In addition, both areas of scholarship have research bases that have informed practice concerning the design and effectiveness of programs intended to socialize and to mentor employees (e.g., Allen et al., 2006, *JAP*; Fan & Wanous, 2008). Another notable strength of both literatures is that they have made contributions to science that extends beyond the borders of organizational psychology. For example, both organizational socialization and workplace mentoring research has been used to inform research and practices within educational contexts (e.g., Laden, 1999). However, both literatures also have weaknesses that need to be addressed. Reflecting on the historical roots and research milestones provides insight into directions for future research. In the following section, we identify areas in which we believe further advancement is needed that can help shape research and practice for the next several decades and thereby contribute to the development of a thriving workforce. In addition, we take a look at future workforce trends and implications for organizational socialization and mentoring research.

Bridging the Socialization and Mentoring Literature

As described in our introduction, although socialization and mentoring have their own unique literatures, there is also a common literature base. Mentoring has long been considered a tactic by which newcomers become socialized (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). In addition, one of the common objectives of workplace formal mentoring programs is to facilitate the socialization of new employees (Allen et al., 2009). As such, multiple studies have investigated socialization as an outcome of mentoring (e.g., Chao et al., 1992). In a recent study of mentor-protégé dyads, mentor socialization was positively related to protégé socialization among informal mentoring relationships, mediated by career-related mentoring support (Yang, Hu, Baranik, & Lin, 2013). This suggests that in addition to viewing socialization as an outcome of mentoring, socialization might generate greater mentoring or that there are reciprocal relationships between the two.

Further bridging of the socialization and mentoring literature could advance our understanding of both by opening new areas of inquiry. One theoretical link that could be further mined is that of interpersonal relationships. Work is a relational act and the interpersonal exchanges that occur within the workplace shape employee attitudes and behaviors. In addition, resources and knowledge within the organization flow through relationship networks (Baker & Dutton, 2007). We offer several future research suggestions that incorporate relational concepts.

Although research has demonstrated that mentoring is associated with socialization, the process by which this occurs is less understood. Research that incorporates theory with regard to the dimensions by which relationships vary, such as interdependence, trust, and tensility (defined as the extent the relationship can bend and endure stress), could pave the way for understanding when and why mentoring may facilitate some content areas and indicators of socialization and not others. For example, mentor-protégé trust may be more important for learning about organizational politics

than to the development of an understanding of the history of the organization. Drawing on relational theories can also aid in the investigation of the ways by which individuals identified as mentors occupy multiple roles in a newcomer's life. For example, an individual may simultaneously occupy the role of mentor, supervisor, trainer, and friend in an individual's world, potentially changing the dynamic of the learning and socialization process across interactions. Moreover, as individuals transition into new roles within the organization, they carry their relationships forward. Understanding how these relationships are defined and redefined as individuals move through the organization could reveal information concerning the quality and velocity of adjustment to new roles. This line of research seems particularly important given the fast-paced work environment of today within which individuals are regularly called upon to review and renew their capabilities.

The incorporation of new technology into socialization and mentoring research via the theoretical lens of relational ties would also help advance both literatures. Advanced technologies such as wearable sensors (WSs) have the potential to expand and accelerate our understanding of the emergence of mentoring dyads and the development of social networks within organizations that facilitate learning and socialization. WS devices are able to assess interaction patterns among individuals, detect the colocation structure of individuals, and evaluate verbal activity (see Chaffin et al., 2017, for a review of WS technology). Such data can be used to generate a better understanding of how and when relationships develop. Moreover, measurement of verbal activity can be used to detect dominant individuals who may play prominent roles in the formal and informal mentoring and socialization of others. Additionally, given that strong ties are based in part on the frequency of interactions, WSs can be used to assess tie strength among relational partners and answer questions such as the extent that diverse developmental networks enhance socialization. Given that informal interactions help set the stage for the development of mentoring relationships and increased socialization, WSs could also be used to illuminate where individuals physically congregate, informing the interior architectural design of workspaces that facilitate relationship development. Finally, it is worth noting that the collection of data through WS research would represent an advancement in the literature in that it is not dependent on self-reports, which have been the preponderant form of data collection in both the mentoring and the organizational socialization literatures.

Better Understanding and Capturing of Dynamic Processes Across Time

Socialization and mentoring both involve phenomena that are dynamic, develop over time, and reoccur across the life span. Although the socialization literature is far more advanced than is the mentoring literature in terms of capturing processes across time, a myriad of questions remain in both literatures to be answered in order to advance theory. Specific issues include, but are not limited to, (a) the extent individuals uniformly experience orderly phases or stages in mentoring relationships and organizational socialization, and the features that characterize each phase or stage; (b) whether the phases or stages are substantively different in structured (formal mentoring, organizational socialization tactics) compared with unstructured (informal mentoring, individual

socialization tactics) situations; (c) the extent to which and when discontinuous change (e.g., relational turning points, socialization shocks) occurs; (d) the degree of intraindividual variability in one's mentoring or socialization experience and whether this predicts outcomes; (e) how one's unique history of socialization/mentoring predicts subsequent experiences (e.g., how previous socialization relates to the socialization experience in a new organization); and (f) how the target behaves toward others when roles are reversed (e.g., how a former protégé's mentoring experience relates to his or her behavior as an insider facilitating the socialization of newcomers).

To answer the questions posed with regard to dynamic processes, several different avenues will need to be pursued that break from the status quo. Although longitudinal studies of mentoring relationships are rare, the socialization literature is replete with longitudinal studies. However, these studies vary in the number of waves of data collected and in the time intervals used between data collections, making comparisons of results and the drawing of firm conclusions sometimes difficult. Further, as noted by DeShon (2015), longitudinal research is not sufficient to capture dynamic processes, and dynamic models can be difficult to specify, test, and understand (Vancouver, Tamanini, & Yoder, 2010). One underutilized approach is the incorporation of dynamic computational models. Dynamic computational theory involves mathematical models that simulate interactions of key constructs over time (Vancouver et al., 2010). As an example, Vancouver et al. (2010) used computational modeling to reconcile inconsistent findings concerning the extent that proactive, self-regulated uncertainty reduction plays a key role in newcomers' socialization. In addition, based on their modeling, Vancouver et al. revealed that current longitudinal designs were not adequate for testing and distinguishing existing socialization theories.

Another approach is to use event-based or episodic methods to study socialization and mentoring processes. As described by Ashforth (2012), most socialization research has been based on the assumption that changes in dependent variables occur at a steady pace (e.g., adjustment at Time 1 will be less than at Time 2, and less at Time 2 than at Time 3). Episodic approaches recognize that learning and adjustment can be discontinuous, precipitated by specific events that, in turn, can lead to a reinterpretation of previous episodes. Mentoring relationships, too, can be characterized by a series of episodes (Allen & Poteet, 2011), but research using such approaches is scarce. Instead, we typically examine "average" levels of mentoring, and rarely do we know where in the cycle of the mentoring relationship participants are when they respond to questions concerning the relationship. This obscures our ability to understand and pinpoint relational triggers, turning points, and the key events that result in mentoring that has a transformative impact.

Finally, we note that daily experience sampling studies are needed to supplement longer term longitudinal studies. Although longitudinal studies with longer time lags are useful for phenomena that change more slowly (e.g., the impact of mentoring on career outcomes), daily experience sampling methods are ideal for capturing processes that change quickly. For example, such studies may be particularly useful to conduct during the first few weeks after a newcomer has joined an organization, or at the start of a formal mentoring relationship when learning could

be occurring at a rapid pace and interpersonal dynamics are quickly evolving.

Development of Multilevel Theories and Models

Kozlowski and Klein (2000) wrote, “Virtually all organizational phenomena are embedded in a higher-level context, which often has either direct or moderating effects on lower-level processes and outcomes. Relevant contextual features and effects from the higher level should be incorporated into theoretical models” (p. 15). Most research on socialization and mentoring has been focused exclusively at the individual level. Although research on small groups and teams has studied new entrants into the group, with some notable exceptions (e.g., Chen, 2005), research on groups and organizational socialization has tended to evolve in relative isolation despite attempts to integrate them (e.g., Wanous, Reichers, & Malik, 1984). Future research should extend our knowledge by understanding how socialization and mentoring operate at the dyad, team, and organizational levels.

The call for future mentoring research to develop multilevel theories is not new. Higgins and Kram (2001) called for mentoring research to include microlevel and macrolevel factors to capture the interaction between individuals within a work environment. A rare example of this approach is a study by Sosik, Godshalk, and Yammarino (2004). They found significant individual-level effects in mentoring relationships that supported earlier research, as well as dyadic-level effects that supported an agreement or bonding between mentors and protégés that was generally assumed in previous research. Multilevel studies can be difficult to conduct because of challenges related to construct equivalence across levels, different methods to aggregate data from lower levels to higher levels, and different multilevel analytical techniques (K. J. Klein et al., 2000). Despite these research challenges, multilevel research can address questions that would be highly relevant to future theory and practice. Examples of these questions include the following: (a) How does a supervisor–subordinate mentoring relationship affect the rest of the business unit or team? (b) How might the effects of one extremely successful or dysfunctional mentoring relationship affect other mentors and protégés? (c) What type(s) of team or organizational cultures promote or inhibit the initiation of mentoring? (d) To what extent does the prevalence of mentoring within an organization affect organizational-level outcomes? If everyone was mentored, would an organization be more effective?

The application of multilevel theorizing to organizational socialization also leads to new questions. For example, how does organizational socialization impact dyadic, team, or organizational-level processes and outcomes? H. J. Klein and Heuser (2008) argued that individuals are socialized at multiple levels: job, work group, department, division/unit, and organization; and that a socialization content area (e.g., politics) may be more important at one level (e.g., work group) than another (e.g., organization). Future research should develop better measures of socialization content and examine how socialization at different levels influence one another as well as multilevel outcomes. In addition, future research can address questions that advance theory and practice. Examples of these questions include the following: (a) What types of work group or team adjustments are needed as a newcomer goes through different stages of socialization? (b) Can individuals be successfully socialized at one

level, but not at another? If so, what happens? (c) Can successful work group socialization impede higher level goals? If everyone was highly socialized to current work group behaviors, might that socialization discourage creative and innovative ideas that could benefit the organization? (d) Under what environmental conditions should an organization/team/supervisor maintain or change its socialization practices?

Addressing Causality

There are also fundamental unanswered questions within the socialization and mentoring literatures regarding causality that require experimental and quasi-experimental designs to resolve. For example, mentoring is touted as an organizational strategy to improve employee performance and to develop a sense of professional identity. However, most research is cross-sectional, leading to concerns of reverse causality, given that high performing and professionally committed employees are more desirable targets for mentors, as Green and Bauer (1995) established in their 2-year-long study of research scientists. The use of cross-lagged panel designs where all measures are collected at two or more points in time and both directions of influence are modeled simultaneously would help disentangle this thorny issue (see Eby et al., 2015) as could immersive (e.g., video, virtual reality) experimental vignette designed studies (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). As another example, socialization theory suggests that there are presumed causal processes that underlie the manner in which socialization unfolds over time, as well as socialization stages and outcomes. One promising approach to address such issues is a randomized controlled trial that includes random assignment to “treatment” conditions (e.g., formal socialization experience vs. not); case-mix adjustment that controls for differences at the individual, work unit, or organization level that may influence treatment effects; and the collection of data over multiple time periods. Evidence of a significant Time \times Treatment condition interaction (no pretest differences and expected differences posttest) would provide strong evidence that mentoring or socialization had its intended effects.

Another methodological approach that may be useful in evaluating program or organizational effects of formal mentoring or socialization programs is a repeated cross-sectional design. This involves the collection of individual data at repeated and regular intervals. However, unlike traditional longitudinal designs that track the same individuals over time, in repeated cross-sectional designs, different individuals are sampled over time as a function of actual membership in the social aggregate at that particular time period. This approach allows the researcher to understand change in attitudes and behaviors over time at the program or organization level rather than the individual level. Although care must be taken not to make fallacies at the wrong level (i.e., interpreting *individual* change over time), if the interest is in understanding a phenomenon at the program or organizational level, repeated cross-sectional designs provide more precise estimates because there is not the cumulative loss of participants over time as there is with typical longitudinal designs.

The Future of Work—Implications for Organizational Socialization and Mentoring Research

Lastly, we examine two technology-enabled trends, robotics and on-demand services, expected to impact the future of work over

the next several decades and their potential research and practice implications for socialization and mentoring. Technological advancements are expected to result in massive changes in the labor market. One particular change concerns the use of machines and robotics for work formerly done by humans (Elliott, 2014). In fact, Elliott (2014) estimates that information technology and robotics could replace 80% of current jobs over the next several decades. The greatest disruption is likely to occur in the service sector, in which the vast majority of workers are currently employed (Ford, 2015). For example, touchscreen ordering systems and the use of robots to prepare food may soon result in the replacement of 50% of fast-food workers (Ford, 2015). Robotic technology is also changing the way work is done. For example, surgery is being increasingly performed through the use of remote-controlled robotic telesurgical machines, requiring training, retraining, and mentoring of surgeons (Dubeck, 2014). This aspect of the technology revolution holds a number of implications for socialization and mentoring research and practice. It is likely that competition for high-skilled jobs will grow, suggesting that socialization and mentoring will be increasingly important ways for individuals to maintain and raise their human capital. In addition, the displacement of humans with robotics leads to questions concerning how socialization and mentoring processes differ in a work environment that includes robot interaction rather than human interaction. As robots are designed to interact with people in the workplace, how will newcomer socialization tactics change and evolve? As technology becomes increasingly “smarter,” will mobile devices become the mentors of the future? Research and thought leadership is needed now to determine how future jobs are to change so that the best socialization and mentoring processes can be anticipated and put into place within organizations.

Technology will also continue to play a role in the increase in work done virtually and the proliferation of the “on-demand” and tech-enabled labor economy. Technology currently enables large numbers of workers to telecommute or to work entirely from remote locations outside of a central workplace. Smartphone applications provide the means for delivering labor and services (e.g., Uber, TaskRabbit), creating opportunities for individuals to work on-demand rather than as salaried employees for traditional organizations (Wladawsky-Berger, 2015). Knowledge work that used to be conducted through organizations can now be readily carved out to individuals who work outside of organizational structures. The separation of a large body of workers from corporate culture raises a number of important implications for socialization and mentoring research and practice. For example, the way in which we define and operationalize socialization may need to evolve as socialization processes become more short term with more rapid life cycles. Another issue is how individuals working in the demand economy become mentored and mentor others. On-demand workers may create their own networks of organization, complete with new socialization and mentoring processes to enhance adjustment and career development. If the nature of socialization and mentoring changes, do these changes “scale-up” to reflect change in the importance of social relationships in organizations? The societal implications of a labor economy consisting of independent freelancers when work relationships and socialization serve as a major means by which individuals fulfill the need to belong will also need to be considered. These are just a few of the many issues

that merit consideration as socialization and mentoring researchers anticipate the future of work over the next several decades.

Conclusion

In the current article, we briefly traced research on organizational socialization and mentoring that has transpired over the past five decades and offer suggestions for moving the field forward over the next several decades. Consistent with the commemorative theme of the Centennial Issue, socialization and mentoring scholars have much to celebrate as both areas of study have contributed enormously to our knowledge concerning the development, performance, and success of employees in organizations.

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