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Examining the Influence of Mentoring on Job Performance in MNEs: Unravelling the Gender Moderation Effect

(Honours Thesis)

Author

Xin Yu

[REDACTION]

Supervisor(s)

Dr Yuan (Echo) Liao

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge it contains no materials previously published or written by another person, nor material which to a substantial extent has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at the University of Sydney or at any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the thesis.

Any contribution made to the research by others, with whom I have worked at the University of Sydney or elsewhere, is explicitly acknowledged in this thesis.

I also declare that the intellectual content of this thesis is the product of my own work, except to the extent that assistance from others in the projects design and conception or in style, presentation and linguistic expression is acknowledged.

Signature of Author

Xin Yu

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Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

ABSTRACT

This study identified four possible mediators in the relationships between various mentoring functions and various individual performance dimensions: knowledge and skills, POS, self-efficacy and sense of identity. It also attempts to explain how gender moderates the correlations between mentoring functions and job performance dimensions using social role theory and an informal networking viewpoint. I used an online survey to conduct a quantitative study that incorporated existing scales of mentoring functions and job performance dimensions. I conclude by discussing the study's recommendations for mentorship practises as they apply to MNEs, as well as future research prospects.

Chapter 1 Introduction

"Mentoring is a brain to pick, an ear to listen, and a push in the right direction."

- John C. Crosby

The modern global economy has produced a more dynamic and complex market, where most businesses must learn how to compete to experience long-term growth effectively (Tarique & Schuler, 2010). In particular, multinational corporations (MNEs) must constantly respond to their competitors to maintain or strengthen their market positions as they gain a worldwide competitive edge (Yu & Cannella, 2007). Human capital is regarded under the resource-based view as a primary source of competitive advantage (Barney & Wright, 1998; Campbell et al., 2012; Coff & Kryscynski, 2011). To establish a strong talent pool to attract, develop and retain talents with high levels of human capital has become one of the biggest challenges of MNEs (Al Ariss et al., 2014; Cascio & Boudreau, 2016; Lee et al., 2022). In response, some MNEs have invested extensively in internal training and development (Ahlvik et al., 2016), with mentorship as a crucial tool in these initiatives (Hunt & Michael, 1983). As Crosby stated, a mentor may help a career and organisation succeed by offering insights, listening to concerns, and directing decisions.

Previous mentoring research has found several benefits for mentees, such as higher wages and promotions (Allen et al., 2004), and benefits for mentors, such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and less turnover intention (Ghosh & Reio, 2013). Recognising these potential benefits of mentoring, over 92% of Fortune 500 companies in 2021 have implemented formal mentorship programs for their employees (Cook, 2023). These programs

aim to develop and nurture organisational talent by offering employees guidance, support, and role modelling. Facilitating mentoring programmes aims to boost mentees' subsequent performance (Tonidandel et al., 2007). Some organisations also deliberately provide mentoring programs to women and minorities to increase diversity at the top (Douglas & McCauley, 1999). According to a report from MentorcliQ, a pioneer in employee mentoring software, they illuminated that during the recent pandemic, US Fortune 500 companies that used mentoring programs outperformed their counterparts by a significant 53% in financial performance (MentorcliQ, 2022).

In today's rapidly evolving work environment, merely relying on traditional training programs is insufficient to equip professionals with the essential competencies they need (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Organisations have long recognised the value of mentoring as a tool for training and growth, and a means to integrate new employees effectively (E. J. Mullen & Noe, 1999). Mentoring is a cornerstone in human resource development, bridging the gap between formal training and real-world job challenges. This is primarily because structured training courses cannot cover everything an employee might face in real-world settings. Imagine a junior employee who rarely speaks up during team meetings. Even after undergoing assertiveness training, this individual may struggle to voice their opinions in real-life situations like these meetings. This is where a mentor can help. Observing the employee's hesitation, the mentor offers tailored guidance, assisting the employee to gradually articulate and share their ideas (D'Abate et al., 2003). Mentorship can take many forms, but I focused on one-on-one mentorship in this study.

While many studies focus on outcomes for mentees, the volume of research in each

category is relatively limited for each outcome (e.g., promotion and job satisfaction; Wanberg et al., 2003). This lack of evidence indicates a vital need to explore the relationship between mentoring and job performance, defined as actions employees take to advance the organisational objectives (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015), to understand its real-world impact and effectiveness. Meanwhile, employees' individual job performance is one key outcome that organisations are concerned with, as it directly impacts organisations' overall productivity, effectiveness, and bottom line. In addition, existing research generally indicates a positive relationship between mentoring and job performance, but the strength of this relationship varies across studies. Some studies reveal a strong connection between mentorship and job performance (Bozionelos et al., 2016; Egan & Song, 2008), while others indicate little association (Eby et al., 2008; Scandura, 1992). These varied perspectives can be attributed to different research methodologies, demographic considerations, and even the diverse types and structures of mentoring. More specifically, Eby et al. (2008) utilised a meta-analysis, collating findings from 11 research papers; other research employed surveys to gather their primary data.

Moreover, Scandura predominantly involved males (97%), with an average age of 47 years. Participants of Bozionelos et al.'s study (2016) had a more gender-balanced sample, with males constituting 69% and younger, with an average age of 32.5 years. Egan and Song's study (2008) had a higher education level, as 83-84% of participants hold bachelor's degrees. Eby and colleagues (2008) focus on a one-on-one, non-parental mentoring relationship. Scandura's study (1992) involves mentoring with broader functions, including vocational, social support, and role modelling.

A recent meta-analysis has also subdivided job performance into task performance,

contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour (Koopmans et al., 2011). Some empirical evidence has supported that mentoring has a significant influence on task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and counterproductive work behaviour respectively (Day & Allen, 2004; Eby et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2022; Zeng et al., 2020). There appears to be no research demonstrating a relationship between mentoring functions and job performance dimensions. It will, therefore, be interesting to see whether mentoring functions and job performance dimensions are theoretically and empirically related.

Scandura's work (1992) on mentorship, as the first study to classify the relationship between mentoring functions and job performance, serves as a foundation for this research. Built on her mentoring function classification (i.e., vocational, social support, and role modelling), this thesis further investigates how different mentoring functions influenced various dimensions of job performance. In contrast to her method, which uses supervisor-rated performance evaluations, our research is based on mentee self-evaluations. Such self-report assessments might provide a closer and firsthand look at the individual's perceived changes and improvement. Therefore, even if Scandura's findings indicated little association between mentoring functions and overall performance, it is still necessary to analyse the relationships between distinct mentoring functions and various job performance dimensions.

Given the importance of performance for achieving organisational goals, MNEs must clearly understand how mentoring can impact each performance dimension. Therefore, this study aims to examine the relationships between mentoring functions and job performance dimensions in the context of MNEs. I propose the following hypotheses explaining different

mentoring functions positively or negatively related to varying dimensions of job performance.

Hypothesis 1: Career-related mentoring is positively related to task (H1a) and contextual performance (H1b).

Hypothesis 2: Psychosocial-related mentoring is positively related to the task (H2a) and contextual performance (H2b).

Hypothesis 3: Psychosocial-related mentoring is negatively related to CWB.

Hypothesis 4: Positive role-modelling function is positively related to contextual performance (H4a) and adaptive performance (H4b).

Hypothesis 5: Psychosocial-related function is positively related to adaptive performance.

Moreover, the complexity of the relationship between mentoring and job performance is amplified by the diverse environments in which MNEs operate. This is especially evident from a homophily perspective, whereby similar individuals tend to be associated more frequently than dissimilar individuals (McPherson et al., 2001). Because of the diversity of cultures, countries, and backgrounds within multinational enterprises, the impact of homogeneity becomes even more pronounced. While the diversity inherent in multinational enterprises is an asset, it can also inadvertently complicate mentor-mentee pairings, making it difficult to achieve an optimal match between different nationalities, cultures, and backgrounds. Previous research indicates different mentoring functions and outcomes for men and women. For example, according to a meta-analysis examining gender differences in mentoring, male mentees report receiving less psychosocial support than female mentees (O'Brien et al., 2010). According to Ragins and Cotton (1999), women received less coaching, role modelling, friendship, and social engagement when they had formal mentors than informal mentors.

However, the difference was not evident in men. This observation highlights that women may be more influenced by informal mentoring relationships, which may focus more on personal and social interactions rather than just career guidance, whereas men seemed to experience similar impacts in both kinds of mentoring relationships. Based on the above findings, I consider the moderating effect of gender to understand further the relationship between mentoring functions and job performance dimensions. Therefore, this study aims to assess whether mentoring functions affect male and female job performance dimensions differently by examining gender as a moderating factor.

Chapter 2 Evolution of Mentoring

2.1. Traditional and modern perspectives on mentoring

Mentoring as a notion has ancient roots, with the term “mentor” derived from the character “Mentor” in Homer’s “Odyssey”, where Mentor is an advisor and guide to Odysseus’s son, Telemachus. While the tale of Mentor and Telemachus is ancient, the actual use of the term “mentoring” in academic literature to describe a specific type of developmental relationship can be traced back to modern times. Most formal studies and conceptualisations on mentoring in educational and organisational settings trace back to the 20th century.

A pivotal moment in the academic exploration of mentoring came with Daniel Levinson’s 1978 book. In his book, he examined life structures and transitions, introducing the concept of mentoring as an essential part of male development. Based on this framework, Kathy Kram’s 1985 book “Mentoring at Work” became a seminal work in this field by offering a more thorough theoretical foundation for understanding developmental relationships in work environments for people of both genders, including defining the construct of mentoring. According to Kram’s work, traditional mentoring has been defined as a valuable developmental relationship characterised by the guidance and support provided by a more experienced individual (the mentor) to a less experienced individual (the mentee or protégé) in their personal and professional growth (Noe et al., 2002; Ragins, 1999a; Ragins & Kram, 2007; Wanberg et al., 2003). The mentor might either work within the same organisation as the mentee or not, and they may or may not be in the mentee’s direct reporting line or field of expertise (Ragins & Kram, 2007).

Furthermore, the primary focus of the mentoring relationships is on career settings (Ragins

& Kram, 2007). Exploring deeper into the relational aspect of mentoring, Clark and Mils (1993) proposed two primary governing norms of relationships: communal and exchange. Exchange norms operate on the principle of exchange, where benefits are given in anticipation of receiving comparable benefits in return. On the contrary, communal norms prioritise the needs and well-being of the other party, offering benefits without expecting anything in return. Although the governing norms of mentoring relationships remain undecided between communal and exchange norms, some suggest that communal norms should be the primary motivator for true relational mentoring to thrive and foster strong bonds (Ragins & Verbos, 2007).

With a focus on the evolution of mentoring (C. A. Mullen & Klimaitis, 2021), the term "mentoring" has developed from its Odyssey beginnings to cover numerous academic and organisational definitions. Over a decade ago, Eby, Rhodes and Allen (2007) emphasised that the definitions reflected ambiguous expectations and vaguely defined duties for mentors and mentees. Developing a broadly agreed definition of mentoring is a complex attempt. This complexity arises due to the numerous cultural, social, and individual perceptions and beliefs associated with the concept, leading some, like Clutterbuck et al. (2017), to argue that an all-inclusive definition might not be appropriate. However, recent prevailing agreement is that mentoring is relational and developmental, marked by distinct phases and transitions (Clutterbuck et al., 2017).

Kram's qualitative mentoring research (1983) established that mentoring relationships evolve through four stages: initiation, cultivation, separation, and redefinition. "Initiation" occurs during the first 6 to 12 months of relationships, when mentors and mentees set

expectations and get to know one another. “Cultivation” is the second part of the stages, lasting two to five years, during which the relationships mature, and the mentees benefit the most from the mentors. After that, mentees become geographically (Ragins, 1997) and emotionally (Chao, 1997) independent of mentors through separation, a transition stage. The final phase is redefinition, in which mentor-mentee interaction becomes more comparable to friends and peers. Since most research on mentoring stages focuses on Western work contexts, a recent Chinese study proposes that other stages (i.e., pre-mentoring interaction, formal start, processing, transition, and continuation) may exist in Eastern cultures, which is supported by interview (Zhou et al., 2019).

In modern practice, mentoring is frequently classified as either formal or informal (Wanberg et al., 2003). Formal mentoring programs are typically structured, with specific objectives, timelines, and matched pairs often decided by an organisation or institution (Egan & Song, 2008). In contrast, informal mentoring relationships arise organically, often based on mutual interests, respect, or personal chemistry (Egan & Song, 2008; Ragins & Cotton, 1991). Both forms have their unique merits, with formal mentoring providing a clear pathway and support system for mentees, while informal mentoring allows for a more flexible and spontaneous relationship development. According to Eby et al.’s meta-analytic research (2013), informal mentorships are more efficient than formal mentorships, but the difference is small. Therefore, I do not include the distinction between mentoring program types in this study.

However, how to accurately describe the dimension of mentoring functions is the subject of debate. There needs to be more clarity regarding the number of distinct dimensions that comprise mentoring functions. Some exploratory factor analyses indicate a two-function model

(Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990), whereas others indicate a three-function model (Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993).

Two primary functions of mentoring are widely accepted: career (or instrumental) function and psychosocial (or emotional) function (Wanberg et al., 2003). These mentoring functions were initially identified in qualitative research (Kram, 1985, as cited in Wanberg et al., 2003) and have been commonly used in subsequent quantitative studies (Allen et al., 2008; Wanberg et al., 2003), although the measurements of these functions differ slightly across studies. **Career functions** involve offering guidance and support to the mentee in terms of career advancement (Allen et al., 2004; Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). This function includes *sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments* (Kram, 1983). More precisely, it can nominate the mentees for promotions, offer opportunities to show their competence and unique abilities, provide guidance on achieving work objectives, protect them from potentially controversial situations, and assign challenging work assignments (Noe, 1988b). According to Ragins (1997), internal mentors who work within the same organisation as their mentees may supply more organisational resources than external mentors who work outside the organisation. Internal mentors may be more accessible than external mentors, better protect their mentees from negative forces, sponsor positions within the organisation, and assign challenging assignments to build skills and self-confidence (Ragins, 1997), implying that internal mentors are more likely to provide more career functions than external mentors.

Psychosocial functions, rooted in trust, intimacy, and interpersonal bonds, encompass mentor behaviours that support mentees in shaping the quality of their interpersonal

relationships (Kram, 1983; Noe, 1988a; Ragins & McFarlin, 1990). The activities, *acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling, and friendship,* help mentees improve their sense of identity, competence, self-worth, and self-efficacy in a professional role (Kram, 1983; Ragins & Kram, 2007). Concerns addressed by psychosocial function include "the individual's relationship with self and with significant others both within and outside the organisation" (Kram, 1980, p79), which extend beyond organisational advancement. During these activities, mentees are able to try new behaviours and are empowered to explore self-differentiation, thereby promoting learning rather than mere compliance. Mentors' behaviours, such as acting as a sounding board, sharing personal experiences, and providing feedback on resolving difficulties, can also enhance mentees' ability to deal with personal challenges (Lankau & Scandura, 2007).

The controversy focuses primarily on whether **role-modelling** should be viewed as an independent dimension of mentoring functions (Wanberg et al., 2003). Some scholars argue that the role-modelling function is merely a common psychosocial function that mentors offer to their mentees (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). However, Scandura (1992) contends that role modelling is a distinct dimension of mentoring functions and was supported by multi-group invariance tests and confirmatory factor analyses (Chun et al., 2012). One possible distinction is that role-modelling operates more passively than other psychosocial activities (Scandura & Viator, 1994). Even though mentees consciously admire and wish to emulate their mentors, much role-modelling remains subconscious (Chao, 2007). Her work explains that mentors often establish behavioural norms without realising it; Mentees, in turn, may subconsciously integrate subtle insights and lessons from these interactions. This process consequently influences and shapes mentees' personal attributes, values, and professional character (Kram,

1985, as cited in Lankau & Scandura, 2007).

2.2. Determinants of mentoring

While mentors may perform a crucial role in the professional development of many mentees, it was shown that specific individuals are more likely than others to obtain mentorship (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Research posits that women and minorities might face heightened challenges in securing mentorship compared to their White male counterparts, potentially leading to fewer or lower-quality mentoring opportunities (Noe, 1988b; Ragins, 1999a, 1999b). Although self-reported data indicates women believe they encounter more challenges in finding a mentor than men do (Ragins & Cotton, 1991), the empirical data on whether women and minorities are indeed less mentored remains controversial (Ragins, 1999a; Wanberg et al., 2003).

In terms of educational background and organisational tenure, human capital is another potential antecedent of mentorship (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Substantial evidence indicates that mentors often select mentees based on anticipated productivity. In interviews with mentors, Allen and colleagues (Allen et al., 1997) discovered that mentors were inclined towards competent and driven individuals as their mentees. This trend has been supported by subsequent studies (Allen, 2004; Allen et al., 2000). The underlying rationale seems to be that mentors seek out those who are most likely to return the favour in the future by offering valuable information or enhancing the mentor's standing in the organisation (Mullen & Noe, 1999; Ragins, 1997; Ragins & Scandura, 1994). Consequently, those with higher education and more organisational experience might have a better chance of being chosen as mentees

(Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008).

Considering these antecedents, it can be inferred that the presence or absence of mentoring, influenced by factors like gender, race, education, and organisational tenure, may have downstream effects on performance ratings. Those with mentors, mainly if selected based on perceived potential and competence, could receive even higher performance evaluations due to their mentors' guidance, support, and resources.

2.3. Outcomes of mentoring

Most mentoring literature has been centred around the career outcomes of mentees and has discovered a positive correlation between having a mentor and favourable career outcomes (Noe et al., 2002; Wanberg et al., 2003). Reinforcing this narrative, Allen et al. (2008) conducted an extensive literature review and found that the mentee was the main subject of investigation in 80.2% of the published studies on mentoring. Allen and her colleagues' (2004) meta-analysis also reinforces these findings by indicating that mentored personnel outperformed their non-mentored peers in both promotions and salary brackets. In addition to these objective outcomes, mentored individuals report better levels of job satisfaction, career commitment, and desires for advancement as compared to those who are not mentored. As they explored more into mentoring dynamics, the researchers classified mentoring functions as predictors of various mentorship outcomes. Specifically, career-oriented functions predict mentees' compensation and advancement more significantly, whereas psychosocial functions are more closely tied to mentees' satisfaction within the mentorship relationship (Allen et al., 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2003). Dickson et al.'s (2014) meta-analysis

discovered that role modelling was a stronger predictor of various outcomes (e.g., mentorship and job satisfaction, promotions, job performance) than either psychosocial or career-related functions.

While tangible benefits such as higher salaries and promotions, as well as the mentee's satisfaction in the mentoring relationship, are important, the real indicator of value to the mentee and the organisation is the ability to perform job responsibilities well (Greenhaus & Singh, 2007). This perspective is naturally consistent with the emphasis on job performance, a key metric that describes how well a worker's performance matches job requirements (Christen et al., 2006). It is thus a highly desired result by both managers and employers (Bozionelos et al., 2016). One might assume that those with superior job performance would naturally achieve more career successes, such as promotions. However, empirical evidence suggests these two have a weak association at best (Carmeli et al., 2007). Thus, simply because mentoring increases career advancement does not always imply that it improves mentee job performance. Bozionelos et al. (2016) confirmed this in a questionnaire of 207 information technology (IT) professionals from three IT companies in three European countries. They found that mentorship receipt significantly connected with job performance ($r = .25$, $p < .001$).

When considering mentee performance, it can be an antecedent to the mentoring relationship, with mentors naturally providing more support to higher-performing mentees (Green & Bauer, 1995), or it can be an outcome where more supportive relationships help mentees perform better (Sanchez et al., 2006). For the scope of our focus, I am particularly interested in understanding whether and how supportive mentorship elevates mentee performance. The idea that receiving mentoring benefits mentee performance is prevalent in

the mentoring research (e.g., Joo et al., 2010). However, sufficient empirical evidence to solidify this claim is limited (Bozionelos et al., 2016). Inconsistencies between studies could be attributed to different research methodologies, variable sample demographics, and the diverse types and structures of mentoring programs. Therefore, though the overall narrative emphasises how mentoring improves mentee performance, specific outcomes seem dependent on the details and complexities of the mentoring research.

2.4. Negative mentoring

Mentoring is not always beneficial. A poor mentor can sometimes do more harm to a mentee than no mentor at all (Ragins et al., 2000). Common problems reported by mentees include a mismatch in values, personality, or work styles, distancing behaviours, and manipulative behaviours by the mentor (Eby et al., 2000). Furthermore, mentees with negative mentoring experiences reported higher stress and turnover intentions and lower job satisfaction (Eby & Allen, 2002). Stress and job satisfaction directly and indirectly impact job performance, respectively (Lee & Lee, 2018; Lepine et al., 2005). Thus, negative mentoring may also affect job performance.

Chapter 3 Job Performance

3.1. Definition and measurement

Although performance can be conceptualised and measured at broader levels (i.e., group, organisation, industry), this study focuses on individual job performance. Individual performance is essential for an organisation as a whole and for the individuals working in it (Parker & Turner, 2002). Individual job performance is widely agreed to be defined as actions employees take to advance the organisational objectives (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). Three aspects come along with this definition. Firstly, job performance is best represented by behaviours rather than others; secondly, only those behaviours relevant to organisational goals could be categorised under job performance; and thirdly, job performance is inherently multidimensional (Koopmans et al., 2011).

A multi-dimensional perspective on job performance can provide a richer, more accurate reflection of an employee's contributions to an organisation. Koopmans et al. (2011) conducted a systematic review by identifying various generic and job-specific frameworks of individual work performance and integrating them into a heuristic conceptual framework encompassing different dimensions. The first dimension, **task performance**, is mentioned in almost all frameworks (Koopmans et al., 2011) and refers to the core technical tasks that individuals perform in their jobs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). It is measured through indicators of time management, goal alignment, prioritisation skills, and overall task efficiency (Koopmans et al., 2011). Essentially, task performance evaluates how well someone does what they are explicitly hired to do. The second dimension, **contextual performance**, can be tagged with various labels, like non-specific task proficiency, extra-role performance, organisational citizenship behaviour,

or interpersonal relationships at work. In general, however, all concepts refer to the behaviours that transcend the formal job descriptions, aiming to enhance the overall organisational environment. This performance is sometimes also referred to as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) (Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019) due to the substantial overlap between the behavioural components of these two terms (Motowidlo, 2000). This might involve voluntarily taking on additional tasks or offering assistance and collaboration to co-workers (Koopmans et al., 2011). Therefore, in this study, this study sometimes uses OCB to refer to contextual performance.

Adaptive performance, the third dimension, focuses on an individual's ability to adapt to changing work environments or changes in job roles (Koopmans et al., 2011). While certain frameworks in Koopmans et al.'s review include adaptive performance within the context of contextual performance, its nature must be distinguished. Adaptive performance is concerned with "competency acquisition" behaviours, whereas contextual performance is concerned with "competency expression" behaviours (Shoss et al., 2012). Given the increasing complexity and dynamic of work systems, as well as the evolving nature of individual job performance, Pulakos et al. (2000) argue that adaptive performance should be considered as a separate performance when assessing individual work performance. This thesis adopts this viewpoint because it aligns with the context of the current research on MNEs. For example, employees often have to navigate a complicated interplay of their own culture, the prevalent organisational culture, and the culture of their host country in the constantly shifting environment of multinational companies. As global workplaces grow increasingly diverse, the ability to handle potential and unpredictable changes becomes invaluable. Finally, the behavioural dimensions

that constitute the performance domain should include not only positive behaviours toward the organisation but also some negative behaviours (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013). Therefore, the last performance is **counterproductive work behaviour (CWB)**, which involves behaviours that harm organisational well-being compared to the first three performances (Koopmans et al., 2011; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

3.2. Determinants of job performance

Over the last 40 years, several theoretical and empirical investigations have generated causal models of job performance that clarify how individual trait variables (e.g., cognitive ability and personality), state variables (e.g., knowledge and skills), and situational characteristics (e.g., the reward structure, managerial and peer leadership), as well as their interactions, affect job performance (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; Motowidlo & Kell, 2013). Hunter (1983) was one of the first to publish such an article. This 3,264-case meta-analysis examined the relationships between cognitive ability, job knowledge, work sample performance, and supervisory evaluations of job performance. The model he developed has a direct correlation between ability, job knowledge and work sample performance. Furthermore, it demonstrates a direct relationship between job knowledge and work sample performance, as well as between job knowledge and work sample performance and supervisory judgements of performance. The average correlations among his meta-analysis studies supported this model. It is critical to highlight that ability did not affect supervisory ratings other than through effects on work sample performance and job knowledge. It also had a far more substantial influence on knowledge than on work sample performance. Hunter's findings demonstrate that ability

directly influences job knowledge and skill, but only indirectly affects job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013; Viswesvaran, 2001) if work sample performance is seen as a measure of job skill (Campbell et al., 1996) and supervisory ratings are interpreted as a measure of job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2013).

McCloy and his colleagues (1994) proposed a performance model that formalised Hunter's (1983) findings on the relationships between ability, job knowledge, skill, and job performance. They argued and found empirical evidence that declarative knowledge, procedural skill, and motivation are direct determinants of work performance. Declarative knowledge refers to facts, rules, principles, and procedures that can be tested using paper and pencil (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Procedural skill is the capacity to complete tasks by understanding what to do and actually being able to do it (McCloy et al., 1994; Viswesvaran, 2001). Motivation is the choice of whether to expend effort (direction), how much effort to expend (intensity), and how long to devote effort (duration) (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; McCloy et al., 1994; Viswesvaran, 2001). I use role-specific knowledge, skill (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015), and motivation to refer to these three determinants in this study.

Chapter 4 Impact of Mentoring on Job Performance

As indicated in earlier discussions, mentoring functions are often categorised into three categories: career, psychosocial, and role-modelling. “Mentoring is not an all-or-nothing relationship” (Ragins, 1997, p484). Mentors may perform some or all of these functions or activities (Ragins, 1997). Each of these mentoring functions offers unique activities and attributes. When mentees absorb from these elements, either separately or in combination, it could potentially enhance the mentees’ performance in different dimensions. Individual work performance is directly affected by role-specific knowledge, skill and motivation. Previous research with empirical evidence suggests that personality traits (e.g., conscientiousness), ability (e.g., cognitive ability), and experience influence individual performance mainly via their impact on knowledge, skill and motivation—especially knowledge (Hattrup, O’Connell, & Wingate, 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Mount et al., 2008; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998, Schmidt et al., 1986). Hunter’s findings (1983, 1986) first confirm that role-specific knowledge and skill improve performance. He also found that cognitive ability affects job performance by affecting job knowledge and skill. Schmidt and his colleagues (1986) expanded on Hunter’s (1983) variables by including job experience. Using data from four studies, they showed that, in addition to ability, experience directly impacted both job knowledge. Therefore, knowledge is significantly and directly influenced by experience and ability. The concept of Hunter’s meta-analyses (1983, 1986) is also included in the theory of individual differences in work performance provided by Motowidlo et al. (1997). The theory’s intervening variables—knowledge, skills, and work habits—are acquired by experience when combined with cognitive ability and personality traits. A review in this field concluded that ability, experience, and

conscientiousness are associated with individual performance via knowledge and skill (Schmidt and Hunter, 1998). Therefore, knowledge and skill directly affect job performance.

4.1. Career-related mentoring

Motowidlo et al.'s theory of job performance (1997) distinguished between task performance and contextual performance. One group of knowledge, skills, and habits is supposed to have a direct effect on task performance, whereas a different group of knowledge, skills, and habits is assumed to have a direct impact on contextual performance. The hypotheses in the theory state that personality traits are more closely tied to contextual knowledge and skill, which includes some types of interpersonal knowledge and skill, whereas cognitive ability is more closely linked to technical knowledge and skill. It further predicts that extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are stronger contextual performance indicators, whereas cognitive ability predicts task performance better. Some research empirically demonstrates that cognitive ability is a stronger predictor of task performance and that personality (e.g., conscientiousness) is a better predictor of other performance dimensions, such as contextual performance and CWB (e.g., Hattrup, O'Connell, & Wingate, 1998; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998).

Motowidlo et al. (1997) also distinguished between task and contextual knowledge, skills, and habits. Task knowledge refers to the knowledge of an organisation's technical core facts, principles, practises, heuristics, and regulations. Task skill is the skill to use technical data, carry out technical procedures, handle information, make decisions, solve problems, and make judgements related to the technical core of the organisation. It requires competence in utilising

technical knowledge to do tasks swiftly and accurately. Task work habits are behavioural patterns that arise from specific task situations and can help or hinder task performance, such as using technical data, making decisions, and so on that may or may not be compatible with what the performer thinks is best practice. Understanding the facts, guidelines, and protocols necessary for taking appropriate action in scenarios involving collaboration, following rules, advancing organisational goals, perseverance, and volunteering is known as contextual knowledge. Contextual skill is the skill to carry out known effective actions in circumstances that call for collaboration, compliance with organisational policies, and support of organisational goals. Contextual work habits are patterns of behaviour that can enhance or hamper performance in a contextual work environment, such as preferences for handling conflict, interpersonal and political styles, communication styles, and more.

Career-related functions broadly prepare mentees for career advancement and guide them on how to navigate the organisation (Kram, 1983). These functions include *sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments* (Allen et al., 2004; Kram, 1980, 1983). Kram's qualitative data explained what mentorship functions and how they may help mentees improve knowledge and skills to varying degrees (Kram, 1980). According to her definition of each activity, coaching and challenging assignments are most directly related to knowledge and skills (Kram, 1980). Coaching improves the mentee's knowledge and awareness of navigating efficiently in the business environment (Kram, 1980). The mentor presents specific strategies for achieving work goals, gaining recognition, and reaching specific career aspirations (Dougherty et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Singh, 2007; Kram, 1980). For example, coaching involves sharing ideas on how to make a presentation to senior management

to ensure that the work result is accepted favourably (Kram, 1980). It consists of providing mentees with comments on his or her operating style after such critical events. Challenging assignments are most directly tied to the department's current job (Kram, 1980). The challenging work, coupled with technical training from the mentor and continual performance evaluation, allows the mentee to build specialised skills and experience achievement (Dougherty et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Singh, 2007; Kram, 1980).

Sponsorship and, exposure and visibility may also enhance knowledge and skills. Sponsorship occurs when a mentor nominates or "sponsors" a mentee for significant opportunities (such as promotions, awards, or major initiatives), introducing the mentee to new environments and challenges (Dougherty et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Singh, 2007). These opportunities often require mentees to interact with different groups within the organisation, exposing them to different perspectives and expertise from departments other than their own (Lankau & Scandura, 2002), which may enhance their diverse knowledge and skills. Mentees who receive "exposure and visibility" are assigned duties that need them to connect with upper management, giving them the opportunity to observe and interact with seasoned professionals (Dougherty et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Singh, 2007). Similar to sponsorship, engaging with senior management may also gain some additional perspective and expertise, so this may enhance their knowledge and skills as well.

While protection does not provide knowledge or skills, it does include the mentor providing public support for the mentee; sponsorship and, exposure and visibility also imply similar support (Baranik et al., 2010). These career-related mentoring supports may signal to mentees that the organisation is invested in their career development, which may serve to

convince them that the organisation cares about the mentees' well-being, promoting the development of perceived organisational support (POS) (Baranik et al., 2010). According to organisational support theory (OST, derived from social exchange theory; Eisenberger et al., 1986), POS occurs when employees feel that the organisation values and supports their well-being and career development. OST uses social exchange theory to view employment as an exchange of effort and loyalty for tangible rewards and social resources from the organisation (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). POS should evoke reciprocity, creating a sense of obligation to support the organisation and the expectation that improved performance would be recognised and rewarded (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Thus, employees with high POS may exert more job-related efforts, improving in-role and extra-role performance for the company. Riggle et al.'s (2009) meta-analysis reveals a weak positive relationship between POS and task performance. Through a meta-analysis of over 500 studies, Kurtessis and his colleagues (2017) reconfirms that POS is positively associated with employee task performance and is also positively related to OCB-I (OCB directed at Individuals).

In addition, career-related mentoring seems to improve self-efficacy as well. Generalised self-efficacy is an individual's perception of their capability to handle varied life challenges and tasks (Bandura, 1986). People with high self-efficacy are more likely to engage in, persist with, and exert effort on tasks, often leading to better results. Conversely, those with low self-efficacy may exert minimal effort and abandon tasks when faced with challenges (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy beliefs are often determined and modified by "performance attainment (personal accomplishments), vicarious experience (modelling), verbal persuasion, and physiological states and reactions" (Vvan Vianen, 1999, p642). When mentees learn knowledge

and skills in career-related mentoring, they may develop a sense of personal accomplishments, thereby improving self-efficacy.

Accumulated research has also empirically proven that self-efficacy is a strongly related antecedent of individual adaptive performance (Chen et al., 2005; Griffin & Hesketh, 2003; Marques-Quinteiro et al., 2015; Pulakos et al., 2002). Jundt et al. (2015) review ten research studies regarding the individual adaptive performance and list motivation as one antecedent of Individual adaptive performance, which is consistent with the above-mentioned McCloy et al. (1994), who believe that motivation is one of the direct determinants of individual job performance. Self-efficacy is classified under motivation (Jundt et al., 2015). Of the ten studies, eight revealed a positive link between self-efficacy and adaptive performance, with only two studies finding null effects of self-efficacy. One of the studies (Allworth & Hesketh, 1999) that discovered no relationship between self-efficacy and adaptive performance evaluated overall efficacy on job responsibilities rather than more particular efficacy beliefs on specific dimensions of adaptive performance. Park & Park (2019) recently also did a review that includes 34 empirical studies on adaptive performance, also confirmed that self-efficacy (one of individual motivational factors) is one of the important antecedents of adaptive performance. They included seven elements of individual characteristics that influence employee adaptive performance in the antecedents of the adaptive performance model, which include personality, knowledge, skills and abilities, and motivation. This is consistent with the determinants I discussed before on overall job performance.

Based on the discussion so far, it can be concluded that career-related mentoring could improve performance through knowledge and skills, POS, and self-efficacy. Therefore,

assuming that other abilities and personality conditions are consistent (or similar), I expect that career-related mentoring will further improve an individual's specific job performance. I test these theoretical perspectives with the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1: Career-related mentoring is positively related to task (H1a), contextual performance (H1b), and adaptive performance (H1c).

4.2. Psychosocial-related mentoring

Unlike career function, which depends on the mentor's ability to create opportunities for the mentees and help them succeed in their careers, psychosocial functions depend on the mentor-mentee relationship to boost a mentee's professional competence, identity, self-worth and self-efficacy (Dougherty et al., 2007; Kram,1980; Ragins & Kram, 2007). Core components of psychosocial mentoring encompass acceptance-and-confirmation, counselling, and friendship (Kram, 1983). Acceptance-and-confirmation provide support and encouragement, enabling mentees to try new behaviours instead of demanding conformity (Greenhaus & Singh, 2007; Kram, 1980). Counselling provides acceptance, support, and empathy by establishing a relationship of trust (Greenhaus & Singh, 2007). For example, the mentee gets comfort in knowing that s/he may share personal doubts and worries without risking exposure to other personnel and addresses issues that could otherwise hinder performance and self-worth (Kram, 1980). Finally, friendship is characterised by mutual liking and enjoyable interactions inside and outside of the workplace (i.e., informal social exchanges) (Dougherty et al., 2007; Greenhaus & Singh, 2007; Kram, 1980).

In a mentoring relationship with high psychosocial support, the mentee is likely to develop

positive affective attitudes due to trust, friendship, and respect, which then generalise to the mentee's belief in the organisation as a whole, that the organisation cares about his or her well-being (Baranik et al., 2010). Employees who perceive higher organisational support are more likely to feel an obligation to help the organisation achieve its objectives and, thus, are more likely to engage in behaviours beneficial to the organisation (Kurtessis et al., 2017). The meta-analysis including over 500 studies (Kurtessis et al., 2017) has indeed corroborated that POS is positively associated with task performance and OCB-I, and negatively associated with CWB-I (CWB directed at Individuals). Therefore, it can be inferred that psychosocial mentoring, which enhances feelings of organisational support, would likely have a positive impact on task and contextual performance and can be expected to exhibit a negative correlation with CWB.

Moreover, in line with the previously mentioned definition of psychosocial-related mentoring, this function assists mentees in increasing self-efficacy in their professional roles (Kram, 1983; Ragins & Kram, 2007). Acceptance-and-confirmation from a more accomplished, experienced, and influential mentor appears to be an ideal source to enhance the mentee's self-efficacy due to the source's credibility and knowledge, which affect verbal persuasion (Day & Allen, 2004). Individuals' mental and physical states (i.e., physiological states and reactions) also have an impact on their sense of self-efficacy (Vvan Vianen, 1999). Anxiety or stress, for example, might diminish self-efficacy, whereas positive feelings can boost it (Vvan Vianen, 1999). Counselling and friendship can assist in resolving or listening to job or personal confusion or difficulties, which may reduce anxiety or depression and thereby promote self-efficacy. As mentioned earlier, self-efficacy is one of the antecedents of individual adaptive

performance (Chen et al., 2005; Griffin & Hesketh, 2003; Marques-Quinteiro et al., 2015; Pulakos et al., 2002). Therefore, it can be inferred that psychosocial-related mentoring is positively related to adaptive performance.

It is reasonable to conclude that psychosocial-related mentoring could promote performance via POS and self-efficacy. I predict that psychosocial-related mentoring will boost an individual's specific job performance. The following hypotheses are used to test these theoretical viewpoints.

Hypothesis 2: Psychosocial-related mentoring is positively related to the task (H2a), contextual performance (H2b), and adaptive performance (H2c).

Hypothesis 3: Psychosocial-related mentoring is negatively related to CWB.

4.3. Role-modelling mentoring

Role modelling is characterised by the mentee's identification with the mentors (Kram, 1980). The process of role modelling, according to Kram (1980), happens when the mentees identify aspects of their idealised or current self in the mentors and make an effort to imitate these aspects. Albert Bandura's social learning theory states that people learn by observing and imitating the behaviour of others (Bandura, 1977a), which seems to explain why and how mentees are influenced, consciously or unconsciously, by the mentor's role modelling. Through modelling or observation, mentees can improve their own performance of work activities they have observed mentors accomplish (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). For instance, if mentees have observed mentors effectively lead team meetings, they may develop the ability to regulate their own behaviour in such circumstances (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Mentees may learn more

from observing their mentors' successes than from their mentors' failures (Tonidandel et al., 2007). When mentees observe that the role model's behaviour is rewarded or appropriate to the current situation, it affects their motivation to perform similarly and their expectation of eventual reward (Bandura, 1977b).

Kram's conceptualisation of role modelling also aligns closely with Gibson's (2004) understanding, recognising the significance of perceived similarities between the mentors and the mentees. Gibson (2004) viewed a role model as "a cognitive construction based on the attributes of people in social roles an individual perceives to be similar to him or herself to some extent and desires to increase perceived similarity by emulating those attributes" (p. 136). The viewpoint that perceived similarity fosters a sense of identification with others aligns with Sluss and Ashforth's (2007) concept of relational identification. Sluss and Ashforth (2007) define relational identification as the extent to which individuals define themselves in terms of role relationships and their perceived congruence with that relationship. Within the mentoring relationships, role modelling becomes an embodiment of this relational identification (Mitchell et al., 2015), in which mentees internalise qualities that they value from their mentors (Kram, 1980).

More importantly, mentoring itself can be viewed as a manifestation of OCB (Eby et al., 2015). Given the time and commitment required for mentoring, not everyone is motivated or willing to take on this role (Allen, 2003). Serving as a mentor often extends beyond normal job requirements. When mentees identify with their mentors, they are likely to resonate with the OCB exhibited by their mentors and are, therefore, more likely to exhibit higher levels of OCB.

Relational identification also may assist people in comprehending and appreciating the

collective (Sluss & Ashforth, 2007). As Sluss and Ashforth explain, individuals who identify with a role-relationship may also identify with the collective that maintains and embodies the role-relationship, and the collective is essentially seen as an extension of the role-relationship. When mentees consider their mentors as role models, this viewpoint implies that the mentees may extend the identification to broader collectives, like the organisation (Mitchell et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2013). Collective identification motivates individuals to align their actions with group objectives (Ellemers et al., 2004). This is consistent with the ideas of affective commitment, which represents an emotional bond with, identification with, and active participation in the organisation (Meyer et al., 2002). Existing evidence has shown a positive correlation between affective commitment and OCB (Meyer et al., 2002; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Thus, given the interconnectedness of relational identification, collective identification, and affective commitment, it is plausible to infer that the influence of role modelling could have a positive impact on OCB (i.e., contextual performance).

Role modelling appears to be related to self-efficacy as well (Day & Allen, 2004). According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b), vicarious experience is individuals learning vicariously through observing the behaviour of similar others (i.e., models) and the consequences of that behaviour. A recent study supports the concept that when adolescent athletes are modelled through role models, their self-efficacy increases (Lee et al., 2021). As previously stated, self-efficacy is related to adaptive performance. Thus, due to identification and self-efficacy, I propose the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: Positive role-modelling function is positively related to contextual performance (H4a) and adaptive performance (H4b).

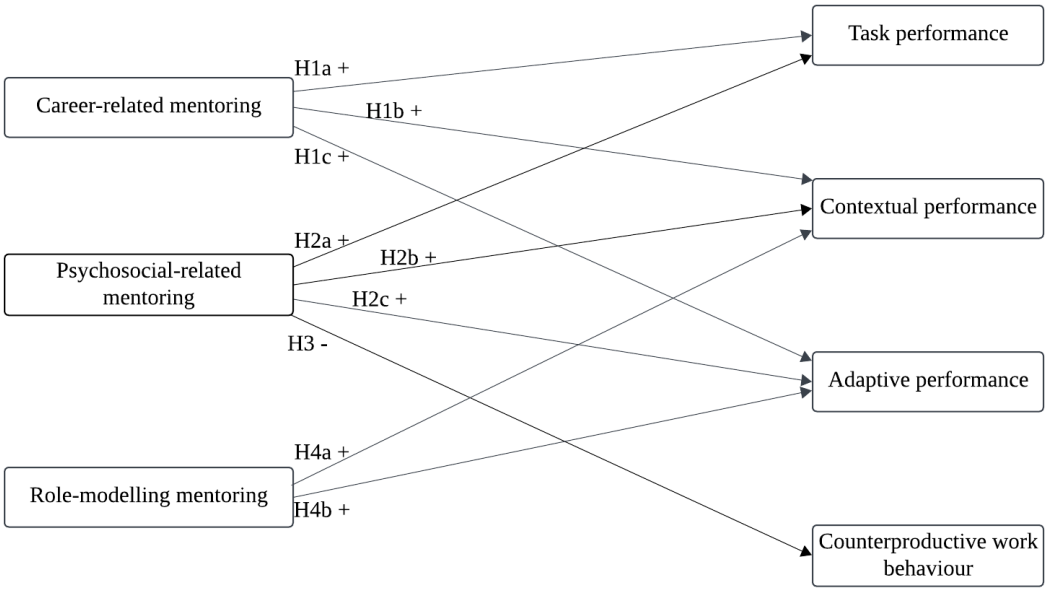

Fig. 1. Structural model of the relationship between mentoring and job performance.

Chapter 5 Gender Matters in Mentorship

Recent research has indicated that a lack of mentoring, consistent with the previously discussed lower access or quality of mentorship for women than men, is a significant barrier preventing women from attaining higher managerial positions and affecting job performance (Md Yusoff et al., 2011). Social role theory and the homophily principle in social networks could explain why women have fewer opportunities to be mentored than men. Social role theory posits that the division of labour between sexes in a society leads to the development of gender roles, which are societal norms about what types of behaviours are considered appropriate for each sex (Eagly, 1987). Given the gendered expectations embedded in many societies, men are often stereotyped as being more competent, assertive, and suited for leadership roles, while women are viewed as more nurturing, communal, and suited for supportive roles (Eagly, 1987). Hentschel et al.'s (2019) quantitative research shows that these traits of gender stereotypes are still prevalent currently. This can result in organisational cultures that favour and prioritise men for mentorship opportunities, seeing them as potential future leaders or contributors of greater value. Women, being stereotypically associated with more supportive roles, might be overlooked for mentorship because they are not seen as fitting the "leader model" or because of biases that they might prioritise family over career. Additionally, the homophily principle suggests that similarity breeds connection. People tend to form connections and relationships with others who share similar attributes or backgrounds, including gender (McPherson et al., 2001). Because of the higher number of men in senior leadership positions in many organisations, there are more potential male mentors available (O'Brien et al., 2010; Noe, 1988b). The homophily principle suggests that these men might

naturally gravitate towards mentoring other men, given their perceived similarities in experiences, challenges, and societal expectations. This means women might have fewer opportunities to find mentors simply because there are fewer women in positions to offer mentorship, and those in positions of power (often men) might unconsciously prefer to mentor individuals similar to themselves.

Social role theory combined with the social networks perspective may illustrate why different mentoring functions may improve job performance differently for each gender. One of the core principles of the social network view is that access to valuable resources is either facilitated or hindered by the nature of social connections (Brass, 1984; Ibarra, 1993). Informal networks are used to convey social identity (norms) and social support in addition to work-related resources, including task advice and strategic information (Podolny & Baron, 1997). Sparrow and his colleagues provide evidence that social networks are related to individual performance (Sparrowe et al., 2001). Specifically, central members of a work group's social network perform better in-role and extra-role than those who are not central to that network. Under gender expectations, men, often positioned as breadwinners (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Eagly & Wood, 2016), have been predisposed to cultivate extensive professional networks to advance in their careers. In contrast, women, traditionally seen as caregivers (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2012; Eagly & Wood, 2016), have faced barriers in penetrating these informal circles. This divergence is accentuated by the homophily principle of social networks. In many professional environments, especially those that are male-dominated, this principle implies that men are more likely to form tight-knit informal networks, potentially excluding their female counterparts. Such networks are integral for knowledge sharing, gaining insights

about job opportunities, and other career-advancing dialogues. This discrepancy in networking behaviours can be attributed to male executives feeling discomfort about informal interactions with young female professionals (Dobbin & Kalev, 2016). Consequently, women might find themselves at a disadvantage, missing out on crucial information and opportunities that flow through these channels.

Women hold only 29% of board seats at Fortune 500 businesses in 2021 (Gwin et al., 2022). The composition of an organisation's workforce can influence interaction patterns and individuals' network development possibilities (Higgins & Kram, 2001). Due to the underrepresentation of women in senior roles, female mentees may have less access to informal networks than their male counterparts (Linehan & Scullion, 2008), which may result in gaps in their knowledge and skills acquisition, perceived organisational support, a sense of identity, and self-efficacy when compared to male counterparts. In this context, mentoring becomes a compensatory mechanism for female mentees. Career-related mentoring fills the knowledge and skills gap created by female mentees' limited access to informal networks. Furthermore, both career-related guidance and psychosocial guidance can enhance lower POS among female mentees, that may be caused by limited access to informal networks. Verbal persuasion and physiological states and reactions that may be lacking due to limited access to informal networks can also be compensated for through psychosocial mentoring. Given that male mentors are usually more likely to have role models in informal networks, role-modelling mentoring can make up for the "lack of role models" that women are more likely to face, thereby cultivating their sense of identity and self-efficacy.

In terms of personality traits, women apparently inherently possess traits that make them

more likely to execute contextual performance and CWB. According to social role theory, women are generally expected to aid more than males (Allen, 2006; Allen & Rush, 2001), and they also behave more communally than men (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2012). According to Clark & Mils (1993), individuals in communal relationships typically possess a broader sense of duty, and they are inclined to attend to the needs of others irrespective of whether they have benefited or been treated favourably by them. Therefore, I formulate the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5: The positive relationships between career-related mentoring and task (H5a), contextual (H5b), and adaptive performance (H5c) are stronger for women than men.

Hypothesis 6: The positive relationships between psychosocial-related mentoring and both task (H6a), contextual (H6b) and adaptive performance (H6c) are stronger for women than men.

Hypothesis 7: The negative relationship between psychosocial-related mentoring and CWB is stronger for women than men.

Hypothesis 8: The positive relationships between role-modelling function and both contextual (H8a) and adaptive performance (H8b) are stronger for women than men.

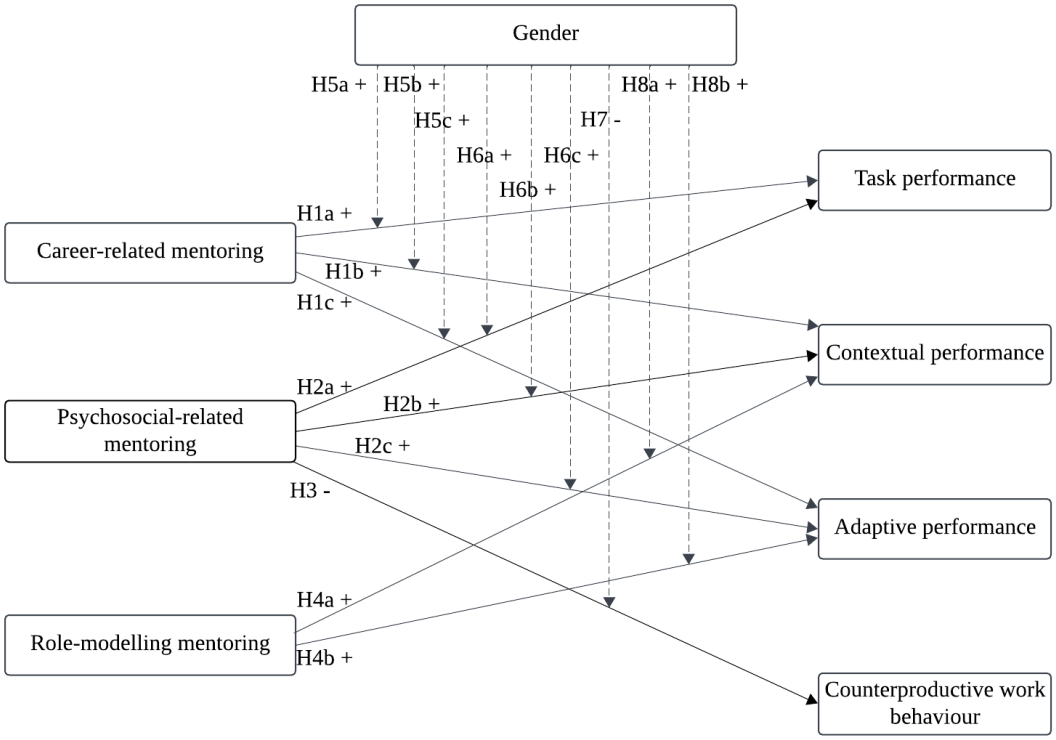

Fig. 2. Structural model of the relationship between mentoring and job performance, with gender as moderator.

Chapter 6 Methodology

The study used established scales and demographic questions to collect relevant data on mentoring functions, job performance dimensions, and related demographic data for a quantitative study. The survey subjects of this study include employees of MNEs in China. Considering that Simplified Chinese is a common language in China, this survey was also translated into Simplified Chinese. Due to time constraints and cost-effectiveness, this study only collected cross-sectional data to test the hypotheses.

6.1. Participants

The data were obtained through electronic means, specifically email and social media platforms such as LinkedIn and WeChat. The study details were distributed to potential participants, who were then directed to complete an online questionnaire using the Redcap platform. A total of 49 participants responded to the questionnaire. They were first asked to answer the following questions, which assessed if they met the selection criteria for this study. The first question asked was, “Do you currently work for a multinational enterprise?” Thirty-five people responded “yes” and 14 responded “no”. Another question was, "Have you ever had a mentor or do you now have one in the current company?" 34 individuals answered “yes” and two answered “no”. One participant was omitted from the analysis due to consistently selecting the first item in all rating responses. The final sample (N = 33) covered a diverse range of industries, exceeding 12 in total, though the specific industries were not disclosed by 3 participants. Their mean age is 25.70 years, and their mean organisational tenure is 2.9 years. Over sixty percent had a graduate degree, and over 27% had a bachelor’s degree. Most

participants (93%) identified themselves as Chinese. 75% of them replied they work in China. The sample exhibited a nearly equal gender distribution, with 16 females and 17 males.

6.2. Measures

Mentoring functions

This research applied the most recent version of the Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFQ-9; Castro et al., 2004) (Appendix), a simplified version of the 15-item MFQ (Scandura & Ragins, 1993). The MFQ-9 contains three mentoring functions: career support, psychosocial support, and role modelling. The selection of the MFQ-9 for this analysis is based on the following reasons. First, the factor structure of MFQ has been established through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (Castro et al., 2004; Hu, 2008; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2005; Scandura & Ragins, 1993; Wanberg et al., 2003). Further, previous studies have shown the measuring equivalence of the MFQ-9 across various factors such as gender (Hu, 2008), culture (Hu et al., 2011), and the satisfaction levels of mentees (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2005). Finally, The MFQ-9 features the least number of items among the mentoring scales, which may reduce translation errors (Hu et al., 2011) and the excessive burden on participants caused by too many items (Gosling et al., 2003).

Each mentoring function is measured with three items. All items on the scales had a five-point response format, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Higher scores represent more mentoring received. An example item from the career support scale is “My mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career. An example item from the psychosocial support scale is “I share personal problems with my mentor.” Finally, an example

item from the role modelling scale is “I try to model my behaviour after my mentor.” Prior studies have indicated that this measure has acceptable reliability and preliminary construct validity (Castro et al., 2004; Chang et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2020). The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the overall scale, career-related mentoring, psychosocial-related mentoring, and role-modelling mentoring were .88, .86, .84, and .82, respectively.

Job performance dimensions

The Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) (Appendix) is a generic instrument that is applicable to workers in all occupations (blue-collar, pink-collar, and white-collar; Koopmans et al., 2013b). Considering this study is not limited to certain industries, this scale was chosen as a basis for measuring multiple job performance dimensions (e.g., task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, CWB). The item scale for contextual performance was replaced by the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCB scale) (Appendix) because the items measured by the contextual performance scale only focus on voluntarily doing behaviours that are beyond the scope of one’s responsibilities, such as “I started new tasks myself, when my old ones were finished” (Koopmans et al., 2013a). In addition to voluntarily taking on additional tasks, contextual performance referred to in this study also includes proactively providing assistance and collaboration to colleagues to enhance the organisational environment. Therefore, the OCB scale is more consistent with the relevant definition. The OCB assesses two dimensions (Lee & Allen, 2002), each with eight items: OCB for the organisation (OCB-O) and OCB for the individual (OCB-I). To make the total number of items manageable, only items from the OCB-I section were selected for this study.

Participants used these scales to rate their job performance on various dimensions. All items on the scales had a five-point response format, with task performance, contextual performance, and adaptive performance scales ranging from 1 = seldom to 5 = always, and a CWB scale ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always.

These scales were used to ask participants before and after mentoring in order to compare whether various job performance dimensions were affected by mentoring. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the overall scale, task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance, and CWB were .90, .73, .86, .75, and .87, respectively before mentoring and .87, .82, .77, .69, and .93, respectively after mentoring.

Control variables

As previously mentioned, tenure and educational background might have an impact on the effectiveness of mentoring (Kammeyer-Mueller & Judge, 2008). Different genders have varying levels of mentorship functions (O'Brien et al., 2010). Mentoring stages alter over time as well (Kram, 1983), with different phases resulting in discrepancies in mentoring function levels (Chao, 1997). Thus, mentee age (continuous variable), gender (coded 1 = male, 0 = female), mentored length (in months), education level (coded 1 = below high school, 2 = high school diploma or GED, 3 = associate's degree, 4 = bachelor's degree, 5= graduate's degree), mentees' cultural background, organisational tenure (number of years employed at the current company), and current employment country were considered as control variables since they are likely to be related to mentoring functions or job performance. Because of the small number of non-Chinese participants, non-Chinese were coded 0, and Chinese were coded 1. Likewise,

non-China areas were coded 0, and China was coded 1.

6.3. Data Analysis

Hierarchical regression analyses were used to test hypothesised relationships between mentoring and employees' job performance dimension (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). Mentoring relationship research (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000) reveals that demographic differences are an important issue to consider because of the possible influence these features might have on the effectiveness of a mentoring relationship. Therefore, in the current study, the control variables were entered in the regression equations first: the participant's gender, age, mentoring length (the time length of mentoring programs attended), education level, cultural background, organisational tenure, and country of current employment. Measurement results of four different job performance dimensions before mentoring were also entered as control variables, accounting for the initial performance levels to ensure that any observed changes in the job performance dimensions after mentoring are attributed to the mentoring interventions and not influenced by the baseline performance levels. Next, the relative mentoring function variables (e.g., career mentoring (CM), psychosocial mentoring (PM), and role modelling (RM)) were entered into the regression equations to determine their incremental contributions to the variances accounted for in the different job performance variables (task performance, contextual performance, adaptive performance and CWB). Subsequently, the interaction effects between mentoring function variables and mentee gender were included in the regression equations to explore their combined influence and incremental contributions to the explained variances in job performance variables, allowing for an examination of potential

moderating effects of gender on the relationships between mentoring functions and job performance outcomes.

Chapter 7 Results

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and correlations for the independent and dependent variables. All mentoring function means exceeded 3 (3.69, 3.62, 3.89 respectively), indicating that mentees generally perceived receiving more than average mentoring support. Post-mentoring task, contextual and adaptive performance were related to psychosocial mentoring. All post-mentoring performance were related to corresponding pre-mentoring performance.

7.1. Task performance (Table 2)

Baseline model (Model 1)

The baseline model of task performance only included control variables, accounting for 68.8% of the variance in post-mentoring task performance. Among these control variables, only task performance before mentoring was the most significant predictor, exhibiting a strong positive relationship with post-mentoring task performance ($\beta = .767$, $p < .001$). Other control variables, namely age, gender, mentored length, educational level, cultural background, organisational tenure, and country of employment, did not significantly relate to task performance after mentoring.

Main and interaction effects of mentoring functions (Model 2-5)

In Model 2, CM did not significantly predict task performance after mentoring ($\beta = .019$, $p > .05$). Model 3 tested the interaction effect of CM and mentee gender. The interaction term is not significantly related to task performance after mentoring ($\beta = .162$, $p > .05$). Therefore,

H1a (that CM is positively related to task performance) and H5a (that positive relationship between CM and task performance is stronger for female mentees) were not supported.

Model 4 tested PM and found a non-significant relationship with post-mentoring task performance ($\beta = .137$, $p > .05$). Model 5 tested the interaction effect of PM and mentee gender. The interaction term is also not significantly related to task performance after mentoring ($\beta = -.718$, $p > .05$). Therefore, H2a (that PM is positively related to task performance) and H6a (that positive relationship between PM and task performance is stronger for female mentees) were not supported.

7.2. Contextual performance (Table 3)

Baseline Model (Model 6)

In the baseline model of contextual performance, the control variables captured 43.1% of the variance in post-mentoring contextual performance. Of these variables, only pre-mentoring contextual performance was the most significant predictor, exhibiting a strong positive relationship with post-mentoring contextual performance ($\beta = .536$, $p < .01$). None of the other control variables in Model 6 emerged as significant predictors.

Main and interaction effects of mentoring functions (Model 7-12)

Model 7 indicated that CM did not significantly predict contextual performance ($\beta = -.132$, $p > .05$). Model 8 tested the interaction effect of CM and mentee gender, which was also not significantly related to contextual performance after mentoring ($\beta = .753$, $p > .05$). Given these, neither H1b (that CM is positively related to contextual performance) nor H5b (that positive

relationship between CM and contextual performance is stronger for female mentees) was not supported.

Similarly, PM showed a non-significant effect on post-mentoring contextual performance in Model 9 (β = .123, p > .05). Model 10 examined that the interaction effect of PM and gender is not significant on post-mentoring contextual performance. (β = -.658, p >.05). Based on these results, H2b (that PM is positively related to contextual performance) and H6b (that positive relationship between PM and contextual performance is stronger for female mentees) were not supported as well.

Model 11 demonstrated a non-significant relationship between RM and post-mentoring contextual performance (β = -.313, p > .05). Model 12 examined the interaction effects of RM and mentee gender on post-mentoring contextual performance, showing non-significant relationship (β = .349, p > .05). As a result, H4a (that RM is positively related to contextual performance) and H8a (that positive relationship between RM and contextual performance is stronger for female mentees) were not supported.

7.3. Adaptive performance (Table 4)

Baseline model (Model 13)

For adaptive performance's baseline model, explained 59.9% of the variance. The adaptive performance before mentoring is the only significant predictor positively associated with post-mentoring adaptive performance (β = .592, p < .05). However, other control variables again did not significantly relate to post-mentoring adaptive performance.

Main and interaction effects of mentoring functions (Model 14-19)

Model 14 shows no significant relationship between CM and post-mentoring adaptive performance (β = .077, p > .05). Model 15, which examined the interaction of CM and mentee gender on post-mentoring adaptive performance, was also not significant (β = -.851, p > .05). Regarding these, neither H1c (that CM is positively related to adaptive performance) nor H5c (that positive relationship between CM and adaptive performance is stronger for female mentees) was not supported.

Model 16 with PM showed that PM had a non-significant relationship with post-mentoring adaptive performance (β = .223, p > .05). PM and mentee gender interaction in Model 17, the relationship between interaction effect and adaptive performance was still not significant (β = -.195, p >.05). From these results, neither H2c (that PM is positively related to adaptive performance) nor H6c (that positive relationship between PM and adaptive performance is stronger for female mentees) was not supported.

Model 18 revealed that RM was non-significantly with post-mentoring adaptive performance (β = -.007, p > .05). The interaction effect of RM and mentee gender on adaptive performance after mentoring in Model 19 indicated that the relationship was not significant (β =.022, p >.05). According to these data, H4b (that RM is positively related to adaptive performance) and H8b (that positive relationship between RM and adaptive performance is stronger for female mentees) were not supported.

7.4. CWB (Table 5)

Baseline Model (Model 20)

In CWB's baseline model, the total control variables accounted for 72.1% of the variance in post-mentoring CWB. Among the control variables, the pre-mentoring CWB was the strongest and significant predictor of post-mentoring CWB ($\beta = .679$, $p < .001$). Another noteworthy observation is the significant positive relationship between the "Mentored length" and post-mentoring CWB ($\beta = .276$, $p < .05$). The "Country of employment" also emerged as a highly significant predictor ($\beta = .539$, $p < .001$). The rest of the control variables did not show significant relationships with post-mentoring CWB.

Main and interaction effects of mentoring functions (Model 21-22)

In Model 21, PM was similarly found to have no significant relationship on post-mentoring CWB ($\beta = -.059$, $p > .05$). The relationship between interaction effect (PM and mentee gender) and CWB was still not significant ($\beta = -.243$, $p > .05$). The results obtained showed that neither hypothesis 3 (that PM is negatively related to CWB) nor hypothesis 7 (that negative relationship between PM and CWB is stronger in female mentees) was not supported.

Chapter 9 Discussion

The objective of this study was to discover the relationships between mentoring functions and mentee job performance dimensions, as well as whether gender moderates these relationships. However, because of the small number of samples collected in this study, the results may not be robust. As a result, there is currently insufficient evidence to support the relationships between mentoring functions and individual job performance dimensions, nor to support gender's moderating role in these relationships.

9.1. Implications for theory

This study, however, proposed four possible mediators: knowledge and skills, POS, self-efficacy, and sense of identity. These mediations provide a new perspective on how distinctive mentoring functions affect specific individual job performance. Some research theories and empirical evidence support the relationships between these mediations and various job performance dimensions (for example, knowledge and skills - task or contextual performance, POS - task, contextual, or CWB, self-efficacy - adaptive performance, and identification - contextual performance; Kurtessis et al., 2007; Meyer et al., 2002; Motowidlo et al., 1997; Park & Park, 2019; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Future research could focus on determining the direct relationship between mentoring functions and knowledge and skills, POS, self-efficacy, or sense of identity.

Furthermore, previous research on the relationship between mentoring and job performance has focused more on mentors (e.g., Ghosh & Reio, 2013; Liu et al., 2009; Mullen & Noe, 1999; Ragins & Scandura, 1999; Sackett et al., 1998). The reason could be due to the

rising star effect (Singh et al., 2009), which states that mentors prefer mentees with higher initial performance for mentoring (Allen, 2004; Allen et al., 2000 Olian et al., 1993). However, this reason seems to apply to mentor selection as well. Mentees may also be more inclined to be mentored by mentors who perform well before the mentoring relationship begins. Future research should further examine how mentees can improve their performance through mentoring.

Moreover, previous studies in this area mainly measured mentorship quality and overall job performance (e.g., Bozionelos et al., 2016; Eby et al., 2008; Egan & Song, 2008). However, my research suggests that mentoring functions and individual job performance should be subdivided. Career-related mentoring, for example, is more related to task, contextual, and adaptive performance. Psychosocial mentoring is more related to task, contextual, and adaptive performance, as well as CWB. Role-modelling is more related to contextual and adaptive performance. Given these findings, further study should continue to delve into the relationship between mentoring functions and job performance dimensions under segment.

My research results also indicate that pre-mentoring performance is consistently significantly related to post-mentoring performance. This is partially compatible with Schmidt and colleagues' (1986) findings, which demonstrated that previous relevant work experience has a direct effect on job performance.

9.2. Implications for practice

Based on the findings of mediations, companies who run mentorship programs, whether they are MNEs or not, may need to reconsider their programs. Companies might pay more

attention to whether employees who participate in mentoring programs increase their knowledge and skills, POS, self-efficacy, or sense of identity after participating in mentorship programs. Companies can also evaluate the various work performance dimensions of employees who participate in mentoring programs to see if specific performance developments have resulted. Finally, businesses should create tailored mentoring programs to ensure that mentors can execute certain mentoring functions that match mentors who need to enhance specific job performance dimensions. Past research suggests that gender may affect an individual's status in informal networks and access to resources (Linehan & Scullion, 2008). Considering that effective mentoring functions may be able to make up for women's lack of access to informal networks, companies should also tailor different mentoring strategies to bridge the gender gap in access to resources caused by informal networks.

Furthermore, because MNEs are transnational and multicultural, they can provide cross-cultural mentoring and even remote mentoring across geographical distances, assisting mentees in learning different cultural beliefs and business information (i.e., knowledge and skills). Furthermore, the "Country of Employment" significantly predicting CWB implies that regional or cultural variables may be implicated, therefore MNEs have to recognise that disparities between cultures may result in different demands for mediations by mentees. A collectivistic culture, for example, may place a greater focus on teamwork and relationship building, and hence have a greater correlation between POS and performance than an individualistic society (Rockstuhl et al., 2020). Other empirical evidence is that individualists and collectivists benefit from self-focused and group-focused training, respectively, in terms of self-efficacy and performance (Earley, 1994). Thus, when developing and implementing

mentoring programs, MNEs must consider not only their transnational and multicultural advantages, but also the needs and expectations of mentees from various cultures to ensure that mentoring programs truly achieve the goal of improving employee performance.

Chapter 10 Limitations

Several limitations of the current study should be noted. First, established scales must be translated and altered to the target language when utilising the same measure across diverse ethnic groups (Liao, 2020). Because semantic discrepancies in translation may result in cultural disparities in questionnaire responses, procedures to assure language equivalence should be performed (Liao, 2020). Back-translation (Brislin, 1970) is the most commonly utilised procedure. In this survey, the scales were in English and were not translated into Simplified Chinese using back-translation. Future research should first overcome the translation problem.

Second, the results of this study are based solely on feedback from mentees, resulting in a possibly biased assessment of mentoring functions and performance. To acquire a more complete view of the relationship between the mentoring functions and job performance dimensions, future research should include the perspectives of mentors and mentees, as well as supervisory or peer performance evaluations.

Third, the study's participants were relatively homogeneous in terms of generational demography, ethnicity, and employment location, limiting the findings' generalizability to the general working population. More diversified samples could be considered in future studies.

Fourth, this study solely collected cross-sectional data due to time restrictions and cost-effectiveness. To avoid data inaccuracies caused by depending on recall, future studies can collect longitudinal data before and after the mentoring program.

Finally, during this research, it was discovered that individual characteristics (e.g., cognitive ability and personality) may also have different effects on different job performance dimensions. Future research can also collect more data on individual characteristics.

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Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities and Intercorrelations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Age	25.7	2.83	-																	
2. Gender [a]	.58	.50	.06	-																
3. Mentored length	6.18	5.10	.01	-.01	-															
4. Educational Level [b]	4.42	.87	.23	-.36*	-.07	-														
5. Cultural background [c]	.70	.47	.09	-.03	-.48**	-.06	-													
6. Organisational tenure	2.91	3.66	.16	.16	.08	-.28	.19	-												
7. Country of employment	.76	.44	.12	-.20	-.37*	-.05	.55**	.19	-											
8. Career mentoring	3.69	.86	.09	-.03	.19	.31	-.11	-.31	-.32	(.86)										
9. Psychosocial mentoring	3.62	.83	.10	-.05	.29	.16	-.34	-.23	-.27	.44*	(.84)									
10. Role modelling	3.89	.86	.02	-.09	-.07	.16	-.09	-.42*	-.21	.74**	.31	(.82)								
Before mentoring																				
11. Task performance	3.92	.63	.40*	.03	-.04	.28	.20	-.38*	-.05	.37*	.42*	.24	(.73)							
12. Contextual	3.40	.76	.27	-.07	.16	.24	-.09	-.11	-.13	.22	.54**	.11	.51**	(.86)						
13. Adaptive performance	3.85	.73	.40*	-.12	-.05	.38*	-.11	-.26	-.32	.26	.40*	.24	.74**	.56**	(.75)					
14. CWB	2.68	.81	.07	-.04	.16	.03	-.13	-.01	-.18	.09	.18	-.02	.19	.40*	.27	(.87)				
After mentoring																				
15. Task performance	3.77	.70	.26	.09	-.16	.41*	.04	-.41*	-.12	.34	.44*	.22	.77**	.34	.62**	.11	(.82)			
16. Contextual	3.25	.59	.12	-.10	.00	.27	-.12	-.12	-.18	.04	.42*	-.15	.33	.59**	.47**	.60**	.50**	(.77)		
17. Adaptive performance	3.82	.66	.36*	.01	-.04	.39*	-.12	-.39*	-.16	.29	.48**	.22	.66**	.39*	.72**	.16	.83**	.50**	(.69)	
18. CWB	2.61	.98	.01	-.20	.28	.19	-.24	-.11	.12	-.06	.16	-.10	.04	.28	.12	.67**	-.04	.34	.07	(.93)

Note. Reliabilities (coefficient alphas) are displayed in parentheses on the main diagonal. ***N*** = 33 for mentees, after deleting the invalid data.

* p < .05., ** p < .01.

[a] 0 = female, 1 = male.

[b] Below high school = 1, high school diploma/GED = 2, associate's degree = 3, bachelor's degree = 4, graduate's degree = 5.

[c] 0 = non-Chinese, 1 = Chinese.

[d] 0 = non-China, 1= China.

Table 2. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses for mentoring functions and post-mentoring task performance

Step and variables entered	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	Post-mentoring task performance				
1. Control variables					
Age	-.060	-.060	-.061	-.043	-.072
Gender	.009	.015	-.147	.000	.672
Mentored length	-.224	-.226	-.216	-.242	-.312
Educational Level	.187	.185	.191	.177	.192
Cultural background	-.181	-.182	-.185	-.126	-.153
Organisational tenure	-.003	-.002	-.006	-.011	-.011
Country of employment	-.047	-.042	-.038	-.052	-.093
Task performance (pre-mentoring)	.767***	.760***	.750***	.691***	.765***
2. Direct effects					
CM		.019	-.039		
PM				.137	.288
3. Interaction effect					
CM x Mentee gender			.162		
PM x Mentee gender					-.718
R^2	.688	.688	.689	.700	.712
adjusted R^2	.584	.567	.548	.582	.581
F	6.622***	5.648***	4.874***	5.957***	5.436***

*p < .05.

** p < .01.

*** p < .001.

Table 3. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses for mentoring functions and post-mentoring contextual performance

	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
Step and variables entered	Post-mentoring contextual performance						
1. Control variables							
Age	-.078	-.065	-.079	-.078	-.080	-.038	-.050
Gender	.195	.166	-.589	.187	.816	.102	-.252
Mentored length	-.134	-.114	-.066	-.150	-.206	-.185	-.188
Educational Level	.233	.247	.280	.229	.253	.190	.188
Cultural background	-.068	-.044	-.076	-.044	-.034	-.062	-.062
Organisational tenure	.008	-.019	-.019	.027	-.003	-.095	-.075
Country of employment	-.105	-.146	-.126	-.103	-.151	-.175	-.173
Contextual performance (pre-mentoring)	.536**	.552**	.509*	.479*	.473*	.571*	.551
2. Direct effects							
CM		-.132	-.409				
PM				.123	.287		
RM						-.313	-.377
3. Interaction effect							
CM x Mentee gender			.753				
PM x Mentee gender					-.658		
RM x Mentee gender							.349
R^2	.431	.443	.455	.440	.452	.502	.507
adjusted R^2	.242	.226	.207	.221	.203	.308	.283
F	2.277	2.036	1.834	2.011	1.817	2.580*	2.261

*p < .05.

** p < .01.

*** p < .001.

Table 4. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses for mentoring functions and post-mentoring adaptive performance

Step and variables entered	Model 13	Model 14	Model 15	Model 16	Model 17	Model 18	Model 19
	Post-mentoring adaptive performance						
1. Control variables							
Age	.126	.119	.126	.137	.132	.127	.127
Gender	.066	.082	.938	.038	.222	.064	.041
Mentored length	.031	.017	-.021	-.029	-.044	.031	.030
Educational Level	.099	-.071	-.034	.085	.089	.098	.098
Cultural background	-.056	.131	.124	-.015	-.014	-.056	-.056
Organisational tenure	-.254	.090	.051	-.222	-.229	-.256	-.255
Country of employment	.108	-.238	-.234	.090	.080	.107	.107
Adaptive performance (pre-mentoring)	.592*	.586**	.635**	0.511*	0.523*	.593*	.592
2. Direct effects							
CM		.077	.395				
PM				.223	.268		
RM						-.007	-.011
3. Interaction effect							
CM x Mentee gender			-.851				
PM x Mentee gender					-.195		
RM x Mentee gender							.022
R^2	.599			.634	.635	.599	.599
adjusted R^2	.466			.490	.469	.442	.417
F	4.485*			4.423**	3.824**	3.821*	3.290

*p < .05.

** p < .01.

*** p < .001.

Table 5. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses for mentoring functions and post-mentoring CWB

Step and variables entered	Model 20	Model 21	Model 22
	Post-mentoring CWB		
1. Control variables			
Age	-.124	-.119	-.120
Gender	.092	.104	.336
Mentored length	.276*	.289*	.268
Educational Level	.241	.251	.259
Cultural background	-.266	-.275	-.272
Organisational tenure	-.113	-.126	-.137
Country of employment	.539***	.536***	.519**
CWB (pre-mentoring)	.679***	.684***	.687***
2. Direct effects			
PM		-.059	.000
3. Interaction effect			
PM x Mentee gender			-.243
R^2	.721	.723	.725
adjusted R^2	.628	.615	.600
F	7.742***	6.683***	5.8***

*p < .05.

** p < .01.

*** p < .001.

Appendix

Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFO-9)

Responses:

Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree (1-5)

Career Support

1. My mentor takes a personal interest in my career.

2. My mentor helps me coordinate professional goals.

3. My mentor has devoted special time and consideration to my career.

Psychosocial Support

4. I share personal problems with my mentor.

5. I exchange confidences with my mentor.

6. I consider my mentor to be a friend

Role Modelling

7. I try to model my behaviour after my mentor.

8. I admire my mentor's ability to motivate others

9. I respect my mentor's ability to teach others.

Scale 1. Mentoring Functions Questionnaire (MFQ-9) (Castro et al., 2004)

Items	Description
	Rating: Seldom, Sometimes, Frequently, Often, Always (1-5)
Task performance scale	
TP 1	I manage to plan my work so that it could be done on time.
TP 2	I keep in mind the results that I have to achieve in my work.
TP 3	I am able to set priorities.
TP 4	I am able to carry out my work efficiently.
Contextual performance scale	
CP 1	I help others who have been absent.
CP 2	I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.
CP 3	I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
CP 4	I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the workgroup.
CP 5	I show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
CP 6	I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
CP 7	I assist others with their duties.
CP 8	I share personal property with others to help their work
Adaptive performance scale	
AP 1	I work on keeping my job knowledge up-to-date.
AP 2	I work on keeping my job skills up-to-date.
AP 3	I come up with creative solutions for new problems.
	Rating: Never, Seldom, Sometimes, Frequently, Often (1-5)
CWB scale	
CWB 1	I complain about unimportant matters at work.
CWB 2	I make problems greater than they are at work.
CWB 3	I focus on the negative aspects of a work situation, instead of on the positive aspects.
CWB 4	I speak with colleagues about the negative aspects of my work.
CWB 5	I speak with people from outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.

Scale 2. Individual Work Performance (Koopmans et al., 2013a, 2013b; Lee & Allen, 2002; Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019)