Title: Newcomers' relationship-building behavior, mentor information sharing and newcomer adjustment: The moderating effects of perceived mentor and newcomer deep similarity

Yuyan Zheng*

Management School

University of Sheffield

Conduit Road, Sheffield, UK, S10 1FL

y.zheng@sheffield.ac.uk

Xiaotong (Janey) Zheng

Business School

Durham University

Mill Hill Lane, Durham, UK, DH1 3LB

xiaotong.zheng@durham.ac.uk

Chia-Huei Wu

Business School

University of Leeds

Leeds, UK, LS6 1AN

phone: +44(0)113 343 5538

Chiahuei.wu@gmail.com

Xiang Yao*

Peking University

No.5 Yiheyuan Road Haidian District,

Beijing, P.R. China 100871

phone: 8610 6276-9295

xiangyao@pku.edu.cn

Yi Wang

Pennsylvania State University

University Park, PA 16802

yuw354@psu.edu

***Corresponding author**

This research was supported by "Advancing Leadership Research" (W911NF-18-2-0049) to the second author.

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Abstract

Drawing on similarity-attraction theory, we propose that relationship-building behaviors from newcomers are more positively related to information-sharing behaviors from mentors when they perceive a deep similarity with the newcomers, and that mentors' information sharing is likely to be well received by newcomers when they perceive a deep similarity with their mentors. We also hypothesize that newcomers' perceived mentor information sharing is positively associated with newcomer adjustment (i.e., role clarity and job performance). A time-lagged study with a total of 99 newcomers and their mentors was conducted within three months of newcomers entering the company. The results support our hypotheses, suggesting that perceived deep similarity is a key factor that associates with the effectiveness of newcomers' proactivity and mentors' information sharing behavior in newcomer adjustment.

Keywords: newcomer proactivity; mentoring; information sharing; perceived similarity; newcomer adjustment

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1. Introduction

When they first enter an organization, newcomers can be proactive in socializing with senior colleagues to obtain information about their tasks and the organization (Ashford & Black, 1996). Extensive evidence from the newcomer socialization literature shows that newcomers' proactivity in socialization brings an array of positive work and career outcomes, including increased job satisfaction, organizational commitment and career advancement, and reduced turnover intention (Ellis, Nifadkar, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2017; Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). In the meantime, a growing body of research has investigated how organizational "insiders," such as mentors, can provide informational and psychological support to help new employees to adjust to a new working environment (Allen, McManus, & Russell, 1999; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). In both cases, there has not been an equivalent focus on both parties that are involved in socialization processes. This lack of evidence prevents us from understanding what newcomers' behaviors motivate mentors to offer support, or whether mentors' support is perceived as helpful by newcomers. A recent review by Allen, Eby, Chao, and Bauer (2017) emphasized the need to incorporate the role of mentors in newcomer socialization, to advance our understanding of how newcomers and mentors jointly facilitate better newcomer adjustment.

To integrate the role of mentors to newcomer socialization processes, two fundamental questions should be addressed. First, is newcomer proactivity associated with more mentoring behaviors in mentors and, if so, when will this happen? Although newcomers can be proactive in building relationships with mentors, mentors may not always respond favorably. Studies have reported that employees' proactivity in the workplace is not always

appreciated by their supervisors or colleagues (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Second, will mentors' mentoring behavior be well received by newcomers and help newcomer adjustment and, if so, when will this happen? While mentors can provide information and support to newcomers, newcomers may not receive the information well and thus cannot fully use the support from their mentors. Previous research has implicitly assumed that mentors' support can be well received by newcomers and thus have a direct impact on newcomers' learning and performance (Ng & Sorensen, 2008; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). This assumption, however, is highly debatable because newcomers are not always perfect recipients of mentors' attentions and might well miss crucial information shared by the mentor or find it not useful. Answering these two questions will help to unpack the dyadic links between newcomers and mentors for newcomer adjustment.

To answer these questions and to understand the connection between newcomers' proactivity and mentors' mentoring behavior for newcomer adjustment, we specifically focus on newcomers' relationship building behaviors and mentors' information sharing behaviors. In relation to newcomers' proactivity, relationship building behaviors have been found to be an important predictor of newcomers' acquired information (Saks, Gruman, & Cooper-Thomas, 2011) and job performance (Ashford & Black, 1996). In relation to mentors' behavior, we focus on information sharing because useful information about tasks and roles is what newcomers most need during their organizational entry to cope with the "reality shock" (Morrison, 1993b; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b).

To understand the relationships among newcomers' relationship building, mentors' information sharing, and adjustment outcomes, we draw on the similarity-attraction perspective (Byrne, 1971) and argue that newcomers' relationship building behaviors are likely to elicit information sharing behaviors from mentors when they perceive a deep

similarity with newcomers; i.e., they have a perceived similarity based on their attitudes, beliefs, and values (Harrison, Price, Gavin, & Florey, 2002). As people feel attracted to and tend to trust others who seem similar to them (Byrne, 1971), we propose that mentors are more likely to positively interpret newcomers' relationship building behaviors share more useful information when they see that the newcomers share a deep similarity with them. We apply the same perspective and argue that newcomers will receive the information shared by the mentors and find it useful when they perceive high levels of deep similarity with their mentors. In other words, we expect that mentors' self-reported information sharing behavior will have a stronger association with newcomers' perceived information sharing by their mentors when the newcomers perceive a deep similarity with them. In addition, we also include role clarity and job performance as cognitive and behavioral indicators of newcomer adjustment and expect that newcomers' perceived information sharing will be proximal to contributing to role clarity and job performance. Figure 1 presents our conceptual model.

Figure 1 near here

Our study contributes to the literature in several ways. First, prior newcomer proactivity research has examined the process by which newcomer proactivity increases organizational insiders' support (e.g., managers: Ellis et al., 2017; coworkers: Kammeyer-Mueller, Livingston, & Liao, 2011), while limited empirical research has investigated the role of mentors in newcomer socialization, even though mentors have been argued to be a crucial source for newcomers to learn the organization and their roles (Chatman, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993). Just as Allen et al. (2017) noted, while mentoring is considered a tactic by which newcomers become socialized, "the process by which this occurs is less understood" (p. 331). Our study advances prior newcomer proactivity studies (e.g., Ellis et al., 2017) by bringing

mentoring functions into the newcomer socialization process and examines the roles of both newcomers and mentors play in this process.

Second, we extend the literature on newcomer proactivity suggesting that newcomers should be proactive (Ashford & Black, 1996; Song, Liu, Shi, & Wang, 2017), while this work is short of showing what strengthens mentors' motivation to respond favorably to newcomers' relationship building behaviors, or whether the effectiveness of newcomers' relationship building depends on the perceptions from mentors. Our examination of the moderating role of newcomers' perceived deep similarity advances our understanding of the critical conditions for when newcomer relationship building behaviors are positively associated with support from mentors being received.

In addition, we examine how newcomers' perceived deep similarity influence their understanding of information shared by mentors, and how this impact the overall effectiveness of their relationship building behaviors. Existing research has effectively tied newcomers' perceptions to the effectiveness of mentoring. It is often assumed that support will always be received and appreciated (Deckop, Cirka, & Andersson, 2003) and therefore, mentors' information sharing will be automatically received by newcomers. By specifically examining the association between mentors' self-reported information sharing and newcomers' perceptions of their mentors' information sharing, our study highlights the importance of understanding the extent to which newcomers can successfully receive and engage with mentors' support.

Finally, past research has shown that the effectiveness of insiders' support on newcomers' work behaviors is dependent on newcomers' characteristics, for example having a proactive personality (Li, Harris, Boswell, & Xie, 2011). Motivated by the research call from Humberd and Rouse (2016) to test newcomers' and mentors' perceptions of each other in a mentoring relationship, we take a novel perspective of similarity-attraction and in our model we include

similarity perceptions from both newcomers and mentors. By doing this, we contribute to the literature through an emphasis on the relational nature of the newcomer socialization process, where positive behaviors from one party need to be successfully transferred to the other.

2. Theory and hypotheses

2.1. Newcomer relationship-building behavior and mentors' information sharing: The moderating role of mentor perceived deep similarity

We first elaborate on why newcomers' relationship building behaviors are more likely to be positively associated with mentors' information sharing when mentors perceive a higher deep similarity with newcomers. Although newcomers can directly seek information and ask for feedback, mentors may not response to them equally as they need to decide how to allocate their limited time and resources (Janssen, van Vuuren, & de Jong, 2014). Therefore, mentor support does not just happen, but need to be motivated (Gailliot, 2010; Rubenstein, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Thundiyil, 2020). This makes the relational aspect of mentoring especially important for newcomers to acquire information, because providing information is a favorable interpersonal contribution activated by relational bonds between the helper and the helped (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Compared to information and feedback seeking, relationship building behaviors, such as getting to know the mentor more and spending time to get along with the mentor, are more likely to build friendly (rather than instrumental) connections with the mentor, which can help mentors to be more willing to share information and help newcomers with their socialization. Such relational focus also indicates that effective mentoring is likely to occur when mutual understandings are formed, as mentors have their own preferences and cognitions to direct attentions to and interpret interactional signals sent by newcomers (Ragins, 2011).

We now explain the relationship between newcomers' relationship building behavior and mentors' information sharing from mentors from several perspectives. First, newcomers'

relationship building behaviors can be viewed as a positive signal of their strong willingness to develop good relationships with mentors, and this positive intention enhances mentors' positive inferences about the newcomer (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cialdini, 1989). When perceiving that the newcomer is making an extra investment in bonding, the mentor is likely to view the newcomer as enthusiastic and willing to be connected and thus is more willing to support this newcomer by sharing more information (Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997). In supporting this, Ellis et al. (2017) found that newcomers' relationship building behaviors signal their high levels of commitment to social adjustment and thus make managers share more information with them. Second, by spending time and effort to get along with the mentor, the newcomer creates strong initiatives to develop effective communication with the mentor. As a mentoring relationship is a channel of information transmission (Mullen, 1994) and its primary function is for mentees to gain information from the mentor (Olian, Carroll, Giannantonio, & Feren, 1988), the mentor may be willing to share useful information with the newcomer when the newcomer seeks to build a relationship. Finally, from the mentor's perspective, newcomers' relationship building makes mentors feel valued and respected in a dyadic relationship, which can strengthen mentors' identity of being a mentor (Rogers & Ashforth, 2017) and therefore associate with more mentoring behavior, such as sharing more information with newcomers.

However, research has shown that the relationship between newcomers' proactive behaviors (i.e., relationship building) and mentors' responses is more complex than the main effect that has been proposed. Because newcomer socialization is a relational act that involves both the newcomer and the mentor, the importance of including the mentors' perspective has been articulated. Even if newcomers are proactive at work, mentors can vary in their responses, because mentors may interpret the same behaviors differently in accordance with their preconceived assumptions of a newcomer (Grant et al., 2009; Lam et

al., 2007). For example, Lam et al. (2007) found that managers invested more in proactive employees when they attributed employees' proactivity to performance-related motives, rather than impression-related motives. As such, we seek to understand when mentors will respond to newcomers' relationship building behavior by sharing information; we adopt a similarity-attraction perspective (Byrne, 1971), which posits that individuals who are similar will be interpersonally attracted and, thus, experience positive outcomes such as mutual understanding (Murray et al., 2005) and friendship intensity (Selfhout, Denissen, Branje, & Meeus, 2009). In this study, we focus on perceived deep similarity, namely perceived similarity on the basis of values, attitudes, outlook, and problem-handling (e.g., Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998) and suggest it plays a key role in influencing mentors' responses to newcomers' relationship building behavior.

We focus on deep similarity because it is more strongly associated with attraction and relationship quality than surface similarity (i.e., similarity based on demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, and ethnic background) (Harrison et al., 1998; Harrison et al., 2002; Turban, Dougherty, & Lee, 2002). A meta-analysis conducted by Eby et al. (2013) found that surface similarity had weak relationships with perceived instrumental support, psychosocial support, and relationship quality with the mentor, while deep similarity was strongly related to these mentoring outcomes. Other relevant evidence provided by Ensher, Grant-Vallone, and Marelich's (2002) study showed that attitudinal similarity – one important aspect of deep similarity – was significantly associated with vocational, psychosocial, and role modeling functions above and beyond demographic similarity.

As a higher level of deep similarity indicates a fundamental match regarding personal values and beliefs, we expect that mentors will be more welcoming of relationship building attempts from newcomers who share a higher deep similarity, because people who share deep-level traits tend to believe that each other's behaviors have benevolent intentions (Liao,

Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). Additionally, because individuals tend to intuit deep-similar others with similar intentions and to be less suspicious about their behaviors through a perspective-taking process (Ames, Weber, & Zou, 2012), mentors tend to positively interpret relationship building attempts from newcomers sharing a higher deep similarity, such as viewing them as having a strong willingness to be socialized in the workplace. The effect of perspective-taking resulting from a higher level of deep similarity would also motivate mentors to share more information, as mentors would know what information newcomers may need to adapt to their roles (Sosik & Lee, 2002). In contrast, when mentors perceives a newcomer as having fewer shared values and beliefs (i.e., they have a low deep similarity), mentors may remain suspicious and not readily accept those relationship building attempts due to the lack of a similarity-attraction effect.

It is also important to note that prior studies of the similarity-attraction paradigm have shown that learning about others' deep characteristics occurs after interactions over time (Harrison et al., 1998; Harrison et al., 2002), which may raise concerns about an examination of deep similarity in the newcomer context. Nevertheless, research has indicated that one to two weeks is enough for social encounters to become meaningful (Reis & Wheeler, 1991; Tidwell, Reis, & Shaver, 1996). Glaman, Jones, and Rozelle (1996) also reported that, after an initial period of interaction of three weeks, deep similarity can be identified and began to have a stronger effect than surface similarity on social liking and preferences of the targets. Further, prior research has shown that, once deep similarity is formed, its impact on relationship quality is stable over time (e.g., Selfhout et al., 2009). For example, Sunnafrank and Ramirez (2004) found that perceived similarity in attitudes among unacquainted undergraduates could predict relationship quality over a period of nine weeks. Lankau, Riordan, and Thomas (2005) also found that perceived deep similarity among just-acquainted mentoring dyads increased mentees' perceived mentoring functions over a period of six

months. These findings suggest that deep similarity between mentors and newcomers can be formed at an early stage and have stable impacts in the mentoring process.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between newcomers' relationship building behaviors and mentors' information sharing is moderated by mentors' perceived deep similarity, such that this relationship is positive and stronger when mentors' perceived deep similarity is high than when it is low.

2.2. Mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing: the moderating role of newcomer perceived deep similarity

It is also important to examine how newcomers interpret mentors' information sharing behaviors. Intuitively, one would expect a positive relationship between mentor-rated and newcomer-rated information sharing behavior because, when mentors provide information to newcomers via different channels, such as personal meetings, documents, emails, or messages, it is likely that newcomers tend to receive information shared by mentors and find it useful. However, such a positive relationship is not self-evident, because newcomers may not always fully understand their mentors' suggestions or find the information shared by mentors useful. The communication research has long suggested that receivers may miss or even misinterpret critical messages sent by their interaction partners, owing to differences in thinking patterns and communication styles (Liu, Chua, & Stahl, 2010; McCallister, 1992) and cultural backgrounds (Adler & Graham, 1989; Ting-Toomey, 1999), which results in misunderstanding between the two parties. This is especially the case in our study because, given that mentors are usually formally assigned to newcomers without any prior personal connections with them (Noe, 1988) and they often have limited opportunities to socialize with newcomers owing to heavy work demands (Ramaswami, Dreher, Bretz, & Wiethoff, 2010), mentors and newcomers might have limited opportunities to form shared understandings and effective communication.

We argue that perceived deep similarity, from newcomers' perspective, plays a critical role in helping newcomers to successfully understand the critical message communicated by mentors. Research on the similarity-attraction paradigm has shown that similarity in attitudes and values significantly enhances the quality of interpersonal communication (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999; Meglino & Ravlin, 1998) and benefits the decoding process for both verbal and nonverbal information (Wiener, Devoe, Rubinow, & Geller, 1972). In our case, a high level of newcomers' perceived deep similarity builds a solid foundation of mutual understanding and high social integration, which offers newcomers the opportunity to understand the information shared by their mentors. In addition, deep similarity has been viewed as a primary determinant of perceived trustworthiness of a target (Ensher et al., 2002; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Lankau et al., 2005). When newcomers perceive a high level of deep similarity with mentors, newcomers see their mentors as reliable and trustworthy information sources. In this situation, the newcomers are more likely to trust information shared by mentors and accept it as valid and useful.

By contrast, when the newcomers' perceived deep similarity is low, we expect that newcomers may miss or misinterpret critical information shared by mentors. The negotiation literature has found that differences in attitudes and beliefs result in difficulties in synchronization and communication (Adair & Brett, 2005; Tinsley, Curhan, & Kwak, 1999). Newcomers who have lower levels of perceived deep similarity may find it difficult to select useful information or fully understand it during their communication with mentors. Lankau et al. (2005) also found that a lack of deep-level similarity between mentors and mentees harms the mentoring functions due to a lack of trust. Even when mentors share information that seems useful, newcomers who have lower deep similarity are less likely to pay close attention to the information or are more likely to find the information not useful owing to their

differences in values and beliefs. As such, the relationship between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing is weakened. We propose:

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing is moderated by newcomers' perceived deep similarity, such that this relationship is positive and stronger when newcomers' perceived deep similarity is high than when it is low.

2.3. Newcomers' perceived information sharing and adjustment

We examine two indicators of adjustment outcomes: role clarity, a cognitive indicator of adjustment regarding newcomers' understanding of their role requirements; and job performance, a behavioral indicator of adjustment regarding how newcomers effectively perform their tasks. Although newcomers' relationship building behavior and mentors' information sharing behavior have been associated with newcomers' adjustment, we expect that newcomers' perceived information sharing from their mentors is positively related with newcomers' adjustment as only received information can help newcomers to adjust to their new environment. Obtaining more useful information from mentors can contribute to role clarity because gaining valuable information and feedback helps newcomers understand their roles in the organization. Learning new knowledge also enables newcomers to better meet their job requirements and thus enhance their job performance (Liu, Liu, Kwan, & Mao, 2009; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Indeed, previous studies have supported a positive link between newcomer acquisition of information and higher levels of role clarity and job performance (Morrison, 1993a; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Hypothesis 3: Newcomers' perceived information sharing is positively related to role clarity (Hypothesis 3a) and job performance (Hypothesis 3b).

3. Method

3.1. Sample and procedures

We collected our data from a Chinese technology company. The primary responsibilities of these newly joined employees were software and hardware development, as well as product design. We invited newcomers and their mentors to participant in this study. Each participant had a senior colleague as a mentor and each mentor only supervised one newcomer. The mentors were not the newcomers' line managers. The newcomers who participated in this study joined the company at the same time and their probation period was three months. Following data collection points used in prior newcomer research (Bauer & Green, 1994; Bauer, Perrot, Liden, & Erdogan, 2019), we sent out our first survey during the induction session held in the company when newcomers had just joined the company (Time 1). We asked both newcomers and their mentors to report their demographics and rate their levels of positive affectivity and negative affectivity, and newcomers also rated their proactive personality, because these variables are arguably stable over time. Two months later (Time 2), after newcomers had adequate opportunities to interact with their mentors, we asked newcomers to report their relationship-building behavior with their mentors and their mentors' information sharing during the previous two months, and their perceived deep similarity with the mentors. At the same time, we asked mentors to rate their levels of sharing information with newcomers during the previous two months, and their perceived deep similarity with newcomers. At Time 3, which was one month after Time 2, newcomers were asked to rate their role clarity, and mentors were asked to rate newcomers' job performance. Compared with supervisors, mentors work more closely with newcomers during the training and probation period and are better at reporting on newcomers' job performance.

We sent questionnaires to 109 newcomers and their mentors at Time 1; 106 valid responses were returned, and we received 102 valid and matched responses at Time 2 (response rate 96.2%), and 99 at Time 3 (response rate 97.1%). We listwise deleted the 10

missing cases in our final dataset. Questionnaire distribution and collection was facilitated through the human resources (HR) department. Participants completed and returned the questionnaires directly to HR staff. The back-translation procedure was followed when items were translated from English to Chinese. Of the newcomers, 97% were male, 3% were female, and the average age was 26 years. Of the mentors, 96% were male, 4% were female, and the average age was 32 years.

3.2. Measures

Items were rated on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) unless otherwise stated.

3.2.1. Newcomers' relationship-building behavior. Newcomers' relationship-building behavior was measured using three items developed by Ashford and Black (1996). A sample item was "I tried to form a good relationship with my mentor" (α = .87).

3.2.2. Mentors' perceived deep similarity. We followed Harrison et al. (2002) and used 11 items to measure mentors' perceived deep similarity with newcomers. The items included perceptions of similarity in personalities, working styles, career objectives, priorities, problem-solving patterns, and personal values. A sample item was "how similar are you and your mentee in terms of work styles?" (1 = very different to 7 = very similar) (α = .89).

3.2.3. Newcomers' perceived deep similarity. We used the same scale of mentors' perceived deep similarity to measure newcomers' perceived deep similarity with their mentors (α = .89).

3.2.4. Mentors' information sharing. We used six items to measure mentors' information sharing behavior. We adapted the existing items in previous studies (Major & Kozlowski, 1997; Morrison, 1993b; Noe, 1988) to capture mentoring behavior in the work context of our participants. The six items were: "I provided knowledge and skills that are necessary to his/her job," "I provided knowledge and skills to help him/her complete the job,"

“I gave useful suggestions for how s/he should perform the job,” “I gave necessary information regarding his/her job duties and procedures,” “I gave him/her clear task requirements,” and “I gave him/her correct instructions regarding his/her specific work tasks” (α = .90).

3.2.5. Newcomers perceived mentors’ information sharing. We used the same scale of mentors’ information sharing to mirror newcomers’ perceived mentors’ information sharing. (α = .89).

3.2.6. Role clarity. Role clarity was measured using six items from Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970). The six items were: “I feel certain about how much authority I have,” “I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job,” “I know what my responsibilities are,” “I know exactly what is expected of me,” “Explanation is clear of what has to be done,” and “I know that I have divided my time properly” (α = .79).

3.2.7. Job performance. Job performance was measured using a five-item scale developed by Janssen and Van Yperen (2004). We asked mentors to rate each newcomer’s job performance. A sample item was: “this worker always completes the duties specified in his/her job description” (α = .70).

3.2.8. Control variables. We controlled for respondents’ demographics of gender (0 = male; 1 = female) and age (in years). In addition, prior research has also demonstrated that negative and positive affectivity influences newcomers’ motivation to proactively approach their mentors (e.g., Blickle, Schneider, Meurs, & Perrewé, 2010), as well as mentors’ motivation to engage in mentoring role (e.g., Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996). Therefore, in our analyses, we controlled both newcomers’ and mentors’ negative and positive affectivity, which we measured using the PANAS scale developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Cronbach’s alpha for positive affectivity was .64 for newcomers and .79 for mentors, and for negative affectivity .87 for newcomers and .90 for mentors. We also controlled

newcomers' proactivity personality because proactive newcomers may be more attentive to or aware of information shared by the mentor and make full use of it (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Newcomers' proactive personality was measured by a 10-item scale developed by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer (1999). A sample item was "If I see something I don't like, I fix it" (α = .72).

To show the unique impact of relationship building, we controlled for two other types of newcomer socialization behaviors, that of newcomers' information seeking and feedback seeking, as alternative predictors in our model. Information seeking was measured by eight items developed by Major and Kozlowski (1997). A sample item was "In the past two months, how often do you initiate conversations with your mentor about specific work tasks?" (1 = very infrequently to 5 = very frequently) (α = .86). Feedback seeking was measured by four items developed by Ashford and Black (1996). A sample item was "In the past two months, how often do you seek feedback from your mentor on your performance after assignments?" (1 = very infrequently to 5 = very frequently) (α = .87).

3.3. Missing data

In the final dataset (N = 99), there are five missing data points because five participants missed one survey item in each of their survey answers. For variables involving a missing value, we calculated the means of variables by using participants' responses on other items for the same construct. For example, for a participant who missed one item on a 10-item scale, we calculate the mean score of the rest of nine items of the scale. As we used item parcels in confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) (see details below) and composite scores of variables in our main analysis, the five missing values do not affect the sample size (n =99) for the following analyses.

4. Results

4.1. Preliminary results

Before testing the hypotheses, we conducted a series of CFAs to examine the validity of our measurement model. Kline (2015) has suggested that estimation methods for continuous model variables are not the best choice when the indicators are Likert-scale items. We followed Kline's suggestion and used item parceling in our study, which is recommended to keep a reasonable degree of freedom (Williams & O'Boyle Jr, 2008). We formed two parcels each for mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing, and three parcels each for mentors' deep similarity, and newcomers' deep similarity. Each parcel was formed from three to four randomly assigned items. As shown in Table 1, the hypothesized six-factor model provided a good fit to the data (χ^2 (398) = 432.38, root mean square of approximation [RMSEA] = .03, comparative fit index [CFI] = .97, Tucker–Lewis Index [TLI] = .97, standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .07). This result supports the distinctiveness of the constructs used in this study. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables are shown in Table 2.

Table 1 and 2 near here

4.2. Hypotheses testing

We used regression analysis in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012-2020) to examine our hypotheses. The demographics and affectivity of both parties, as well as newcomers' proactivity, were regressed on dependent variables in all analyses. In Model 1, we regressed mentors' information sharing on newcomers' relationship building, information seeking, and feedback seeking behaviors (Model 1a), and then specified mentors' perceived deep similarity as a moderator between newcomers' relationship building and mentors' information sharing (Model 1b). In Model 1b, we found a significant moderating effect of mentors' perceived deep similarity on the relationship between newcomers' relationship

building behaviors and mentors' information sharing (B = .20, p < .05). Figure 2 plots the interaction patterns. As predicted, simple slope analyses suggested that newcomers' relationship building behaviors were more strongly correlated with mentors' information sharing when mentors' perceived deep similarity was high (1.5 SD above the mean[1]: simple slope = .29, p < .05; 1 SD above the mean: simple slope = .21, p = .07) than when it was low (1.5 SD below the mean: simple slope = −.15, *n.s.*; 1 SD below the mean: simple slope = −.08, *n.s.*). Hypothesis 1 was supported.

In Model 2, we first regressed mentors' information sharing on newcomers' information sharing. We found that mentors' information sharing was not related to newcomers' information sharing (Model 2a: B = .00, *n.s.*). This finding is consistent with our theorizing which suggests that there may be a large divergence between mentors' and newcomers' perceptions of information sharing. We will discuss the implications associated with this finding in detail later. In Model 2b, we specified newcomers' perceived deep similarity as a moderator between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing. As expected, in this model we found that newcomers' perceived deep similarity significantly moderated the relationship between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing (B = .41, p < .05). As shown in Figure 3, simple slope analyses suggested that mentors' information sharing was more strongly correlated with newcomers' perceived information sharing when newcomers' perceived deep similarity was high (1.5 SD above the mean simple slope = .50, p < .05; 1 SD above the mean simple slope = .37, p = .054) than when it was low (1.5 SD below the mean simple slope = −.30, *n.s.*; 1 SD below the mean simple slope = −.17, *n.s*). Hypothesis 2 was supported. Finally, in Models 3a

[1] We reported moderating results by using both 1 SD and 1.5 SD above/below the mean. This is because the serial moderated mediation effect under conditions of high mentors perceived deep similarity and high newcomers perceived deep similarity was only significant when using 1.5 SD. The implications of this finding are discussed in greater detail in the Discussion sections.

and 3b, where we regressed role clarity and job performance on newcomers' perceived information sharing as well as other research variables and control variables, newcomers' perceived information sharing was positively related to role clarity (B = .20, p < .05) and to job performance (B = .15, p = .07), supporting Hypotheses 3a and 3b[2].

Table 3, Figure 2 and 3 near here

4.3. Exploratory analyses

Some variables in our model, for example newcomers' proactive behaviors, mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing, were collected at T2, which prevents us from drawing inferences from testing a serial mediation model (Figure 1) in our main analyses. We thus tested the two-stage moderated mediation effects for an exploratory purpose. We specified mentors' information sharing and newcomers' information sharing as two serial mediators of the relationship between newcomers' relationship building and the two outcomes. We also specified mentors' perceived deep similarity and newcomers' perceived deep similarity as two moderators as proposed. We followed James, Mulaik, and Brett (2006) recommendation and tested a full mediation model. All control variables were regressed on both dependent variables and mediators.

We examined the conditional indirect effect of mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing linking newcomers' relationship building behaviors and the two adjustment outcomes (i.e., role clarity and job performance) using bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 resampling in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2012-2020). We

[2]As there was a positive correlation between mentor-rated deep similarity and mentor-rated newcomers' job performance (r = .27, p < .01), it is possible that mentors favorably attribute high perceived deep similarity for newcomers' job performance. To rule out this possibility, we controlled mentors' perceived deep similarity and found the relationship between newcomers' perceived information sharing and newcomers' job performance still remained marginally significant (B = .13, p =.096).

found that only the conditional indirect effect for role clarity was significant when we used 1.5 SD above the means of mentors' perceived deep similarity and newcomers' perceived similarity (conditional indirect effect = .030, 95% confidence intervals (CIs) [.001, .151]).[3]

We also tested the moderating effect of mentors' perceived deep similarity for the other two types of newcomer proactive behaviors, i.e., information seeking and feedback seeking. We found that the moderating effect of mentors' perceived deep similarity was not significant, for information seeking, B = .13, p =.26; for feedback seeking, B = .02, p = .78. This finding further supports our theorization that deep similarity as a relational characteristic is a salient moderator that influences the effectiveness of newcomers' relationship building behaviors.

5. Discussion

In this study, we examine when newcomers' relationship building behaviors positively relates to mentors' information sharing and when mentors' information sharing can be well perceived by newcomers, which in turn helps newcomers' adjustment (i.e., role clarity and job performance) from a similarity-attraction perspective. We find that newcomers' relationship building is linked with increased information sharing behavior from mentors when they perceive a higher level of deep similarity with newcomers. In turn, when newcomers also perceive a higher level of deep similarity with their mentors, they are more likely to receive the information shared by mentors, which contributes to their role clarity and job performance.

5.1. Theoretical implications

The current study extends prior newcomer socialization research by testing an integrated model that incorporates mentoring functions into newcomer socialization. Although mentors have been viewed as a valid resource for newcomers to acquire resources and information

[3] Conditional indirect effects on the two outcome variables under the other three conditions were not significant. Detailed results can be provided upon request.

(Chatman, 1991; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1993), and although newcomers' proactive behaviors have been shown to receive support from organizational insiders such as managers (Ellis et al., 2017), limited empirical research has examined the role of mentors in newcomer socialization. Our results show that mentors' information sharing is a positive response to newcomers' proactive behaviors (i.e., relationship building), especially when mentors perceive higher levels of deep similarity with newcomers. This finding is consistent with prior mentoring research, which shows that mentoring situations vary on relational elements (e.g., interdependence, corresponding interests, see a review by Eby & Robertson, 2020), and is also consistent with prior proactivity research, which shows that proactive employees may not be always appreciated by organizational insiders (Grant et al., 2009; Lam et al., 2007). We integrate these perspectives and test mentors' perceived deep similarity as a crucial relational facilitator for mentors to positively respond to newcomers' relationship building behaviors. We therefore offer novel understandings to both newcomer socialization and mentoring literature by showing that the effectiveness of newcomer proactivity is largely dependent on how mentors see the indicators of relationship quality with newcomers.

Further, researchers have called for a more integrated perspective to examine similarity effects in relationships (Cemalcilar, Baruh, Kezer, Kamiloglu, & Nigdeli, 2018; Weidmann, Schönbrodt, Ledermann, & Grob, 2017) and, more importantly, to examine how the perceptions of both mentors and newcomers can shape the mentoring relationship functions (Humberd & Rouse, 2016). Our results show that the positive correlation between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing occurs when newcomers' perceived deep similarity is high. This finding shows that the mentoring relationship is not always effective even when mentors are willing to make efforts, and it is equally important for newcomers to have the ability to successfully receive the information shared by the mentors. This finding offers significant contributions to the literature as it describes the

dynamic shift of roles between mentors and newcomers as the senders and receivers of information.

Next, past literature has shown that perceived similarity in deep-level characteristics is the strongest and most consistent predictor of mentoring relationship quality and mentoring support received (Eby et al., 2013; Mitchell, Eby, & Ragins, 2015). Our research findings extend this literature through a demonstration of the similarity-attraction effect among mentoring dyads as a key condition for relationship building behaviors being positively associated with increased mentoring support. Furthermore, by testing a two-stage moderated mediation model in the exploratory analyses, we show that newcomer relationship building behaviors are only effective in predicting role clarity and job performance when both mentors' and newcomers' perceived deep similarities are present. Although additional support is needed to replicate this moderated mediation model by using better design and larger sample size, this offers important theoretical implications for future newcomer socialization studies to build a research model around testing the newcomer socialization process based on a similarity-attraction perspective.

We also note that the conditional indirect effects we tested in exploratory analyses were only significant when we chose 1.5 SD above the means of mentors' perceived deep similarity and of newcomers' perceived deep similarity. This could be because of our small sample size (N = 99), which reduced the statistical power to detect effects (Cohen, 1992). The fact that when the same analyses were conducted with 1 SD, the patterns that emerged were virtually the same as the findings using 1.5 SD, reflects that our findings were valid but we needed to choose higher levels of perceived deep similarity in order to detect a two-stage moderated mediation chain. This finding, however, also suggests that only when both newcomers and mentors rated extremely high on perceived similarity can the positive mentoring functions for newcomer socialization be activated. Further, this finding can also be

explained from the longitudinal effect of deep similarity. While deep similarity can be formed within weeks (Glaman et al., 1996), it is likely that deep similarity will become stronger over time. Collecting data two months after entry is sufficient in our study to observe the moderating impacts of perceived deep similarity for each party, but it may not be not enough to observe a strong serial mediation effect. To examine this speculation, different time frames can be employed to investigate the longitudinal impact of deep similarity.

Another interesting point is that our results show a divergence between mentors' and newcomers' perceived deep similarity (Table 2: r = .09, *n.s*). This means that mentors or newcomers might have perceived high deep similarity while the other party did not. Such unilateral attraction is explainable with Funder's (1995) realistic accuracy model, to achieve agreement of deep similarity between two parties, four conditions need to be achieved simultaneously: the actual existence of deep similarity; the availability of information about deep-level characteristics to the perceiver; the information being noticed by the perceiver; and the information being correctly interpreted by the perceiver. In our case, newcomers' and mentors' perceptions are likely to differ as certain types of information about deep-level characteristics may not present to or be noticed or detected by the other party. Relevant supports also come from the personality judgment literature, where scholars found the self–other accuracy of rating personality to be largely dependent on the observability of traits (Vazire, 2010). Our finding of divergence of perceptions of deep similarity also indicates the possibility of further exploring the conditions in which mentors and newcomers may achieve agreement on their perceived deep similarity and how that affects newcomers' adjustment outcomes.

5.2. Practical implications

Our findings suggest that relationship building is an effective socialization tactic for newcomers to achieve better adjustment outcomes when mentors and newcomers perceive a

deep similarity with each other. As such, a direct practical implication is to match mentors with similar mentees based on their values, beliefs, and attitudes, if such information is available, to maximize the effectiveness of the mentoring relationship.

Although having shared perceptions on deep similarities is optimal, mentors and newcomers often diverge. As indicated in Table 1, the correlation between the two deep similarities was not significant. Therefore, organizations should encourage mentors and newcomers to make explicit about expected behaviors, roles and outcomes of the relationships (Allen, Eby, & Lentz, 2006; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000), in order to lower chances of miscommunication caused by divergence between the two parties.

Further, it is reasonable to expect that newcomers and mentors modify their interests and values in response to the other party over time. To facilitate this, informal events and activities should be held to let mentors and newcomers to interact professionally and socially, which may help develop a sense of common values and motives. Mentors' voluntary participation in mentoring programs is also recommended since in this situation mentors are more willing to understand newcomers' needs and interests, rather than view mentoring as a chore (Allen et al., 2006). Finally, as we found that mentors may not be responsive to newcomers' relationship-building attempts, they should embrace the potential dissimilarities that exist in newcomers. Training programs can help both mentors and newcomers to overcome the negative presumptions of dissimilar newcomers, in order to facilitate better adjustment processes. For example, organizations are advised to develop a strong diversity or inclusion culture, to encourage both mentors and mentees to respect each other's options and treat others fairly regardless of different backgrounds or beliefs (see Chung et al., 2015; Herdman & McMillan-Capehart, 2010 for examples of facilitating diversity culture).

5.3. Limitations and future research

First, because some of our key variables were measured at the same time, this indicates a concern of common-method variance (CMV) impacting our results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Nevertheless, it is important to note that, because our research mainly focuses on investigating when newcomers' relationship building behaviors are positively correlated with supportive behaviors from mentors and when mentors' behaviors are positively correlated with positive newcomer outcomes, using a cross-sectional design to answer this type of "when" question is less problematic (see Spector, 2019, pp. 133-134 for a discussion of the usage of a cross-sectional design). Also, five of our key variables were rated from different sources and none of our hypotheses had two key variables being rated by the same source. Accordingly, CMV is not a serious concern in our study. Finally, our finding of significant interaction effects for both Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2, also lowers the concern of CMV influencing our results.

Second, we cannot make a causal conclusion from a correlational study. Also, our study has not considered a reverse effect from mentors' information sharing behavior to newcomers' relationship building behaviors. It is possible that mentors can start sharing information chain in the first stage. We have used our data to examine this possibility. We tested the predictive effect of mentors' self-reported information sharing behavior on newcomers' relationship building behavior and the moderating effect of the newcomers' perceived deep similarity. We did not find a main effect (B = .13, p = .36) or a moderation effect of newcomers' perceived deep similarity (B = .09, p = .55). Nevertheless, as these variables were measured at the same time in our study, our data cannot provide cogent evidence. A cross-lagged design is thus desired to investigate the direction of the relationships among our focal variables.

Next, though our hypotheses are supported, our findings are limited by the small sample we used (N = 99), which may reduce the statistical power of our results. This might also be

the reason why using ±1.5 SD of moderators made the overall conditional indirect effect in the exploratory analyses significant. However, although large sample sizes are critical to secure statistical power, meaningful and significant interaction effects (H1: $B = .20$, $p < .01$; H2: $B = .41$, $p < .05$ in our study) are less likely to be detected in a small samples (Aguinis, 1995). Nevertheless, future research should replicate our findings in larger samples.

In addition, we do not consider the impact of organizational culture in our study. We collected our data in a high-tech company where the organizational culture is open and corporative. Our results could have been different if our sample had been collected in organizational contexts where the organizational structure is hierarchical, and where individuals communicate less with each other across different ranks. Further, national culture may be another factor to consider, and prior research has provided empirical evidence about differential impacts of perceived similarity across cultures (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002). As we collected our data in China, where the culture emphasizes collectivism (Hofstede, 2001), it is possible that our results of deep similarity were overstated by this fact because people value commonalities and tend to support others who are similar to them (Farh, Tsui, Xin, & Cheng, 1998; Tsui & Farh, 1997). Therefore, future studies should examine the impact of deep similarity in mentorship by using cross-cultural samples or samples from different work settings.

Last, future studies should consider a developmental perspective and examine the dynamics of perceived similarity using a longitudinal research design. Prior literature on similarity-attraction has suggested that the similarity–attraction effect is complex (Hoffman, 1958; Singh, Jen Ho, Tan, & Bell, 2007). For example, Walter and Bruch (2008) proposed that the relationship between affective similarity and relationship quality should be reciprocal, with both constructs positively influencing each other through the similarity-attraction effects. Relationship scholars have also suggested that, though many close

relationships start from similarities, when interpersonal relationships become deeper, interactive parties can become more similar (Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003; Gonzaga, Campos, & Bradbury, 2007). In our case, mentors' perceived similarity may result in mentors proactively interacting with similar newcomers, and newcomers' perceived similarity may also result in them interacting with mentors over time. Longitudinal data is needed to see if the dynamic loop exists in a similarity-attraction effect. Also, we did not include surface similarity, because surface similarity includes items such as age, sex, and education (Harrison et al., 2002), while in our sample 97% of the newcomers and 96% of the mentors were male, which may have led our data to be insufficient to fully capture the impact of surface similarity. Future studies should use more diversified samples and explore the effect of surface similarity.

6. Conclusion

Prior studies have shown that newcomers can actively adjust to a new work environment by building relationships with their mentors. Why, and when, would this positive relationship occur? We found newcomers' relationship-building behavior is positively correlated with information sharing from mentors, especially when mentors perceive higher deep similarity with the newcomers. In turn, mentors' information sharing is likely to be better received by newcomers when newcomers perceive higher deep similarity with the mentors, contributing to better adjustment outcomes. This study examines the relationship between newcomers building relationships and their adjustment outcomes by taking both mentors' and newcomers' perspectives into account. It also indicates when such mentoring functions are likely to function well.

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Table 1. Fit comparisons of alternative factor models

	χ^2	*df*	$\Delta\chi^2(df)$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Hypothesized Model	249.96	231	-	.03	.98	.97	.06
Model A	455.38	237	205.42**(6)	.10	.76	.72	.11
Model B	388.45	237	138.49**(6)	.08	.83	.80	.12
Model C	328.61	237	78.65**(6)	.06	.90	.88	.10
Model D	321.05	237	71.09**(6)	.06	.91	.89	.08
Model E	391.75	242	141.79**(11)	.08	.83	.81	.10
Model F	591.56	246	341.60**(15)	.12	.62	.57	.13
Model G	691.53	249	441.57**(18)	.13	.51	.45	.14
Model H	890.33	252	640.37**(21)	.16	.29	.22	.15

Note. Model A: 6-factor model combining role clarity and job performance as one factor. Model B: 6-factor model combining newcomers' and mentors' deep simiarilty. Model C: 6-factor model combining mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing as one factor. Model D: 6-factor model combining newcomers' perceived information sharing and newcomers' role clarity as one factor. Model E: 5-factor model combining mentors' information sharing, newcomers' perceived information sharing and role clarity as one factor. Model F: 4-factor model combining mentors' information sharing, newcomers' perceived information sharing, role clarity, and job performance as one factor. Model G: 3-factor model combining mentors' information sharing, newcomers' perceived information sharing, role clarity, job performance, and mentors' deep similarity as one factor. Model H: 1-factor model combining all variables.

$^{**}p < .01$.

Table 2. Variable, means, standard deviations, and correlations

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Newcomer age (N_T1)	25.99	1.22																	
2. Newcomer gender (N_T1)	.03	.17	-.14																
3. Newcomer PA (N_T1)	3.58	.39	.05	.01															
4. Newcomer NA (N_T1)	2.08	.59	-.09	.01	-.14														
5. Newcomers' proactive personality (N_T1)	5.20	.59	.03	-.02	.39**	-.24*													
6. Mentor age (M_T1)	31.18	3.76	.13	-.09	.01	-.18	-.03												
7. Mentor gender (M_T1)	.04	.20	-.17	.26**	.13	-.06	.15	-.24*											
8. Mentor PA (M_T1)	3.76	.44	-.07	-.04	-.10	-.14	.03	-.04	-.27**										
9. Mentor NA (M_T1)	1.99	.64	.03	-.07	-.11	.03	.03	-.04	-.10	.06									
10. Newcomers' relationship building (N_T2)	3.67	.72	-.14	-.08	.17	.00	.17	-.09	-.03	.10	.11								
11. Newcomers' information seeking (N_T2)	3.64	.55	-.13	-.01	.24	-.04	.25*	-.04	-.05	.20*	-.03	.61**							
12. Newcomers' feedback seeking (N_T2)	3.09	.86	-.18	.08	.24	-.02	.21*	-.04	.05	.11	-.05	.50**	.64**						
13. Mentors' perceived deep similarity (M_T2)	4.85	.74	-.11	.04	.00	.00	.04	-.14	.06	.34**	.00	.10	.15	.15					
14. Newcomers' perceived deep similarity (N_T2)	4.91	.65	.03	-.17	.14	-.10	.00	.22*	-.08	-.02	-.12	.27**	.28**	.27**	.09				
15. Mentors' information sharing (M_T2)	6.25	.60	-.21*	.12	-.06	-.11	-.14	-.08	.26**	.10	-.50**	-.02	.02	.09	.25*	-.06			
16. Newcomers' perceived information sharing (N_T2)	6.26	.67	-.01	-.01	-.03	.04	-.04	-.12	-.02	.03	-.04	.36**	.37**	.28**	.10	.30**	.04		
17. Role clarity (N_T3)	5.81	.60	.24*	-.21*	.18	-.22*	.18	.12	-.11	.12	-.01	.11	.17	.13	.00	.44**	-.07	.21*	
18. Job performance (M_T3)	6.38	.55	.07	.09	.10	.00	.07	.15	.14	.13	-.03	.15	.24*	.17	.27**	.13	.14	.21*	.22*

Note: N = 99. Age was coded in years. Gender was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female.
N_T1 = newcomer rating at Time 1; M_T1 = mentor rating at Time 1. Others follow the same rule. PA = positive affectivity; NA = negative affectivity. $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$.

Table 3. Estimated regression coefficients of hypotheses

	Mentors' information sharing		Newcomers' perceived information sharing		Role clarity	Job performance
	Model 1a	**Model 1b**	**Model 2a**	**Model 2b**	**Model 3a**	**Model 3b**
Control variables						
Newcomer age (N_T1)	-.06(.04)	-.05(.04)	.00(.06)	.02(.05)	**.10*(.05)**	.07(.04)
Newcomer gender (N_T1)	.02(.29)	.02(.27)	-.06(.41)	.26(.38)	-.58(.33)	.24(.30)
Newcomer positive affectivity (N_T1)	-.13(.14)	-.15(.13)	-.03(.19)	-.14(.18)	.18(.16)	.11(.14)
Newcomer negative affectivity (N_T1)	**-.14*(.09)**	**-.18*(.08)**	.01(.12)	.01(.12)	-.15(.10)	.13(.10)
Newcomer proactivity (N_T1)	-.17(.09)	-.15(.09)	-.04(.13)	.03(.12)	.08(.11)	.02(.10)
Mentor age (M_T1)	-.01(.01)	-.01(.01)	-.02(.02)	**-.04*(.02)**	.01(.02)	**.04**(.01)**
Mentor gender (M_T1)	**.74**(.28)**	**.65*(.26)**	-.12(.41)	-.24(.38)	-.02(.32)	**.66*(.30)**
Mentor positive affectivity (M_T1)	.22(.12)	.11(.12)	.04(.17)	-.08(.16)	.15(.14)	.23(.12)
Mentor negative affectivity (M_T1)	**-.45***(.08)**	**-.43***(.07)**	-.06(.12)	-.10(.12)	-.01(.10)	.08(.09)
Independent variables						
Newcomers' relationship building behavior (N_T2)	.03(.09)	.07(.09)			-.04(.10)	.01(.09)
Newcomers' information seeking behavior (N_T2)	-.04(.13)	-.05(.12)			.02(15)	.16(.14)
Newcomers' feedback seeking behavior (N_T2)	.05(.07)	.05(.07)			.06(.08)	-.01(.08)
Mediators						
Mentors' information sharing (M_T2)			.00(.14)	.10(.13)	-.03(.11)	.16(.11)
Newcomers' perceived information sharing (N_T2)					**.20*(.09)**	**.15†(.08)**
Moderators						
Mentors' perceived deep similarity (M_T2)		**.13*(.07)**				
Newcomers' perceived deep similarity (N_T2)				**.39***(.10)**		
Two-way interactions						
Newcomers' relationship building × Mentors' perceived deep similarity		**.20*(.09)**				
Mentors' information sharing × Newcomers' perceived deep similarity				**.41*(.18)**		
ΔR^2	**.40*****	**.06***	.02	**.16****	**.23****	**.22****

Note: N = 99. Unstandardized coefficients (standard errors) are reported. Age was coded in years. Gender was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. N_T1 = newcomer rating at Time 1; M_T1 = mentor rating at Time 1. Others follow the same rule. All models have perfect model fit with zero degrees of freedom ($\chi^2(0) = 0$, CFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00; SRMR = .00).$^{\dagger}p < .10$, $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$.

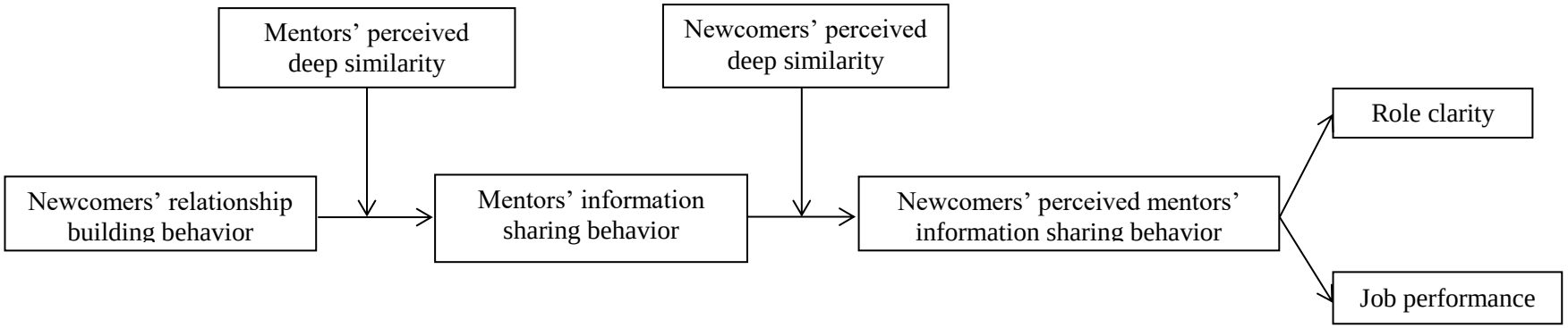

Figure 1. Hypothesized model.

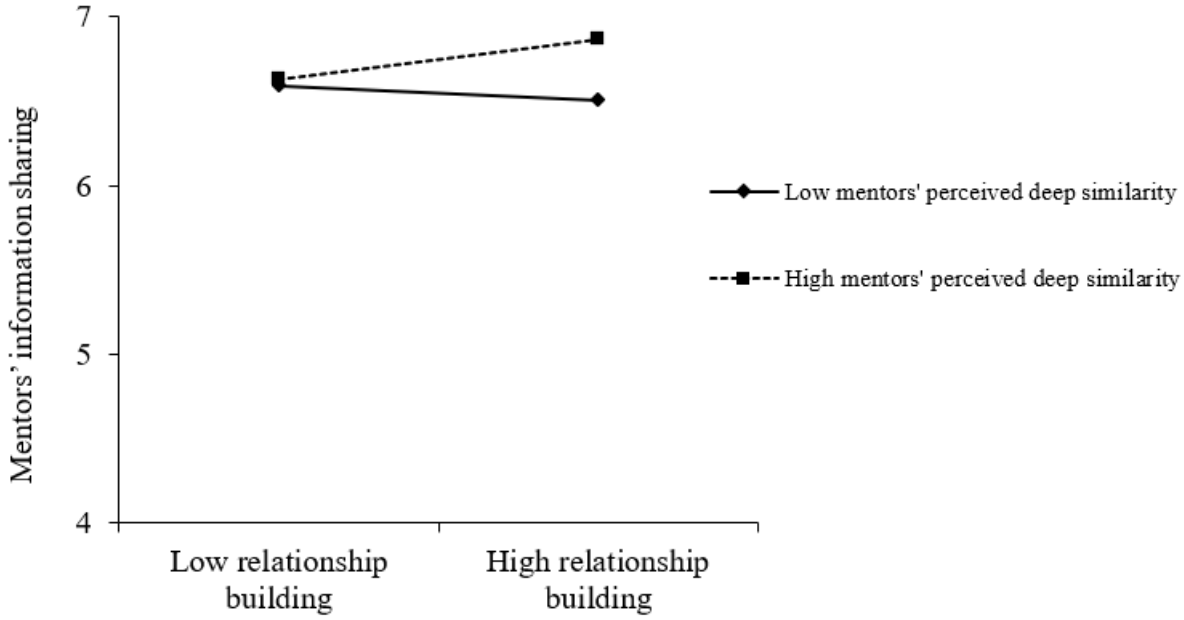

Figure 2. The relationship between newcomers' relationship building and mentors' information sharing under conditions of low and high mentors' perceived deep similarity.

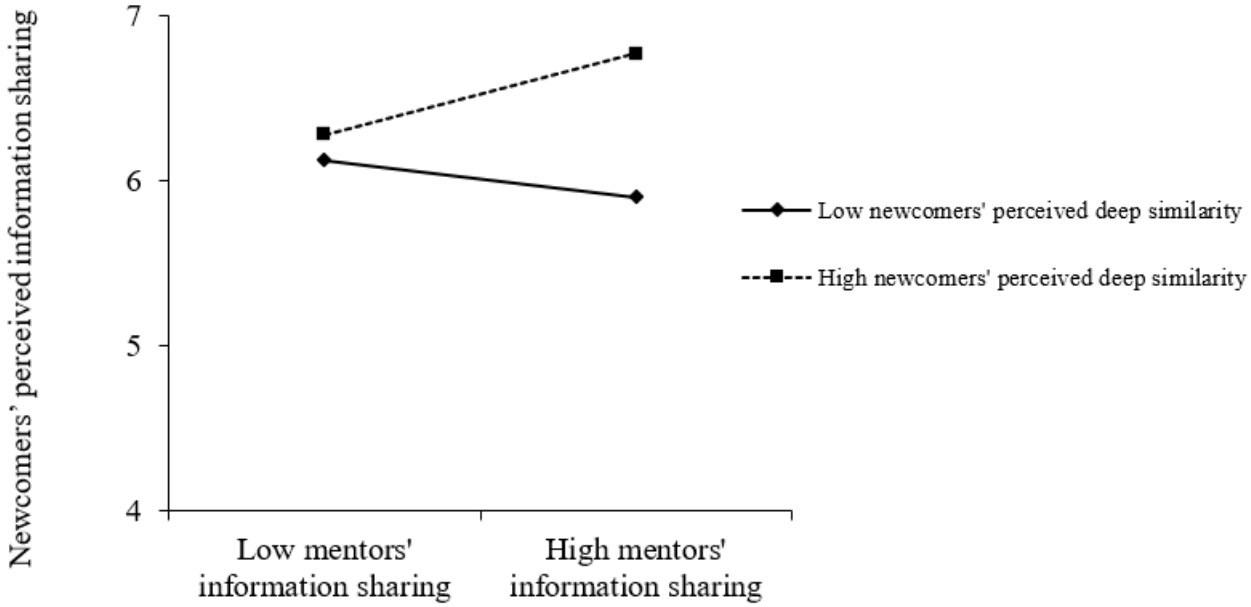

Figure 3. The relationship between mentors' information sharing and newcomers' perceived information sharing under conditions of low and high newcomers' perceived deep similarity.