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Mentor holding behaviours: The role of supervisors and effects on protégés

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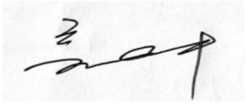
2023

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my original work and it has been written by me in its entirety. I have duly acknowledged all of the sources of information which have been used in this dissertation.

This dissertation has also not been submitted for any degree in any university previously.



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Mentor Holding Behaviours: The Role of Supervisors and their Effects on Protégés

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Abstract

The concept of holding behaviours has emerged as a response to the paradox that arises when employees require support but organisations face challenges in providing it. In today's workplaces, job demands and organisational uncertainty have escalated, rendering traditional, hierarchical support systems inadequate to alleviate anxiety. Holding environments offer a temporary safe space for employees to express emotions and cope with uncertainty and insecurity.

Despite the importance of holding behaviours in addressing self-reliance and support dilemmas, limited research has been conducted on their antecedents, consequences, mechanisms, and boundary conditions. To fill this gap, this study proposes a trickle-down model that integrates social learning theory and social cognitive theory. The model suggests that the behaviours of mentors' direct supervisors may affect mentors' holding behaviours, which, in turn, influence their protégés' outcomes. Specifically, the study posits that supervisor holding behaviours are the primary antecedent for mentor holding behaviours, as individuals learn from observing credible role models such as supervisors.

Furthermore, this study aims to verify the effect of mentor holding behaviours on protégés, exploring the related consequences and underlying mechanisms. It examines the effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégé

job performance, organisational citizenship behaviours, subjective well-being, and physical well-being, as well as the mediating roles of personal learning and job involvement. Additionally, this study proposes that the effect of supervisor behaviour on mentor holding behaviours could be either strengthened or weakened under certain conditions.

Overall, this study contributes to both theory and practice by demonstrating that holding behaviours are effective in mentoring relationships and leader–member relationships in promoting employees' in-role performance and extra-role performance and improving their well-being. It highlights the importance of providing temporary safe spaces for employees to express their emotions and the critical role of supervisors in serving as credible role models for holding behaviours. The study also provides insights into the underlying mechanisms and boundary conditions of holding behaviours, offering practical implications for organisations to enhance their support systems and promote employees' well-being.

Keywords: holding behaviours, trickle-down model, mentoring, protégé

Contents

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I hope that this thesis, representing the millions of Chinese private family-owned businesses, can offer useful lessons for entrepreneurship and the sustainable growth of local businesses in China.

Chapter 1. Introduction

In this study, I propose the use of holding behaviours to address the paradox that organisational members increasingly need support at work but are increasingly unable to give or receive such support (Kahn, 2001). Organisational members now face unprecedentedly high job demands, requiring them to be self-reliant and competitive in ever-expanding organisations, which ultimately results in considerable insecurity and anxiety. Given uncertain and rapidly changing environments, the traditional hierarchical support system that incorporates support from leaders (or supervisors), coworkers, and mentors fails to provide the predictability and certainty necessary to alleviate this insecurity and anxiety.

As an alternative support system that may help people to manage their anxiety, Kahn (2001) proposed the "holding environment," based on research in the fields of developmental and clinical psychology, family systems theory, group dynamics, and organisational behaviour. The holding environment is a temporally safe setting in which employees who experience strong emotions are allowed to safely express and interpret their experiences (Kahn, 2001). The purpose of such a provision is to enable organisational members to move forwards self-reliantly in situations characterised by uncertainty and insecurity.

The creation of a holding environment requires corresponding behaviours referred to as "holding behaviours," defined as a set of specific and intentional

behaviours performed by “holders” that help manage employees’ experiences of anxiety and enable them to move forwards (Kahn, 2001). Specifically, holders provide employees with three interrelated holding behaviours: containment, empathic acknowledgement, and enabling perspectives. Empirical research has revealed that such holding behaviours have a powerful ability to anchor people who suffer from stressful experiences and situations (Ragins et al., 2017).

Although it has been proposed that holding behaviours are critical in addressing the need for employees to be self-reliant even while requiring support in the workplace, we know little about the antecedents, consequences, underlying mechanism, and boundary conditions of such behaviours. Only one study empirically examined the role of holding behaviours. Based on relational systems theory, this study found that mentor holding behaviours buffered the negative effects of ambient discrimination on organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes (Ragins et al., 2017). Additionally, it found that holding behaviours mediated the moderating effect of a high-quality mentoring relationship on the association between ambient discrimination and all outcomes for those with informal mentors, as well as on the relationship between ambient discrimination and organisational commitment, strain, and stress-related absenteeism—but not insomnia—for those with formal mentors.

The current state of the business environment demands that a holding

framework be developed, that we determine its derivation and mechanism, and that we identify its effects and under what conditions the effects are strengthened or weakened. Integrating social learning theory and social cognitive theory, I propose a trickle-down model, specifically, that the behaviours of mentors' direct supervisors may affect mentors' holding behaviours, while mentors' provision of holding behaviours further affects their protégés' performance.

Thus, I propose that supervisor holding behaviours are a main antecedent of mentor holding behaviours. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), individuals acquire social behaviours from direct experience or by observing others. Moreover, research on social learning and behavioural role modelling has revealed that individuals tend to observe and imitate the behaviours of credible role models (Mawritz et al., 2012). In the workplace, supervisors are usually regarded as role models, and their behaviours are carefully observed and imitated (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Kwan, 2014). Therefore, mentors may learn holding behaviours from their supervisors. Specifically, mentors may learn holding behaviours from direct observation and imitation of supervisor holding behaviours, or they may be influenced by supervisors' ethical attitudes, values, and behaviours, causing them to perform holding behaviours.

Ragins et al. (2017) found that holding behaviours were more effective in a mentoring relationship than in other relationships. Expanding on this concept, I

sought to verify the effects of holding behaviours between mentors and protégés and further explore the consequences and underlying mechanisms of such effects. Social learning theory and trickle-down models have been frequently applied by leadership scholars to reveal that top management's ethical leadership influences employees' citizenship behaviour and deviance via supervisory ethical leadership (Mayer et al., 2009). However, research has indicated that holding behaviours are more powerful in mentoring relationships than in other types of relationships (e.g., supervisor–subordinate dyads); holding behaviours are particularly appropriate in a mentoring context, as mentors take a personal interest in supporting their protégés' careers and well-being (Ragins et al., 2017). Therefore, in this study, I examined the effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégés in terms of job performance, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), subjective well-being, and physical well-being, as well as the mediating roles of protégé personal learning and protégé job involvement.

I focused on personal learning because this variable has been well developed in the mentoring context (Ragins et al., 2000) and has been found to be an important mediator between role modelling and protégés' well-being (Kwan et al., 2010). Personal learning is also closely associated with job performance in the mentoring context (Liu et al., 2009). I investigated job involvement, as this is a well-researched concept (Rich et al., 2010). Research

has indicated that job involvement is strongly influenced by work environments and closely associated with both individual well-being (Frone et al., 1995) and job performance (Rich et al., 2010). Employees with a high degree of job involvement focus their thoughts on work and interpret their work environments as opportunities to engage in work-role activities (Rich et al., 2010).

Social learning theory and social cognitive theory provide theoretical support for my hypotheses. Social cognitive theory proposes that individuals pay attention to social cues in their environment to learn appropriate scripts and behaviours for daily coping (Bandura, 1986). Through social learning, individuals develop or reinforce schemas that shape their perceptions, expectations, desires, and behaviours (Gioia & Poole, 1984). In essence, individuals observe their environment, which affects their beliefs, in turn guiding their behaviours. Through observing and benefiting from mentors' and supervisors' holding behaviours, protégés may recognise the importance of holding behaviours and learn from them, thus promoting their performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being.

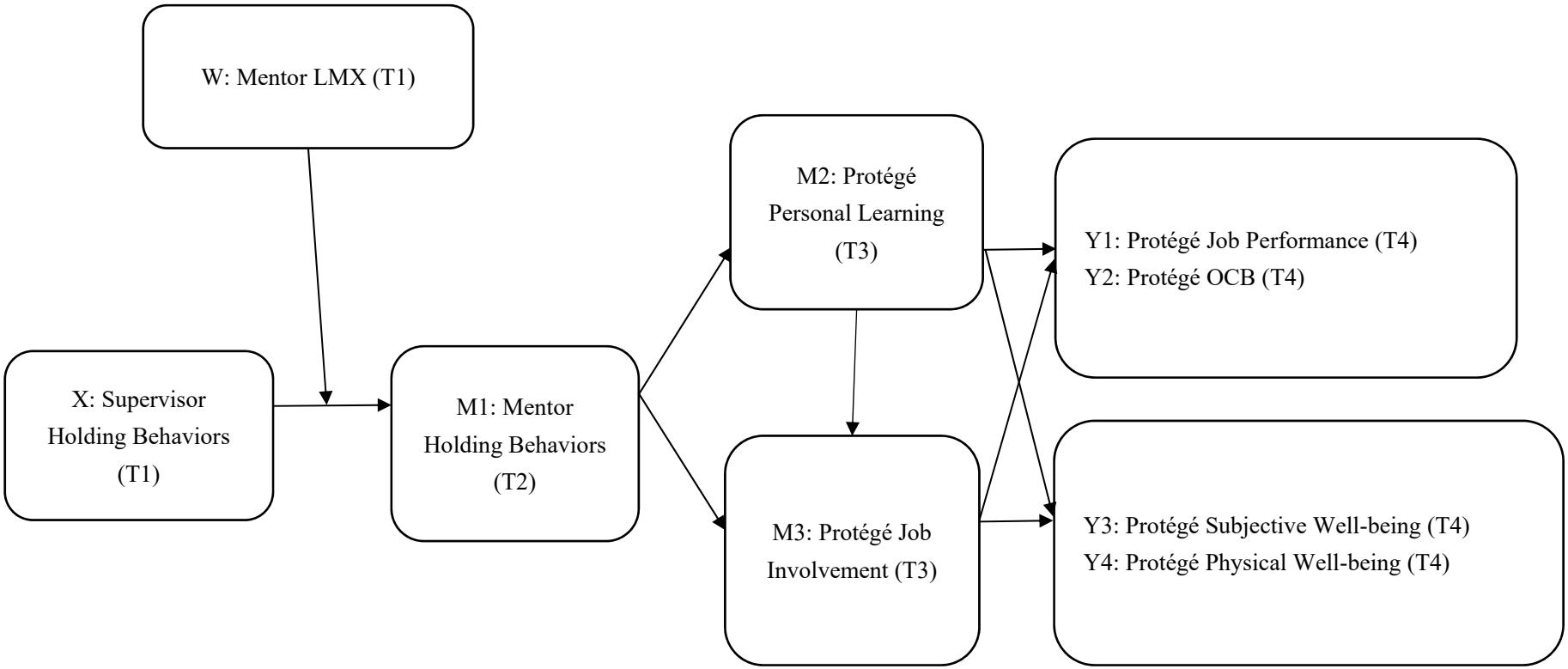
I also suggest that the effect of supervisors' behaviours on mentors' holding behaviours is strengthened or weakened under certain conditions. Social learning theory suggests that paying attention to leaders can facilitate the social learning process (Bandura, 1977). Research has shown that identification with supervisors can enhance the likelihood that followers will adopt their

supervisors' behaviours (Kram & Isabella, 1985). Therefore, I propose that a high-quality leader–follower (i.e., supervisor–organisational member) exchange will strengthen the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours. In particular, mentors who establish high-quality social exchange relationships with their supervisors tend to develop a strong emotional attachment, pay close attention to their supervisors' actions, and incorporate their supervisors' beliefs into their own cognitive schemas. As a result, they often view their supervisors as role models and use their supervisors' behaviours as a guide for their own behaviours.

In summary, my research makes several important contributions. First, to the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to propose and examine a comprehensive model of mentor holding behaviours. Examining the antecedents of mentor holding behaviours contributes to the assumption of the supervisor literature, social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), and social cognitive theory (Hobfoll, 1989) that supervisors can be role models, modelling the performance of holding behaviours and resources for mentors. Second, I investigate the effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégés' job-related outcomes and well-being and reveal their underlying mechanisms. I extend the finding of Ragins et al. (2017) that holding behaviours are more effective in mentoring than in other relationships in terms of organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes. Third, by examining the mediating role of protégé

personal learning and protégé job involvement, I explore why and how increased mentor holding behaviours are related to better in-role and extra-role performance and subjective and physical well-being. Fourth, by identifying the moderating role of leader–member exchange (LMX), my model contributes to the literature by detailing when the relationship between the behaviours of mentors' supervisors and mentors' holding behaviours is strengthened or weakened. Finally, under the continued effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, workplace anxiety and depression are on the rise. Therefore, from a practical point of view, it is important for organisations and executives to have a comprehensive understanding of the framework of the holding environment to be able to provide holding behaviours more effectively, thereby helping to relieve their employees' anxiety and, in turn, improve work efficiency and innovation.

Figure 1-1
The conceptual model



Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Holding Behaviour Research and Summary of Relevant Frameworks

2.1.1 Holding Behaviours

A review of the literature discussing the holding environment is necessary to understand supervisor holding behaviours. The concept of the holding environment was first proposed by Winnicott (1965) to describe the caregiving relationship between mothers and infants. Mothers create safe environments for infants to satisfy their physical and psychological needs and to strengthen their ability to face difficulties in life (Kahn, 2001; Winnicott, 1965). Later, this concept was applied to the analytic setting (Kahn, 2001; Winnicott, 1965). Specifically, analytic therapists serve as caregivers who create a temporary safe place for their patients. This allows the patients to regress without fear of interference and strengthens their ability to overcome difficulties with minimal disruption. Over time, the holding environment, initially applied to the relationships between mothers and infants and between analysts and their patients, has been found to be generalisable to various settings, as adults often require an environment in which they can safely release emotions, interpret stressful experiences, and make progress on their tasks (Kahn, 2001). The importance of such an environment has attracted the attention of organisations wishing to understand its essential nature and provide it in the workplace.

The holding environment at work is created within individuals or social

systems, ranging in scope from interpersonal relationships to groups and other social systems. Kahn (2001) identified three scenarios in which the holding environment occurs: between an individual and their manager (or supervisor), between two colleagues, and in a group. In other words, it may occur throughout an organisation.

The creation of a holding environment in the workplace requires corresponding behaviours. For example, people may set up specific meetings to address problems or face difficulties directly, investing time and energy in addressing anxiety-inducing issues (Kahn, 2001). According to Kahn (2001), holding behaviours are a set of specific and intentional behaviours that help manage employees' experiences of anxiety and enable them to move forwards. Specifically, these behaviours are categorised into three types: (a) "containment," which refers to a holder making themselves available to create a safe environment for another's emotions, actively attend to the other's experiences, inquire into the other's needs, and accept the other's expression with compassion; (b) "empathic acknowledgement," which refers to the holder's acknowledgement of the other's situation, empathetic identification with the other, and confirmation of the other's sense of self as understandable and valued; and (c) "enabling perspectives," which refer to behaviours that help the other make sense of their experiences and situations, use self-reflection as a useful resource, reorient towards a previous task, and develop the ability to deal with

anxiety-inducing situations (Kahn, 2001).

A successful demonstration of holding behaviours requires both givers' and receivers' efforts (Kahn, 2001). First, those who need holding behaviours should consider asking for holding and should trust others, while organisational members should be willing to provide support, regardless of cost. Second, holders should be able to perform holding behaviours. In this process, receivers and holders should maintain appropriate relationships and proper boundaries during their interactions. Various factors may cause the failure of holding. For example, individuals may defend against exposure to others, precluding effective interaction. Organisational members may also refuse to provide holding for financial reasons. Furthermore, a failure of mature dependence can prevent holding behaviours. Other possible causes include a lack of holding competence, a lack of receiving competence, and a lack of participants' positive experiences and outcomes.

Although Kahn (2001) proposed that both supervisors and mentors may provide holding behaviours, he did not offer a clear explanation of how holding behaviours vary by such roles. However, according to Ragins et al. (2017), the functions of holders may vary by individual, as the relationship between holders and receivers affects the effectiveness of the holding behaviours.

As for mentor holding behaviours, few studies have fully examined their role. However, researchers (e.g., Ragins et al., 2017) have suggested that

mentors' holding behaviours are more effective than others' holding behaviours because mentor–protégé relationships tend to be closer than other relationships and mentors often have more social power than supervisors. Empirical research has revealed that employees receive more mentor holding behaviours from their mentors than from their supervisors and that mentor holding behaviours are more effective than supervisor holding behaviours in reducing the negative effects of ambient discrimination (Ragins et al., 2017).

The literature exploring the antecedents of holding behaviours is limited. Kahn (2001) provided insights into how holding behaviours may succeed or fail, from which I infer several possible predictors. First, employees' work characteristics may trigger supervisor holding behaviours. In the current uncertain economic environment, characterised by rapidly changing markets and technologies, all organisational members face increasing insecurity and anxiety. This limits the possibility of adequate supervisor and coworker support and requires employees to be self-reliant. Under such conditions, a temporary safe place with resilient boundaries may be effective in helping employees to manage their emotions and make progress on their tasks. Ragins et al. (2017) found that ambient discrimination induced mentor holding behaviours and that providing holding behaviours reduced its negative effects. This suggests that certain stressors may induce the provision of holding behaviours. Furthermore, various characteristics and concerns of both holders and receivers may affect

the emergence and performance of holding behaviours. Specifically, individuals who are aware of the importance of holding behaviours and who are competent and willing to provide them may be inclined to do so (Kahn, 2001). Those who face stressful events or situations and who require a safe environment in which to manage their anxiety may be likely to seek such support if their trust in others is developed (Kahn, 2001).

As for the outcomes of holding behaviours, scholars have argued that they are of critical importance because they help reduce employee stress, burnout, and health problems (Kahn, 2001); maintain employee commitment to work in the face of anxiety-producing events (Ragins et al., 2017); and motivate employees to move forwards on tasks (Kahn, 2001).

2.1.2 Frameworks of Holding Behaviours

Only two studies have been conducted on holding behaviours. Kahn (2001) first developed the construct of holding behaviours as a set of specific and intentional behaviours performed by mentors to help manage employees' experiences of anxiety and enable them to move forwards. This study explicitly described these behaviours and identified the factors that may influence the demonstration of holding behaviours, as described above. Ragins et al. (2017) empirically examined the effects of holding behaviours of mentors, supervisors, and coworkers on organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes, applying relational systems theory. Their results indicated that mentor holding

behaviours protected employees from low organisational commitment and the stress-related outcomes of ambient discrimination. Additionally, they showed that holding behaviours played a role in the moderating effect of a high-quality mentoring relationship on the associations between ambient discrimination and organisational commitment, strain, stress-related absenteeism, and insomnia for those with informal mentors. The same outcomes were observed for those with formal mentors, except in relation to insomnia. Finally, although supervisors and coworkers can provide holding behaviours, neither supervisor holding behaviours nor coworker holding behaviours were found to reduce the negative effects of ambient discrimination.

Based on the finding of Ragins et al. (2017) that mentor holding behaviours are effective in buffering stress-related events and situations, while supervisor holding behaviours fail to do so, in this study I examined the role of supervisor holding behaviours and further investigated the effects of mentor holding behaviours on employees' performance and well-being.

Although research has found that mentor holding behaviours can mediate the moderating effects of a high-quality mentoring relationship on the relationships between ambient discrimination and its outcomes (Ragins et al., 2017), we know little about how mentor holding behaviours are developed, how they function, and under what conditions these effects are strengthened or weakened. Social learning theory provides insights into the antecedents of

mentor holding behaviours, specifically, that the performance of such behaviours may be influenced by role models' behaviours and individuals' resources. Moreover, research has examined the effects of mentor holding behaviours on organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes, without focusing on job performance, OCB, or well-being. Social learning theory and social cognitive theory support the notion that mentor holding behaviours may facilitate protégés' increased personal learning and job involvement, thus enhancing their job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being. Additionally, high-quality exchanges between supervisors and mentors may strengthen the modelling of supervisor behaviours.

In summary, I propose an integrated framework to investigate the role of mentor holding behaviours, bridging the gap in research on the antecedents of holding behaviours, outcomes related to job performance and well-being, underlying mechanisms, and moderators. Below is a review of the main variables examined in the theoretical model.

2.2 Research on the Predictors of Holding Behaviours

2.2.1 Supervisor Holding Behaviours

To date, only one paper has examined the role of supervisor holding behaviours. Ragins et al. (2017) found that supervisor holding behaviours may be particularly effective in alleviating stressful events or situations, because supervisors have daily access to employees and play a crucial role in conveying

important messages. However, they did not find supervisor holding behaviours to buffer the negative effects of ambient discrimination on organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes.

2.3 Research on the Outcomes of Holding Behaviours

2.3.1 Job Performance

A clear definition of job performance is important in the field of industrial-organisational psychology, as it is relevant to the improvement of employee performance. Specifically, Motowidlo and Kell (2012) pointed out that defining job performance facilitates the measure of traits relevant to employee selection, participation in training and development, motivational interventions and practices, and situational constraints and opportunities.

Many definitions of job performance have been proposed. For example, Motowidlo and Kell (2012) defined it as the total expected value to the organisation of discrete behaviours in a standard period of time. Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) posited that job performance refers to scalable actions, behaviours, and outcomes that employees engage in to contribute to organisations. Both of these definitions emphasise behaviours and contributions to organisations.

Although the focus of the term “job performance” is relatively clear, its dimensions are quite complex. Whether a given behaviour ultimately contributes to an organisation depends not only on the specific behaviour but

also on certain situational factors. In terms of the behavioural dimensions of job performance, Campbell (1990) summarised eight factors: job-specific task proficiency, non-job-specific task proficiency, written and oral communications, demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, facilitating team and peer performance, supervision and management, and administration. Later, Tubre et al. (2006) developed a 59-item measure to test the validity of this model. Their results indicated that modifications were needed to improve the model.

Borman and Motowidlo (1993) focused on task performance and contextual performance and argued that both elements are important for job performance. They pointed out the improper trend of selecting employees by valuing only task performance while neglecting contextual performance. Task performance refers to activities enumerated in formal job descriptions, while contextual performance is defined as behaviours that contribute to organisational effectiveness through their effects on the psychological, social, and organisational contexts of work. For example, individuals may contribute to their organisations by promoting positive affect in others, avoiding hostile behaviours and conflict, and encouraging interpersonal trust. These behaviours have effects on the social aspect of work, which helps improve individual employees' job performance. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) categorised specific contextual activities into five types: extra work behaviours; persisting with extra enthusiasm or effort; helping and cooperating; strictly adhering to

organisational rules and procedures; and identifying with, supporting, and defending organisational objectives. These dimensions were later empirically refined by Coleman and Borman (2000) into interpersonal support, organisational support, and job-task conscientiousness. Further refinements were made by Borman et al. (2001), who mentioned both effective behaviours and ineffective behaviours.

Numerous factors influence work performance. Hunter (1983) conducted a meta-analysis based on 3,264 cases and revealed the effects of ability, knowledge, and skills on job performance. Schmidt et al. (1986) found that in addition to ability, experience had an effect on job performance through associated knowledge and skills. Additionally, they found that two personality variables, namely dependability and achievement orientation, were related to job performance. Campbell (1990) and colleagues developed a theory that clarifies the relationships between ability, job knowledge, job skills, and job performance. They proposed three determinants of job performance: declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and skills, and motivation. They argued that the effects of individuals' differences in cognitive ability and personality on job performance should be mediated by knowledge, skills, and motivation.

Based on previous research, Motowidlo et al. (1997) developed a theory concerning individual differences in job performance. This theory follows Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) idea of task performance and contextual

performance and argues that cognitive ability is a better predictor of task performance, while personality is more closely related to contextual performance. Knowledge, skills, and work behaviours are intervening variables that are learnt from experiences and affected by ability, personality, and environmental variables.

The theory of performance antecedents mentioned above has been challenged on the grounds that knowledge and skills fail to predict other dimensions of job performance (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012). For example, it is difficult to predict citizenship behaviour and counterproductive behaviour based on knowledge and skills. This invites further discussion about knowledge, skills, and other possible antecedents of performance.

2.3.2 OCB

The concept of OCB can be traced to the 1930s and was described by Organ (1988) as "behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). To differentiate this behaviour from other constructs, Organ (1997) later refined the definition of OCB as individual behaviour that is discretionary, extends beyond the scope of daily work routines, and contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance. Despite this revision, the concept of OCB remains similar to that of contextual performance, which refers

to behaviour that supports the social and psychological context of the organisation so that it functions effectively (Motowidlo et al., 1997). Although there is some overlap between the two terms, they originated as distinct concepts, as Organ (1988) emphasised that OCB is typically voluntary and unrewarded.

Although the proposed dimensions of OCB are diverse, Organ's five-dimensional framework has influenced the greatest amount of empirical research. Smith et al. (1983) measured OCB in two dimensions, namely altruism and generalised compliance. Organ (1988) expanded these dimensions in his framework to include altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. Since then, several other taxonomies of similar behaviours have been proposed and operationalised. However, these dimensions overlap with those of Organ (1988). The popularity of Organ's (1988) definition and dimensions is attributable to several things. First, Organ and colleagues have long contributed to this field, producing numerous articles and book chapters; second, there is a valid, corresponding measure that has been examined and adopted in many excellent empirical studies; and third, many scholars have recognised the benefits of these dimensions in various contexts (LePine et al., 2002).

Many scholars have explored the predictors of OCB. For example, Organ and Ryan (1995) conducted a meta-analysis regarding the attitudinal and dispositional predictors of OCB. Based on the results of 55 quantitative studies,

they found that job attitudes were robust predictors of OCB. Specifically, job satisfaction strongly predicted OCB, while perceived fairness, organisational commitment, and leader supportiveness predicted OCB at almost the same level. No dispositional variables, except conscientiousness, were found to be correlated with OCB.

In addition to attitudes and dispositions, Alizadeh et al. (2012) identified the following important predictors of OCB: personality dimensions such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, and positive and negative affectivity; task characteristics such as feedback, routinisation, and intrinsic satisfaction; and leadership behaviours such as transformational leadership behaviour, transactional leadership behaviour, behaviours related to the path–goal theory of leadership, and behaviours related to LMX theory. They also called for an examination of the effects of age, gender, and experience on OCB.

2.3.3 Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being is a concept studied by behavioural scientists to understand the factors that lead individuals to think and experience their lives in either positive or negative ways (Diener, 1984; Diener et al., 2018). Rather than preconceiving what constitutes a good life, researchers have relied on the judgments provided by respondents based on their own criteria for what is important (Diener et al., 2018; Diener & Ryan, 2009). Subjective well-being encompasses individuals' evaluations and appraisals of their own lives,

including reflective cognitive judgments such as life satisfaction, as well as positive and negative emotional responses to ongoing life experiences. When people reflect on their lives and evaluate them either in their entirety or in terms of specific domains such as work or health, they compare their current situation with their own standards for a good life. As a result, elements that contribute to life satisfaction are determined by the respondents themselves rather than by the researchers. Similarly, people experience pleasant emotions in response to events and circumstances in their lives that they perceive as desirable.

Therefore, self-report rating scales are the predominant method of measuring subjective well-being, as they reflect individuals' own criteria and feelings towards happiness (Diener et al., 2018; Diener & Ryan, 2009). Informant reports have also been used, producing similar results to those of self-reports, indicating that there is some agreement between individuals and their acquaintances about their level of happiness (Diener et al., 2018). However, due to the issue of common method variance associated with self-report methods, certain scholars have suggested the use of objective measures. These non-self-report measures have been found to be effective in providing a more comprehensive understanding of well-being (Diener & Ryan, 2009).

Diener and colleagues (2018) conducted a systematic review that identified multiple factors that affect individuals' subjective well-being. First, genetics significantly impact an individual's well-being, as the meta-analysis showed

that genetics account for around 30% to 40% of the differences in subjective well-being between individuals. Second, the satisfaction of basic and psychological needs, such as food, shelter, positive emotions, and feeling respected by others, also strongly influences subjective well-being. In addition to these inherent needs, life circumstances play a crucial role in shaping an individual's well-being. For instance, getting married can lead to happiness, if only for a limited period, although having children is not a significant factor in determining subjective well-being. In contrast, negative experiences such as widowhood, unemployment, and disability predict negative outcomes and can have long-lasting effects on well-being. Furthermore, societal and community factors influence individuals' well-being. For example, economic factors such as national income have a significant influence on individuals' subjective well-being, across countries. Additionally, inequality, political freedoms, corruption, and green space have been found to be related to subjective well-being.

Several researchers have investigated the factors that influence subjective well-being in various contexts and populations. For instance, Bond and Ng (2004) conducted a study of Hong Kong adults to identify the predictors of subjective well-being and found that intimacy and affiliation were the strongest predictors. Shirmohammadi et al. (2022) conducted a systematic review of the literature to identify factors that affect the subjective well-being of blue-collar, immigrant workers. They proposed a conceptual framework and concluded that

blue-collar employment can lead to a depletion of resources for many immigrants, which negatively affects their subjective well-being. However, they also found that resource gains can prevent further resource loss and positively influence the subjective well-being of such workers.

2.3.4 Physical Well-Being

The term "physical well-being" refers to a person's physical ability to participate in social activities and perform physical tasks without physical limitations or discomfort (Capio et al., 2014). To measure physical well-being, both subjective and objective methods have been applied. Self-reports of physical symptoms are the focus of subjective measures, while objective measures concentrate on medical indices. Both approaches are important, as some symptoms can only be evaluated by the individual, whereas certain physical indicators such as blood pressure are more straightforward.

Multiple factors affect individuals' physical well-being. Capio and colleagues (2014) showed that the effects of physical activities and engagement in exercise on physical well-being have been widely examined. Scholars have also explored the factors of physical well-being present in various groups (Capio et al., 2014). For children, important factors are nutrition, clean and safe environments, health care, mental stimulation, and access to nurturing relationships. For the elderly, physical function, including hearing, vision, memory, and overall physical fitness, is strongly linked to physical well-being.

Research has also examined the quality of life of individuals with chronic diseases, such as cancer, for whom reducing the experience of pain is a key factor.

In a meta-analysis conducted by McKee-Ryan et al. (2005), 104 empirical studies were reviewed to examine the relationship between employment and psychological and physical well-being. The authors identified 22 predictors of psychological and physical well-being, including coping resources, cognitive appraisal, coping strategies, human capital, demographics, and work-role centrality. However, the results concerning physical well-being were not as significant, as there have been few studies examining this aspect upon which to base the analysis. Only three predictors, namely core self-evaluation, internal attribution, and length of employment, were found to be significantly related to physical well-being among unemployed individuals.

Field (2010) reviewed the literature on the effects of touch on socioemotional and physical well-being. The empirical results showed that touch decreased blood pressure, heart rate, and cortisol levels and increased oxytocin levels. Handholding, hugging, and receiving neck and shoulder massages from partners were identified as effective ways to enhance well-being, as evidenced by lower heart rates and cortisol levels in response to stress.

2.4 Research on the Mediators of Holding Behaviours

2.4.1 Personal Learning

According to Lankau and Scandura (2002), personal learning involves acquiring knowledge and skills that contribute to an individual's growth and development in terms of interpersonal competencies such as empathy, feedback, authenticity, empowerment, self-reflection, self-disclosure, and active listening. Personal learning includes various aspects of an individual's identity, values, strengths, weaknesses, development needs, reactions, and behaviour patterns (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1996). It is a process through which individuals gain an understanding of themselves and experience personal growth in terms of behaviour, attitudes, and abilities through social interactions. Personal learning is composed of two dimensions, namely relational job learning, which involves understanding work contexts and how work is related to others, and personal skill development, which involves acquiring skills and abilities such as active listening, empowerment, empathy, and communication. Individuals are encouraged to perceive and manage their emotions, motivations, and behaviours and those of others in social activities through two-way communication, active listening, and problem-solving (Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

According to Lankau and Scandura (2007), personal learning is crucial for career success, as individuals who possess high levels of personal learning can easily access resources from others in various situations. In the current work

climate, careers are often protean (Hall, 1996) and boundaryless (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), and individuals must constantly enhance their personal skills and abilities to perform well in various roles, organisations, and settings (Arthur et al., 2005). Therefore, individuals who are skilled in personal learning have a competitive edge in their careers, as they can better navigate the challenges of the workplace by applying their knowledge to new contexts, organisations, and positions (Guberman & Greenfield, 1991).

Leader behaviours and mentor behaviours are two important predictors of personal learning. Based on the empirical results of a study of 588 employees in 59 work teams, Jiang and colleagues (2016) found that transformational leadership climate positively predicted two dimensions of personal learning, namely relational job learning and personal skill development. Moreover, the positive relationships were moderated by the nature of the teams' tasks. In particular, the research indicated that a transformational leadership climate had a stronger relationship with personal learning among team members working on non-routine tasks than on those working on routine tasks. However, interdependence did not affect the relationship between transformational leadership climate and personal learning. Servant leadership has also been found to be positively related to personal learning (Tang et al., 2016). This is reasonable, as servant leadership pays attention to employees' individual needs and personal growth.

Personal learning has been widely examined in the context of mentoring. Lankau and Scandura (2002) developed a new measure of personal learning and examined it in the context of mentoring relationships. They proposed that mentors can be an important source of personal learning and that mentoring functions can promote protégés' relational job learning and skill learning. Additionally, mentors can serve as role models for protégés, imitating mentors' attitudes, values, and behaviours. Their empirical results verified Lankau and Scandura's hypotheses. Kwan et al. (2010) also found a positive effect of role modelling on protégés' personal learning. Moreover, Pan et al. (2011) investigated 226 employees and their supervisors in four manufacturing companies in China and found that supervisory mentoring had a positive effect on employees' personal learning. However, Mao et al. (2016) only found a positive relationship between mentorship quality and relational job learning, finding that the relationship between mentorship quality and personal skill development was not significant.

In terms of outcomes, Lankau and Scandura (2002) found that personal learning played an important role in facilitating role clarity at work and improving overall job satisfaction. In addition, they found that an individual's learning about their connectedness to others in an organisation could reduce their thoughts of leaving, while specific skill development learning appeared to affect actual employee turnover. Pan et al. (2011) also examined the work

outcomes of personal learning and found that personal learning could promote employees' job performance and career satisfaction. Kwan and colleagues (2010) focused on the effect of personal learning on the work–family interface, finding, for example, that personal skill development positively predicted work–family enrichment, while relational job learning was not significantly related to work–family enrichment. However, in another empirical study, Mao et al. (2016) found a positive relationship both between relational job learning and work–family enrichment and between personal skill development and work–family enrichment. Moreover, relational job learning was negatively related to work–family conflict, but personal skill development did not affect work–family conflict. Furthermore, personal learning has been found to facilitate positive work–family spillover among Chinese employees (Tang et al., 2016).

2.4.2 Job Involvement

Job involvement is defined as the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with their work, or the importance of work in their overall self-image (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Since Lodahl and Kejner (1965) introduced the job involvement construct, hundreds of empirical studies have been conducted relating job involvement to various personal and situational characteristics in diverse work settings (Brown, 1996). Early research focused mainly on job or employee satisfaction. More recently, the focus has shifted to studying other attitudinal concepts, such as job involvement, perceived organisational support,

and organisational commitment (Hngoi et al., 2023).

Although job involvement has been extensively studied, there have been various conceptualisations of it. Hngol et al. (2023) identified four related terms, namely (a) the most important job in an individual's life, (b) employee work participation, (c) the significance of job performance to the individual's self-concept and self-esteem, and (d) the psychological identification of the cognitive state during work. Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) suggested that job involvement may be an individual characteristic, a variable determined by the situation, or a product of the interaction between a person and their situation.

Brown (1996) conducted a meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of job involvement. Based on 51 pairwise relationships related to job involvement, the author found that the personality variables of work ethic endorsement, internal motivation, and self-esteem were significantly related to job involvement. Internal motivation was found to be strongly related to job involvement, while work ethic endorsement and self-esteem were determined to be moderately associated with job involvement. Situational variables are also important predictors of job involvement. Skill variety, task identity, feedback, task significance, job challenge, task complexity, and motivating potential were found to be related to job involvement to various degrees. In addition, the study found supervisory participation and supervisory consideration to be significantly related to job involvement. Although previous empirical results

had suggested that role conflict and role ambiguity had a small, negative effect on job involvement, the results of the meta-analysis did not suggest such relationships.

Lambert and Paoline (2012) also explored the antecedents of job involvement. Their study focused on jail staff, whose job involvement, they claimed, was crucial for the management of jails and who had seldom been studied previously. Based on the results of 1,062 surveys of staff at a large county correctional system in Orlando, Florida, they found that the job characteristic variables of formalisation, input into decision-making, and administrative support were positively associated with job involvement.

Various consequences of job involvement have been identified, such as work behaviours, job attitudes, and several significant "side effects" (e.g., work–family conflict, stress, somatic health complaints, and anxiety; Brown, 1996). However, Brown's (1996) meta-analysis revealed that work behaviours such as performance, absenteeism, and turnover were weakly related to job involvement. Effort was found to be positively related to job involvement. In terms of job attitudes, only pay satisfaction was found not to be significantly associated with job involvement. Job satisfaction was found to be strongly related to job involvement but not because they are conceptually similar. Rather, job satisfaction focuses on the emotional state of the job, while job involvement focuses on the cognitive form of psychological identification with the job.

Brown (1996) further showed that job involvement moderately predicted supervisor, promotion, and coworker satisfaction and weakly predicted pay satisfaction.

Rotenberry and Moberg (2007) assessed the effect of job involvement on performance. They argued that the relationship between job involvement and performance had received little attention and that previous examinations were invalid. Their analysis of 320 participants indicated that job involvement was an important predictor of work performance. Specifically, it positively predicted in-role performance and both forms of OCB. Moreover, after controlling work centrality, they found that the positive relationships remained significant.

2.5 Research on the Moderators of Holding Behaviours

2.5.1 LMX

LMX theory, initially known as the "vertical dyad linkage approach," was developed by Dansereau et al. in 1975. What sets LMX apart from other leadership theories is its emphasis on the relationship between a leader and each individual member of a group, rather than the traits of either party, as a unit of analysis (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

The central premise of LMX theory is that leaders do not treat all of their subordinates (or followers) equally and that LMX quality can vary from low to high (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Low LMX quality signifies that most of the exchanges between a leader and a follower are related to the employment

contract, whereas high LMX quality indicates their mutual respect, trust, and support (Martin et al., 2018). The varying interactions between leaders and subordinates shape the development of relationships within a group.

Although LMX theory initially focused on the dyadic relationships between leaders and followers, scholars have shifted their attention to group-level differentiation due to the implications of these dyadic relationships (Martin et al., 2018). When a leader's LMX relationships differ by team member, the outcomes of the team's work are affected not only by the quality of each dyadic relationship but also by the overall quality of the leader's relationships with other team members. This process is known as "LMX differentiation" and has become a prominent topic of LMX research.

Although LMX theory has been extensively studied, its definition and measurement have been inconsistent and variable (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The concept of LMX has developed from the two-item measure of negotiating latitude to more comprehensive, multidimensional scales. The use of different scales has led to mixed results regarding LMX. Certain researchers have suggested that the most valid approach is to use the standardised measure of LMX, which has undergone multiple revisions and refinements (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

In terms of antecedents, Dulebohn and colleagues (2012) drew on 247 empirical studies and proposed that follower characteristics, including follower

competence, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, locus of control, and positive and negative affectivity; leader characteristics, including leader contingent rewards, transformational leadership, leader expectations of follower success, and leader extraversion and agreeableness; and interpersonal relationship variables, including follower perceived similarity, leader affect or liking, follower ingratiation and self-promotion influence tactics, follower assertiveness influence tactics, and leader trust, are predictors of LMX. Their results revealed leader variables to be strongly related to LMX quality. Additionally, leader behaviours and perceptions, follower characteristics, interpersonal relationship characteristics, and contextual variables were found to be significantly related to LMX. Specifically, except for emotional stability and openness to experience, follower characteristics were significantly related to LMX. In addition, all of the above-mentioned leader characteristics were significantly related to LMX, and almost all of the interpersonal relationship variables were also found to be significantly related to LMX.

Henderson and colleagues (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of LMX differentiation and found that the individual-level characteristics and behaviours of leaders and followers, group context, and organisational context variables are important antecedents thereof. In their study, the organisation-level variables included organisational culture, organisational structure, and human resources

practices; the group-level variables included culture, composition, and size; and the individual-level variables included leadership style, leaders' LMX with their direct supervisors, and desire to become a full-time employee.

As for outcomes, Dulebohn and colleagues (2012) identified 16 consequences of LMX quality: turnover intention, actual turnover, overall OCB, job performance, overall organisational commitment, affective commitment, normative commitment, general job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervisor, satisfaction with pay, procedural justice, distributive justice, empowerment, perceptions of politics, role ambiguity, and role conflict.

Based on a review, Henderson et al. (2009) proposed that organisational variables include reputation, labour costs, and turnover; group-level variables include performance and group member relationships; and individual-level variables include leader influence, leader carer success, and leader performance. The authors suggested that subordinate turnover, subordinate commitment, subordinate job satisfaction, subordinate psychological contract fulfilment, subordinate performance, and subordinate OCB are important outcomes of LMX.

Martin et al. (2016) explored the effect of LMX on performance. Their meta-analysis results showed that LMX positively predicted task, citizenship, and counterproductive performance. Additionally, they showed that the relationships were weak when the measures were from different sources or

methods and when the results were reported by followers rather than leaders. They also indicated that the relationship between LMX and task performance was one-way rather than two-way and that there was no reciprocal effect.

Rockstuhl and colleagues (2012) examined the relationship between LMX and culture. The findings from 282 separate samples, comprising 68,587 participants across 23 countries in total, indicated that when controlling for differences in extreme response styles, LMX relationships showed stronger connections with OCB, justice perceptions, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and leader trust in horizontal individualistic contexts (such as Western countries) than in vertical collectivist contexts (such as Asian countries). Additionally, the study found national culture not to have an effect on the relationships between LMX and task performance, organisational commitment, and transformational leadership.

Chapter 3. Theories and Hypotheses

Integrating social learning theory, social cognitive theory, and LMX theory, I propose a trickle-down model stating that the behaviours of mentors' direct supervisors may affect mentors' holding behaviours, while mentors' provision of holding further affects their protégés' performance and well-being. Specifically, I examined the antecedents, outcomes, underlying mechanisms, and boundary conditions of mentor holding behaviours.

I propose supervisor holding behaviours as a predictor of mentor holding behaviours. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), individuals acquire social behaviours from direct experience or by observing others. Moreover, research on social learning and behavioural role modelling has revealed that individuals tend to observe and imitate the behaviours of credible role models (Mawritz et al., 2012). In the workplace, supervisors are usually regarded as role models whose behaviours are carefully observed and imitated (Brown & Treviño, 2006; Kwan, 2014). Therefore, mentors may learn holding behaviours from their supervisors. Specifically, mentors may learn holding behaviours from direct observation and imitation of their supervisors' holding behaviours, or they may perform holding behaviours influenced by their supervisors' ethical attitudes, values, and behaviours. Ethical leaders are often regarded as attractive and credible role models, in that they attempt to do good things for others and their ethical behaviours attract others' attention. Therefore,

those who model their behaviour after ethical leaders' behaviour are more willing to hold others.

Moreover, based on the findings of Ragins et al. (2017) that holding behaviours are more effective in a mentoring relationship than in other relationships, I sought to verify the effects of holding behaviours between mentors and protégés and to further explore the consequences and underlying mechanisms of holding behaviours. Specifically, I examined the effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégés' job performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being, as well as the mediating roles of protégés' personal learning and job involvement. LMX theory provides theoretical support for my hypotheses. Specifically, LMX theory proposes the norms of reciprocity, or the perceived obligation to return favours in relationships (Blau, 1964). When protégés perceive that their mentors care about and support them, they are more likely to reciprocate by improving their own task performance and exhibiting OCB (Walumbwa et al., 2011). Therefore, I infer that mentor holding behaviours enhance protégé job performance and OCB by encouraging protégés to invest personal learning and job involvement. Additionally, when provided with mentor holding behaviours, protégés may feel well and function well. Therefore, I examined whether such resource compensation leads to personal learning and job involvement and, consequently, to protégés' subjective and physical well-being.

I also examined the boundary conditions of the effects of the behaviours of mentors' supervisors on mentors' holding behaviours and the effects of mentors' holding behaviours on protégés. I propose that high-quality LMX serves to strengthen the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours. Specifically, given increased interaction, mutual trust and support, and affective attachment between mentors and their supervisors, mentors are more likely to observe and imitate their supervisors' behaviours. Therefore, I propose that LMX quality moderates the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours.

In summary, my research makes several important contributions. First, to the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to propose and examine a comprehensive model of mentor holding behaviours. Examining the antecedents of mentor holding behaviours contributes to the supervisor-related literature and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977). Second, investigating the effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégés' job-related outcomes and well-being-related outcomes, this study reveals corresponding underlying mechanisms, extending the research of Ragins et al. (2017), who proposed that holding behaviours are more effective in mentoring relationships than in other relationships in terms of improving organisational commitment and stress-related outcomes. Third, by examining the mediating role of personal learning and job involvement, I explore why and how increased mentor holding

behaviours are related to better job performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being. Fourth, by identifying the moderating role of LMX, my model contributes to the literature by identifying circumstances under which the relationship between mentors' supervisor behaviours and mentor holding behaviours is strengthened or weakened. Last, from a practical point of view, under the continuous effects of the COVID-19 pandemic, workplace anxiety and depression are increasing. Therefore, it is important for organisations and executives to comprehensively understand the framework of the holding environment, so that they can provide holding behaviours more effectively to help their employees relieve anxiety, thereby improving work efficiency and innovation.

3.1 Antecedents of Mentor Holding Behaviours

3.1.1 Supervisor Holding Behaviours

Mentor holding behaviours are a set of specific and intentional behaviours performed by mentors that help manage employees' experiences of anxiety and enable them to move forwards from their current situation (Kahn, 2001). I predict that mentors may learn holding behaviours from their supervisors. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), people acquire their behavioural patterns through observing and imitating the behaviours of their role models. In the workplace, supervisors are credible role models because of the high status and power they wield that attract mentors' attention (Bandura,

1986). Moreover, supervisors provide hints about what behaviours are expected in their organisations, through rewards and punishments (Kwan, 2014; Mayer et al., 2012). Therefore, mentors are likely to carefully observe their supervisors' behaviours and imitate rewarding behaviours such as holding behaviours.

Additionally, supervisor holding behaviours can be valuable resources for mentors learning how to perform holding behaviours successfully. Supervisors perform three specific types of holding behaviours in organisations: containment, empathic acknowledgement, and enabling perspectives (Kahn, 2001; Ragins et al., 2017). A successful demonstration of holding behaviours requires that holders have excellent interpersonal skills and be open to multiple perspectives (Kahn, 2001). A careful observation and imitation of how supervisors create a holding environment for others may help improve mentors' competence to hold others. For example, observing how supervisors actively attend to others' experiences, inquire into others' needs, and accept others' experiences and emotions with compassion enables mentors to better carry out holding behaviours themselves. In contrast, people may fail to effectively create holding environments when they begin too hurriedly, show little compassion, or have little capacity to hold others (Kahn, 2001).

In summary, mentors pay attention to, observe, and imitate their supervisors' holding behaviours because supervisors are regarded as role models, and supervisors' behaviours provide hints for employees' behavioural guidelines.

Moreover, observations and imitation help to improve mentors' holding competence, given that creating holding environments is a demanding task. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor holding behaviours are positively related to mentor holding behaviours.

3.2 Mediators and Outcomes of Mentor Holding Behaviours

3.2.1 Mentor Holding Behaviours, Protégé Personal Learning, and Protégé Job Involvement

According to Kram (1996), personal learning involves gaining deeper insights into one's identity, values, strengths, and weaknesses. This type of learning has two dimensions: relational job learning and personal skill development (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Relational job learning involves gaining a better understanding of how one's job is related to other people and the overall work context, while personal skill development involves acquiring new skills and abilities related to world view, active listening, interpersonal communication, and problem-solving, with the goal of improving work relationships with others. Personal learning is distinct from task learning, as it focuses on the development of personal and conceptual skills that contribute to an individual's growth and development (Lankau & Scandura, 2002).

Mentors are viewed as a valuable resource for facilitating their protégés' personal learning, as individuals can learn by observing the behaviours of others

and the outcomes that follow (Bandura, 1977). Mentoring relationships offer a useful platform for personal learning through intense interaction, sharing, and exchanges (Kram, 1996; Kwan et al., 2010; Pan et al., 2011). Lankau and Scandura (2002) examined personal learning in mentoring relationships and found that supervisory mentoring had a positive impact on subordinate personal learning.

Mentor holding behaviours are defined as intentional behaviours that help manage protégés' anxiety and enable them to move forwards; these behaviours play a crucial role in promoting protégés' personal learning. Creating a safe environment for protégés to express their emotions and attending to their needs and values makes protégés feel safe to express themselves and discuss the difficulties they face (Kram, 1985). These behaviours help protégés understand how their jobs relate to others' roles and promotes cooperative relationships. Moreover, protégés may gain new perspectives and active learning and interpersonal communication skills from discussions with their mentors in such safe spaces. Additionally, enabling behaviours, which assist others in making sense of their experiences and situations, using self-reflection, and developing the capacity to deal with anxiety-arousing situations promote protégés' insights into their own abilities, limitations, and relationships with others and foster problem-solving skills. In the workplace, protégés may view their mentors as role models and emulate their perspectives and skills. By observing their

mentors' behaviours, protégés learn how to manage stressful situations and develop relationships with others. In particular, mentors exhibit holding behaviours to support their protégés when the protégés are faced with upsetting or stressful work experiences and situations. According to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986), protégés can observe and/or model these behaviours. Consequently, they learn how to manage hard times and develop and maintain quality relationships with their colleagues. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé personal learning.

Job involvement is a widely researched construct in organisational psychology. The term refers to the degree to which individuals identify with and are committed to their work (Kanungo, 1982). Job involvement has been widely studied because numerous empirical studies have shown that it has significant implications for individual and organisational outcomes. According to the results of Brown's (1996) meta-analysis, in addition to employees' personality and situational characteristics, their supervisors constitute an important factor influencing the employees' job involvement. Craig (2013) also found that employees who experienced positive mentoring events displayed a higher level of commitment.

Mentor holding behaviours can increase protégés' job involvement. The

functions of holding behaviours include helping protégés manage their experience of anxiety and enabling them to move forwards. This process may enhance protégés' ability to alleviate work-related stress and to resolve problems as well as strengthen the bonds between mentors and protégés and between protégés and their work (Craig, 2013). Moreover, this process may enhance protégés' self-efficacy, that is, their belief in their ability to perform well in their work (Bandura, 1977, 1986), increasing their willingness to engage in their work and face related challenges. Additionally, observational learning may occur in this process; protégés may observe holding behaviours and the consequences of their mentors' holding behaviours. As mentors usually perform well, and their behaviours are regarded as the norm of their organisation, protégés are likely to pay great attention to their mentors, as they believe that their mentors represent the organisation and demonstrate appropriate behaviours. This may help the protégés to identify with their mentors and their work. Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé job involvement.

According to social learning theory and social cognitive theory, mentor holding behaviours can promote job involvement. As individuals gain new knowledge and skills through personal learning, they are more likely to feel confident and competent in their work, leading to a greater sense of identity and

involvement (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Moreover, personal learning can help individuals develop a better understanding of the work context, including how their job is related to others, which can increase their sense of meaningfulness and importance at work (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). In addition, personal learning can enhance individuals' self-efficacy, which is the belief in their ability to perform well at work (Bandura, 1977, 1986). As individuals gain new skills and knowledge through personal learning, they are more likely to feel capable of handling the challenges and demands of their work, leading to a greater sense of job involvement (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Furthermore, personal learning can promote job involvement through observation. Specifically, as individuals observe the behaviours of their colleagues who engage in personal learning, they may adopt similar behaviours and attitudes towards their own work, leading to increased job involvement (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Protégé personal learning is positively related to protégé job involvement.

3.2.2 Protégé Personal Learning, Job Performance, OCB, Subjective Well-Being, and Physical Well-Being

Social cognitive theory proposes that individuals pay attention to social cues in their environment to learn appropriate scripts and behaviour for daily coping (Bandura, 1986). Through such social learning, individuals develop or

reinforce schemas that shape their perceptions, expectations, desires, and behaviour (Gioia & Poole, 1984). By benefiting and learning from mentor holding behaviours, protégés can gain a better understanding of their work context and their relationships with others. They can also gain perspectives, skills, and efficacy relevant to managing their stress and solving problems. I propose that such learning can benefit protégés' in-role and extra-role performance and their subjective and physical well-being.

Job performance refers to employees' scalable actions, behaviours, and outcomes that contribute to their organisations (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Examples of such activities include directly implementing a part of the technical process that transforms raw materials into organisational products or indirectly providing necessary materials or services for the distribution and exchange of products within a specified period of time (Liu et al., 2009). The literature has suggested that both formal learning and informal learning can influence job performance (e.g., Park et al., 2016).

According to social learning theory and social cognitive theory, learning helps shape protégés' values, perceptions, attitudes, and expected behaviours in the workplace (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). Personal learning may motivate individuals to seek and internalise feedback on the value of their contributions to the workplace. This feedback can provide protégés with alternative perspectives on their work and encourage them to learn how to balance multiple

work roles. In addition, learning can help protégés better understand their work environment and acquire necessary skills, leading to better adaptation to constantly changing job requirements and, consequently, improved in-role job performance. Furthermore, personal learning can enhance confidence, competence, and efficacy in solving work-related problems (Gouillart & Kelly, 1995). This increased confidence and competence can enable protégés to respond more positively to their jobs and colleagues (Lankau & Scandura, 2007). Such protégés can perform their own tasks well and maintain high-quality work relationships with others, ensuring their access to multiple resources from others. For example, protégés with good work relationships can benefit from their coworkers' help when overworked, allowing them to maintain high in-role job performance (Noe et al., 2002).

Organ (1988) defined OCB in terms of three crucial elements: first, the behaviour is voluntary; second, it is not explicitly rewarded by the formal system of incentives and extends beyond the scope of the employee's job description; and third, it contributes to the organisation's effective functioning. Research has explored OCB in relation to various targets, such as colleagues, supervisors, organisations, and customers (Dimitriades, 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

Personal learning is considered a crucial factor shaping an individual's attitudes and behaviour towards their organisation. Specifically, personal

learning may increase an individual's knowledge and awareness of the importance of OCB, leading to their increased willingness to engage in discretionary behaviours that promote the effective functioning of their organisation. Liao and Rupp (2005) supported the notion that personal learning may play a key role in shaping employees' values, perceptions, and behaviours.

Moreover, through personal learning, individuals may develop a greater sense of self-efficacy and confidence in their ability to engage in OCB (Grant, 2012). As a result, they may be more likely to engage in behaviours that are not directly or explicitly rewarded by the formal reward system, such as helping coworkers or going above and beyond their job description. Grant (2012) verified that personal learning, including the development of self-efficacy and confidence, is a key factor in promoting sustained engagement in corporate volunteering.

Subjective well-being refers to an individual's self-reported evaluation of their life satisfaction and happiness as well as their overall mood and affect. Personal learning can lead to improvements in subjective well-being by helping individuals to develop a greater sense of self-efficacy (Pan et al., 2011). Protégés with high levels of self-efficacy tend to be less anxious and more comfortable in their relationships with others than people with low levels of self-efficacy. Moreover, they are more likely to exert efforts to overcome difficulties or take initiative when facing challenges. In this way, they may experience more

positive feelings in the workplace, resulting in subjective well-being. Rodebaugh and colleagues (2011) verified that engaging in self-improvement activities is associated with lower levels of depression and anxiety and higher levels of life satisfaction and positive affect.

Additionally, job relational learning can help protégés gain a better understanding of how their jobs relate to others and how others perceive their job or unit (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). This contextual self-awareness can help individuals understand relevant expectations and responsibilities and foster positive relationships. In addition, personal skill development through work can equip individuals with skills such as empathy, empowerment, and active listening, which can be applied in various settings to manage their own and others' emotions, motivations, and behaviours. These applications can lead to positive experiences and emotions for such individuals (Kwan et al., 2010). Research has revealed that personal learning can promote employees' career satisfaction (Pan et al., 2010) and work–family enrichment (Mao et al., 2016).

Personal learning can also predict physical well-being by promoting healthy behaviours and reducing stress. The term "physical well-being" describes a person's physical ability to participate in social activities and perform physical tasks without encountering physical limitations or discomfort (Capio et al., 2014). Research has found that engaging in physical activities in the form of learning can promote physical well-being (Capio et al., 2014). Field

(2010) found that certain means of sending messages help to reduce heart rate, blood pressure, and cortisol levels. Personal learning enables protégés to understand multiple perspectives, develop effective communication skills, and increase efficacy, which may help them manage their own and others' stress.

Based on the above discussion, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Protégés' personal learning is positively related to their (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being, and (d) physical well-being.

3.2.3 Protégé Job Involvement, Job Performance, OCB, and Subjective and Physical Well-Being

Job involvement is defined as the degree to which an individual is emotionally attached to and engaged in their work. It has been found to be positively related to job performance in numerous studies (e.g., Chughtai, 2008; Thevanes & Dirojan, 2018). People who have a higher level of job involvement are generally more concerned about their work (Thevanes & Dirojan, 2018) and are thus more likely to seek out opportunities for skill development and to go above and beyond their job requirements, which can further enhance their performance, than those with lower levels (Thevanes & Dirojan, 2018). Furthermore, research has suggested that job involvement is associated with greater job satisfaction and motivation, which in turn leads to higher levels of effort and better job performance (Chughtai, 2008). In contrast, when an

individual is less involved in their job, they may feel less committed and motivated, leading to decreased effort and lower job performance than otherwise. This is because individuals who are relatively uninvolved in their jobs tend to be less invested in their work and less willing to take on additional responsibilities or challenges than others. They may also be more likely to experience boredom or disengagement than others, which can further decrease their motivation and performance.

Job involvement, which is characterised by an individual's sense of meaningfulness, strong desire to perform well, and willingness to invest time and effort in their job, has been shown to be positively related to OCB (Bolino et al., 2004; Diefendorff et al., 2002). There are several possible explanations for this. First, individuals who are more involved in their jobs are more likely than others to identify with the goals and values of their organisation (Amah & Ahiauzu, 2013). As a result, they may be more motivated than others to engage in behaviours that promote the effective functioning of the organisation, even if these behaviours are not directly rewarded by the formal reward system. Furthermore, job involvement may increase an individual's sense of responsibility and accountability for the organisation's success (Bolino et al., 2004). This sense of ownership may encourage individuals to go above and beyond their job descriptions to help coworkers or to take on additional tasks that benefit the organisation as a whole. In addition, research has found that job

involvement is positively related to job satisfaction (Kanungo, 1982). When individuals are satisfied with their jobs, they may be more motivated than others to engage in behaviours that contribute to a positive work environment and the success of their organisations.

Job involvement has also been found to be positively related to subjective well-being. For example, Knoop (1995) found that job involvement was a significant predictor of job satisfaction in the study's sample of nurses. Similarly, Zopiatis and colleagues (2014) found that job involvement was positively related to subjective well-being, including intrinsic job satisfaction, among hospitality employees in Cyprus. Moreover, a study by Lambert and colleagues (2018) found that job involvement was positively associated with job satisfaction and life satisfaction among their sample of Chinese employees. These findings suggest that individuals who are more emotionally invested in their jobs tend to experience higher levels of subjective well-being than others.

There are several possible mechanisms that may cause the positive relationship between job involvement and subjective well-being. For instance, job involvement can provide individuals with a greater sense of meaning and purpose in their work, which can contribute to higher levels of life satisfaction (Lambert et al., 2018). Additionally, job involvement may allow individuals to experience greater autonomy and control over their work environment, leading to increased job satisfaction (Diener et al., 2018). Furthermore, individuals who

are highly involved in their work may experience a greater sense of accomplishment and pride in the work, which can contribute to positive emotions and overall well-being (Shantz et al., 2013). Finally, job involvement may also lead to positive social interactions at work, which can provide social support and a sense of community, both of which are known to be positively associated with subjective well-being (Diener et al., 2018).

Very few studies have examined the relationship between job involvement and physical well-being. May and Schwoerer (1994) found that job involvement was positively related to employee physical health, including reduced injuries and cumulative trauma disorders. This suggests that job involvement may have a unique and independent impact on physical well-being.

I hold that job involvement may influence physical well-being for several reasons. First, individuals who are highly involved in their jobs may be more likely than others to engage in healthy behaviours such as regular exercise and healthy eating, which can contribute to better physical health. Additionally, individuals who are highly involved in their jobs may experience less job-related stress, thereby reducing the known negative effects on their physical health (Wood et al., 2012). Furthermore, individuals who are highly involved in their jobs may experience a greater sense of control over their work environment, which can contribute to lower levels of stress and improved physical health (Diener et al., 2018). Finally, job involvement may be associated with positive

social interactions at work, which can contribute to overall health quality. Based on the above discussion, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Protégé job involvement is positively related to their (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being, and (d) physical well-being.

3.3 Sequential Mediation Model of Mentor Holding Behaviours

Given my six hypotheses, namely that (1) supervisor holding behaviours are positively related to mentor holding behaviours; (2) mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé personal learning; (3) mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé job involvement; (4) protégé personal learning is positively related to job involvement; (5) protégé personal learning is positively related to protégé job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being; and (6) protégé job involvement is positively related to protégé job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being, I propose a sequential model and further hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 7: There is a serial, indirect effect of supervisor holding behaviours on protégés' (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being, and (d) physical well-being via mentor holding behaviours and protégé personal learning.

Hypothesis 8: There is a serial, indirect effect of supervisor holding behaviours on protégés' (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being,

and (d) physical well-being via mentor holding behaviours and protégé job involvement.

Hypothesis 9: There is a serial, indirect effect of supervisor holding behaviours on protégés' (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being, and (d) physical well-being via mentor holding behaviours, protégé personal learning, and protégé job involvement.

3.4 Moderators of Mentor Holding Behaviours

3.4.1 Moderating Role of LMX

Although I expect supervisor behaviours to have an impact on mentor holding behaviours, I also investigated the conditions that affect the relationship between supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours. Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986) suggests that subordinates observe and imitate their supervisors' behaviours, as supervisors are role models. However, empirical studies have revealed that the learning process is affected by the quality of the supervisor–subordinate relationship (Greenbaum et al., 2018; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Therefore, I propose LMX with supervisors as a moderator of the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours.

According to LMX theory (Dansereau et al., 1975), leaders build a distinct association with each of their followers, and the quality of the leader–follower relationship influences the subordinate's attitudes and behaviours. High-quality

workplace relationships are characterised by mutual trust, mutual respect, mutual support, loyalty, information sharing, career development opportunities, and formal and informal rewards (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Mentors who have high-quality relationships with their supervisors are likely to imitate their holding behaviours, as they may improve their understanding of holding behaviours and regard their supervisors as role models. Moreover, high levels of trust and affective attachment may motivate mentors to pay attention to their supervisors' behaviours and may stimulate the mentors' desire to be similar to their supervisors. Therefore, these mentors are more likely to develop holding behaviours than those with lower levels of trust and affective attachment. Moreover, high-quality relationships often involve frequent interactions, which also increase the likelihood of observing and imitating supervisors' behaviours. Additionally, mentors who experience high levels of identification with their supervisors are more likely than others to be sensitive to their supervisors' behaviours and expectations and to adopt the supervisors' values and beliefs as their own (Kwan, 2014; Wang & Rode, 2010). High-quality relationships between mentors and their supervisors increase their mutual identification, thereby motivating the mentors to acquire and exhibit holding behaviours. Based on the above discussion, I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 10: A mentor's LMX with their supervisor moderates the

relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours, such that a higher level of LMX with the supervisor results in a stronger relationship.

Chapter 4. Methods

The main data for this study were collected via a questionnaire; the respondents were mentors and their protégés from a variety of industries, specifically from finance, information technology, and nonprofit organisations in Shanghai, China. Four waves of data collection were conducted over the span of 4 months to reduce common method bias. Before data collection, all of the respondents were informed of the research objectives and that all of the collected information was to be kept confidential. I targeted 287 mentor–protégé dyads in the questionnaire. As a further incentive for participation, I offered to provide feedback on the study results after the completion of data collection. To improve data quality, I also emphasised the importance of receiving truthful responses from the respondents.

I adopted a four-wave research design with 1-month intervals. This method is more effective than a cross-sectional research design, which cannot yield strong causal attributions (Bono & McNamara, 2011; Mathieu & Taylor, 2006). As common respondents to a questionnaire may produce common method bias from the underlying high correlation of items and systematic error variance (Conway & Lance, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012), I collected data from both mentors and protégés.

All of the questionnaires involved in the current study were implemented using a web-based questionnaire platform, and links to the questionnaires were

sent to the respondents through WeChat, a widely used instant communication tool in China. The questionnaires were coded before being distributed. With the help of the administrative staff, I collected the questionnaire data during work hours. In the first questionnaire (T1), the mentors were asked to provide information regarding their perceptions of supervisor holding behaviours, LMX, demographics (e.g., age, gender, education, and organisational tenure), and control variables (e.g., coworkers' holding behaviours, number of subordinates). A month later, the second questionnaire (T2) was distributed, asking the mentors to report on their own holding behaviours and asking the protégés to report their demographic information (e.g., age, gender, education, and organisational tenure) and control variables (e.g., type of mentorship, number of mentors). A month after this, the third questionnaire (T3) was distributed, asking the protégés to report on their personal learning and job involvement. Finally, 1 month later, the fourth questionnaire was distributed, asking the protégés to report on their job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being.

At T1, I sent questionnaires to 287 mentors and received 271 usable responses, yielding a response rate of 94.42%. At T2, I obtained 257 responses from the 271 mentor–protégé dyads from T1, yielding a response rate of 94.83%. At T3, I obtained 253 usable questionnaires from the 257 protégés who had responded to the questionnaire at T2, giving a response rate of 98.44%. At T4, I

obtained 242 usable questionnaires from the 253 protégés who had responded to the questionnaire at T3, giving a response rate of 95.65%. After matching, the final sample for my study consisted of 242 mentors and their respective protégés.

Table 4-1 presents the sample's demographic information. As shown, of the 242 mentors, 33.06% were women and 66.94% men. In terms of educational background, 1.65% of the respondents had a junior high school diploma or below, 4.55% had a high school diploma, 6.61% had a post-secondary specialised college degree, 71.07% had a bachelor's degree, and 16.12% had a master's degree or above. The average age of the sample was 35.20 years (*SD* = 5.68), and the average tenure was 6.96 years (*SD* = 5.35).

Furthermore, of the 242 protégés, 40.91% were women and 59.09% men. In terms of educational background, 1.24% had a junior high school diploma or below, 2.07% had a high school diploma, 18.18% had a post-secondary specialised college diploma, 64.05% had a bachelor's degree, and 14.46% had a master's degree or above. Their average age was 27.40 years (*SD* = 4.03), and their average tenure was 2.33 years (*SD* = 2.43).

Table 4-1
Summary of samples

Mentor (*N*=242)			Protégés (*N*=242)		
Gender	Male	66.94%	Gender	Male	59.09%
	Female	33.06%		Female	40.91%
Education	Junior high school or below	1.65%	Education	Junior high school or below	1.24%
	High school	4.55%		High school	2.07%
	Post secondary specialized college	6.61%		Post secondary specialized college	18.18%
	Bachelor	71.07%		Bachelor	64.05%
	Master or above	16.12%		Master or above	14.46%
Job position	Non-managerial staff	32.64%	Job position	Non-managerial staff	74.38%
	Junior manager	33.47%		Junior manager	23.14%
	Middle manager	28.51%		Middle manager	2.48%
	Senior manager	5.37%		Senior manager	

All of the key variables except for mentor holding behaviours have previously been examined and investigated in a Chinese context. The measure of mentor holding behaviours was originally developed by Ragins et al. (2017). As holding behaviours have never before been examined in a Chinese setting, a pilot study was conducted to examine its convergent and discriminant validity, as described below.

4.1 Pilot Study

4.1.1 Procedure and Participants

In November 2020, I collected data from an organisation with a mentoring system in eastern China. I obtained complete data from 427 full-time employees.

4.1.2 Measures

Holding Behaviours

I measured holding behaviours with the nine-item holding behaviours index for coworkers developed by Ragins et al. (2017). Sample items are "My coworker gives me a 'safe space' to share my fears and concerns about things that happen at work" and "I can go to my coworker for support when I am faced with upsetting or stressful workplace experiences" (α = .921).

Perceived Organisational Support

I measured perceived organisational support with the eight-item scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (1997). Sample items are "My organisation cares about my opinions" and "My organisation really cares about my well-being" (α = .949).

4.1.3 Results

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the pilot study are presented in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2
The descriptive statistics of the pilot study

Variables	Mean	SD
Holding behaviors	3.620	0.693
Perceived organizational support	3.601	0.753

Note. N=427.

Validity Analyses

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results showed that the two-factor

model, $\chi^2(427, 118) = 567.283$, $\chi^2/df = 4.807$, CFI = .923, TLI = .911, RMSEA = .094, SRMR = .05, had a good fit with the data and fit better than the one-factor model combining holding behaviours and perceived organisational support, $\chi^2(427, 119) = 1{,}501.432$, $\chi^2/df = 12.617$, CFI = .764, TLI = .73, RMSEA = .165, SRMR = .099. The CFA results provided good support for the convergent and discriminant validity of the variables used in this study.

4.2 Main Study

4.2.1 Measures

Back-translation was performed to ensure equivalence between the English scales and the Chinese translations used in the study. The questionnaires were initially developed in English but were administered in Chinese. To meet the equivalence criteria, the translation process followed five key points, namely using simple sentences, avoiding repetition of nouns, avoiding metaphors and colloquialisms, avoiding the passive voice in English, and avoiding hypothetical phrasing and the subjunctive mood (Brislin, 1970, 1986; Werner & Campbell, 1970).

To fully translate the scales from English to Chinese, Brislin (1970) recommended a seven-step procedure, which was followed in this study. First, a translatable form in English was obtained, and translators who were competent and familiar with both languages and the content of the source language material were selected. Next, the translators were given time to practise the translation,

and at least two translators were used for bilingual translation from the source to the target language and from the target to the source language. Afterwards, errors that could lead to differences in meaning (meaning errors) were identified through examination by several raters, and the translation process was repeated as necessary. The target versions were then pretested and revised, and translation adequacy was demonstrated to ensure similar responses from the English version, the Chinese translation, and the bilingual version. The final step involved obtaining equivalence according to the criteria and the verdict to minimise the meaning error standard and conducting a simple pretest.

I used English scales as the basis for my study; however, I translated them into Chinese using the seven-step back-translation process. To ensure accuracy, I then asked a PhD candidate and a professor to back-translate the Chinese scales into English. The response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) for all of the questionnaire items, with the exception of those regarding the demographic variables. All of the items are included in the appendix and are described below.

The measures used in the pilot study were also used in the main study. The mentors were asked to report on their supervisors' holding behaviours (Cronbach's alpha = .96) at T1 and their own holding behaviours (Cronbach's alpha = .90) at T2.

Job Involvement

Job involvement was reported by the protégés at T3. The five-item scale of job involvement was developed by Frone et al. (1995) and subsequently translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Liu & Fu, 2011). Sample items are "Most of my interests are centred around my job" and "I am very much personally involved with my job." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .90.

Personal Learning

Personal learning was reported by the protégés at T3, using a 12-item scale developed by Lankau and Scandura (2002) and subsequently translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Liu et al., 2009; Liu & Fu, 2011). Sample items are "I have gained insight into how another department functions" and "I have increased my knowledge about the organisation as a whole." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .92.

Job Performance

Job performance was reported by the protégés at T4, using a nine-item role-based performance scale developed by Griffin et al. (2007). This scale has been translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Li et al., 2012). Three dimensions were evaluated: task proficiency (e.g., "carried out the core parts of my job well"), task adaptability ("learnt new skills to help me adapt to changes in my core tasks"), and task proactivity ("came up with ideas to improve the way in which my core tasks are done"). The reliability of these dimensions was

high (Cronbach's alpha values were .88, .85, and .84, respectively). Following other studies (Li et al., 2012; Salanova et al., 2005; Zacher et al., 2010), I computed an overall job performance score for each protégé as an average of the three dimensions.

OCB

OCB was reported by the protégés at T4, using a 16-item scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002) and subsequently translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Chan et al., 2013). Sample items are "helped others who had been absent" and "willingly gave my time to help others who had work-related problems." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .95.

Subjective Well-Being

Following Weinstein and Ryan (2010), I measured the protégés' subjective well-being (SWB) based on measures of their positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction reported at T4 (Argyle & Crossland, 1987; Diener, 2000; Diener et al., 1999). Positive and negative affect were measured using the nine-item Emmons Mood Indicator (Diener & Emmons, 1984). The positive affect (PA) items measured joyfulness, happiness, feeling pleased, and enjoyment/fun (Cronbach's alpha = .94). The negative affect (NA) items measured worry/anxiety, depression, frustration, anger/hostility, and unhappiness (Cronbach's alpha = .93). I also assessed life satisfaction using Diener et al.'s (1985) five-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (Cronbach's alpha = .87).

Consistent with Weinstein and Ryan (2010), I standardised each scale and calculated a composite SWB index using the following formula: SWB = PA – NA + life satisfaction.

Physical Well-Being

Physical well-being was reported by the protégés at T4 using Goldberg's (1978) 12-item General Health Questionnaire, which has been translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Liang et al., 2016). Sample items are "able to concentrate" and "did not feel constantly under strain." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .94.

LMX

LMX was reported by the mentors at T1, using a seven-item scale developed by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and subsequently translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Lin et al., 2018). Sample items are "It is very likely that my direct supervisor would use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work" and "I have enough confidence in my direct supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so." Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .91.

Control Variables

Following previous mentorship studies (Hu et al., 2022; Lapierre et al., 2018; Ramaswami et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2019; Yi et al., 2017), I controlled for four demographic variables and two contextual variables concerning mentors

that may affect the key relationships in my model, namely mentors' gender, age, education, and tenure; mentors' managerial level; and the number of protégés each mentor had. Gender has been shown to be related to clear and distinct gender roles and mentorship expectations (Ramaswami et al., 2014). Age, education, and tenure have been found to be related to mentorship experience and effectiveness (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Williams et al., 2009). Gender was a dummy variable, coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. Age was self-reported in years. The five categories of education level were (1) junior high school or below, (2) high school, (3) post-secondary specialised college degree, (4) bachelor's degree, and (5) master's degree or above. I measured a mentor's tenure as the number of years the mentor had been in their present firm.

The contextual control variables were the mentors' managerial level and the number of protégés they each mentored. Following Cao and Hamori (2020), managerial level in the organisational hierarchy was coded 1 for nonmanagerial staff, 2 for junior manager, 3 for middle manager, and 4 for senior manager. I controlled for the mentors' managerial level because with higher-level positions, mentors can have timely access to information, resources, and support, which are related to mentorship effectiveness and protégé performance (Seibert et al., 2017; Tonidandel et al., 2007). Considering that some of the mentors in my sample had more than one protégé, I also controlled for the number of protégés for each mentor to exclude the possible influence of this factor.

Moreover, I measured the holding behaviours of mentors' coworkers and power distance and controlled both in my analyses. The holding behaviours of mentors' coworkers were reported by the mentors at T1, using the same measures as in the pilot study. Cronbach's alpha for this variable was .95. The mentors' power distance was reported by the mentors at T1, using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) six-item scale, which has been translated into Chinese and applied by Chinese scholars (Farh et al., 2007). Sample items are "Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates" and "It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates." Cronbach's alpha for this variable was .90. Ramaswami et al. (2014) argued that power distance can affect mentor–protégé interactions and outcomes, as it defines the nature of relationships and authority structures in Chinese cultures.

The protégés' demographic and contextual control variables were also considered. I controlled for four demographic variables concerning the protégés: gender, age, education, and tenure. The protégés' managerial level and the number of mentors each had were also controlled as contextual variables. These protégés' demographic and contextual variables were assessed using the same method as used for their mentors. Following past research (e.g., Allen et al., 2006; Ragins et al., 2000; Scandura & Williams, 2001; Wu et al., 2019), I also controlled whether a protégé's mentor was also the protégé's supervisor (*same*

person = 1; *different person* = 2) and whether the mentor and the protégé belonged to the same department (*same department* = 1; *different department* = 2). Moreover, the difference in rank between a mentor and their protégé was controlled.

Research has suggested that mentorship characteristics, such as mentorship duration, frequency of mentor–protégé interactions, and type of mentorship, may affect mentorship dynamics and protégé outcomes (e.g., Allen & Eby, 2003; Burke et al., 1993; Noe, 1988; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). For example, Tonidandel et al. (2007) found that mentorship duration influenced the effect of mentor functions on the protégé's success because a longer mentorship allowed for maturation and facilitated the protégé's positive outcomes. Allen and Eby (2003) indicated that mentor–protégé interaction frequency and type of mentorship are related to mentorship quality and protégé learning. In the present study, mentorship duration was measured in years. Frequency of mentor–protégé interactions was measured by the number of meetings they held per month. Following Allen and Eby (2003), type of mentorship was coded 1 for informal (i.e., based on mutual attraction or spontaneously developed) and 2 for formal (i.e., assigned by someone else in the organisation). Finally, as I collected data from various industries, the industry was also controlled for in the current study.

4.2.2 Data Analyses

Considering the potential attrition effects caused by the four-wave survey, I followed Goodman and Blum's (1996) approach to identify any systematic response differences. Additionally, I tested the key variables' reliability with SPSS software and tested their convergent and discriminant validity with Mplus software. To test the hypotheses, I followed Iacobucci's (2012) suggestions and conducted structural equation modelling with Mplus.

Chapter 5. Results

5.1 CFA

To assess the distinctiveness of the variables, a CFA was conducted, using Mplus 8.3. Given the small sample size, the common method of parcelling indicators was applied to reduce the number of items (Little et al., 2002). CFA is a theory-driven statistical analysis technique and constitutes half of the rationale for analysing covariance structures in a structural equation model, the other half being the analysis of structural models (Schreiber et al., 2006). CFA aims to minimise the difference between observed and unobserved variables and to ensure that factor loadings and error variance estimates are accurately calculated for reliability assessment (Knowlton, 1998).

To account for the small sample size, I applied the parcelling technique. Specifically, based on the exploratory factor analysis results, I combined the highest factor loading items with the lowest by averaging them until I obtained three to five aggregate items for each form. As described by Little et al. (2002), parcelling is an aggregate-level indicator comprising the sum or average of two or more items, responses, or behaviours. It is used in multivariate methods to measure psychometrics, particularly in latent variable analysis techniques. Given the relatively small sample size of the present study, I used parcelling to define a construct with fewer parameters and to improve the overall model fit.

It is important to note that item-level and parcelled data differ. Parcelled data have several advantages over item-level data. First, they have fewer

estimated parameters—both locally, in defining a variable, and globally, in representing a whole model. Second, with parcelled data, residuals are less likely to be correlated, or dual loadings to emerge, as fewer indicators are examined and unique variances are relatively minor. Third, using parcelled data reduces sampling error (Maccallum et al., 2001).

Parcelling is an effective technique for reducing the number of indicators to yield an optimal, just-identified model. Parcels can be built using four techniques: random assignment, item-to-construct balance, *a priori* questionnaire construction, and approaches to multidimensionality. In this study, the multidimensional nature of the constructs was explicitly retained, and the relations among the items were fully identified by parcelling using both item-to-construct balance and approaches to multidimensionality. An item-to-construct balance combines the highest and lowest loaded items, followed by the next highest with the next lowest, and so on, to achieve a reasonable balance. Approaches to multidimensionality are based on internal consistency, where the first parcel reflects one dimension of the construct, the second reflects another, and so on. In the present study, for example, the job performance construct had three dimensions, the first parcel reflecting task proficiency, the second reflecting task adaptability, and the third reflecting task proactivity. Similarly, subjective well-being was parcelled with this method to maintain its multidimensional nature.

As shown in Table 5-1, the proposed nine-factor (i.e., the mentor's

supervisor's holding behaviours; the mentor's holding behaviours; the protégé's personal learning, job involvement, job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being; and the mentor's LMX) model provided a better fit for this study (χ^2 = 556.077, *df* = 398, CFI = .972, TLI = .967, RMSEA = .041, and SRMR = .038) than alternative models. As shown in Table 5-1, the chi-square statistic (χ^2) of the nine-factor model indicated an "exact fit" (Kline, 2011, p. 1991); each model had between 398 and 434 degrees of freedom (*df*) and achieved a good fit, as evidenced by CFI and TLI values exceeding .95, RMSEA values below .08, and SRMR values below .05. Convergent validity and discriminant validity were used to assess the relationships between the constructs. Convergent validity means that the intercorrelations of variables measuring the same construct are at least moderately strong (Kline, 2011), while discriminant validity means that the intercorrelations of variables measuring different constructs are not too high (Kline, 2011). These two validation methods were applied to examine the nine constructs, with a multitrait–multimethod matrix and a structural equation model being useful methods. I found significant factor loadings, which supported convergent validity. Additionally, the proposed model was compared with alternative models to assess discriminant validity. The hypothesised nine-factor model was significantly better than the nine alternative models (see Table 5-1), providing support for the discriminant validity of the key variables.

Table 5-1
Comparison of measurement models

Model	$\chi 2$	*df*	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Baseline model (9 factors): X, M1, M2, M3, Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, W	556.077***	398	0.041	0.972	0.967	0.038
Alternative model 1 (8 factors): X, M1, M2+M3, Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, W	635.608***	406	0.048	0.959	0.953	0.041
Alternative model 2 (8 factors): X+M1, M2, M3, Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, W	991.47***	406	0.077	0.895	0.879	0.073
Alternative model 3 (7 factors): X+M1+W, M2, M3, Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4	1493.54***	413	0.104	0.806	0.781	0.07
Alternative model 5 (7 factors): X+M1, M2+M3, Y1, Y2, Y3, Y4, W	1069.807***	413	0.081	0.882	0.867	0.074
Alternative model 4 (6 factors): X, M1, M2, M3, Y1+Y2+Y3+Y4, W	907.002***	419	0.069	0.912	0.903	0.055
Alternative model 6 (4 factors): X+M1, M2+M3, Y1+Y2+Y3+Y4, W	1415.362***	428	0.098	0.822	0.807	0.084
Alternative model 7 (3 factors): X+M1+W, M2+M3, Y1+Y2+Y3+Y4	1913.77***	431	0.119	0.733	0.712	0.081
Alternative model 8 (2 factors): X+M1+W, M2+M3+Y1+Y2+Y3+Y4	2693.804***	433	0.147	0.593	0.563	0.12
Alternative model 9 (1 factors): X+M1+M2+M3+Y1+Y2+Y3+Y4+W	4183.602***	434	0.189	0.326	0.277	0.213

Note: $N = 242$. ***$p < 0.001$(two-tailed); X = Mentor's supervisor holding behaviors, M1 = Mentor's holding behaviors, M2 = Personal learning, M3 = Job involvement, Y1 = Job performance, Y2 = Organizational citizenship behavior, Y3 = Subjective Well-being, Y4 = Physical Well-being, W= Mentor's LMX; RMSEA root mean square error of approximation, CFI Comparative Fit Index, TLI Tucker–Lewis Index, SRMR standardized root mean squared residual

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 5-2 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables. The correlation coefficient between mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and their own holding behaviours ($r = .24$, $p < .01$), the correlation between mentor holding behaviours and protégé personal learning ($r = .18$, $p < .01$), and the correlation between mentor holding behaviours and protégé job involvement ($r = .14$, $p < .05$) were all significant and positive. In addition, protégé personal learning was positively correlated with their job performance ($r = .26$, $p < .01$), OCB ($r = .36$, $p < .01$), subjective well-being ($r = .29$, $p < .01$), and physical well-being ($r = .30$, $p < .01$), and protégé job involvement was also positively correlated with their job performance ($r = .34$, $p < .01$), OCB ($r = .48$, $p < .01$), subjective well-being ($r = .33$, $p < .01$), and physical well-being ($r = .31$, $p < .01$). These results provided preliminary support for the hypotheses.

Table 5-2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1.Mentor's gender	1.33	.47	—														
2.Mentor's age	35.20	5.69	-.14*	—													
3.Mentor's education	3.95	.75	.01	-.13	—												
4.Mentor's tenure	6.96	5.35	-.14*	.60**	-.08	—											
5.Mentor's protégé number	3.17	4.12	.03	.06	.01	.19**	—										
6.Mentor's managerial level	2.07	.91	-.06	.28**	.04	.24**	.20**	—									
7.Protégé's gender	1.41	.49	.38**	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.01	.00	—								
8.Protégé's age	27.40	4.03	-.06	.10	.07	-.03	-.04	.15*	.00	—							
9.Protégé's education	3.88	.71	.02	.05	.40**	-.02	-.03	-.03	.06	.07	—						
10.Protégé's tenure	2.33	2.43	-.10	.18**	.05	.21**	.12	.26**	-.12	.48**	-.11	—					
11.Protégé's managerial level	1.28	.50	.20**	.05	-.03	-.06	.01	.23**	.05	.35**	.03	.34**	—				
12.Industry	6.37	4.24	.15*	-.10	.13*	-.20**	.01	.16*	.14*	.05	-.01	-.05	.11	—			
13.Protégé's mentor number	1.40	.83	-.05	-.10	.08	.02	.04	.01	.03	-.09	-.01	.00	.05	.07	—		
14.Mentorship duration	1.47	1.53	-.04	.04	.09	.17**	.21**	.15*	.02	.15*	-.09	.46**	.11	-.06	-.03	—	
15.Frequency of interaction	12.49	9.84	.03	.12	-.12	.10	-.12	-.15*	.01	-.05	.01	-.09	-.25**	-.16*	-.03	-.12	—

16.Rank difference	1.90	1.30	-.04	.09	.09	.16*	.10	.29**	.05	.05	.01	.14*	.06	.17**	-.03	.13*	-.19**
17.Type of mentorship	1.76	.43	-.07	.05	-.12	-.06	.03	-.09	-.06	-.08	-.13*	-.04	.07	-.06	-.11	-.15*	.06
18.Same department	1.08	.27	.09	-.02	.00	.05	-.01	.18**	.04	.05	-.15*	.20**	.17**	.09	.21**	.26**	-.10
19.Whether mentor is supervisor	1.32	.47	.09	-.07	.03	.00	-.11	-.28**	.03	-.11	-.09	-.07	-.19**	.01	.03	-.02	.04
20.Mentor's coworker holding behaviors	3.94	.69	.01	-.05	.02	.01	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.01	-.09	-.02	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.05	.09
21.Mentor’s power distance	2.13	.84	-.01	-.01	.05	-.01	.09	-.02	.00	.10	-.07	-.03	.07	.00	-.04	.04	-.04
22.Mentor's supervisor holding behaviors	4.24	.74	-.13*	-.07	.05	.01	.01	.01	-.04	.02	.05	.00	.00	.01	-.08	-.04	.04
23.Mentor's holding behaviors	4.31	.50	.08	-.07	-.01	.02	.09	-.02	-.02	-.07	-.02	.02	-.03	-.03	.08	-.02	.10
24.Personal learning	4.05	.51	-.06	.08	.00	.02	.04	.14*	-.20**	.05	-.16*	.15*	.06	-.01	-.05	.04	.00
25.Job involvement	4.07	.62	-.08	-.01	.04	-.08	.05	.05	-.14*	.17**	-.12	.13*	-.05	.08	-.06	-.03	-.01
26.Job performance	3.96	.59	-.08	.02	-.08	-.12	-.03	-.06	-.13*	.18**	-.06	-.03	-.02	.13*	-.01	-.16*	.00
27.Organizational citizenship behavior	3.77	.70	-.08	.04	-.05	-.02	-.01	-.03	-.09	.16*	-.09	.06	-.06	.12	-.02	-.05	-.05
28.Subjective Well-being	.00	1.88	-.08	.02	-.12	-.14*	-.08	-.05	-.08	.01	-.05	-.19**	-.17**	.18**	-.12	-.23**	-.02
29.Physical Well-being	3.83	.66	-.09	.06	-.03	-.08	-.01	-.02	-.14*	.08	-.06	-.09	-.15*	.14*	.00	-.17**	-.02
30.Mentor's LMX	4.15	.61	-.08	-.01	.05	.09	.06	.05	-.02	.06	-.05	.05	.00	-.03	.05	-.02	.03

Note: N=242. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

5.3 Hypothesis Testing

I tested my conceptual model using path analysis in Mplus Version 8.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998–2015). Hypothesis 1 predicts that mentors' supervisor behaviours are positively related to their own holding behaviours. As shown in Table 5-3, mentors' supervisor holding behaviours had a significant positive effect on their own holding behaviours (β = .18, *SE* = .07, $p < .01$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé personal learning. As shown in Table 5-3, mentor holding behaviours had a significant positive effect on protégé personal learning (β = .17, *SE* = .07, $p < .01$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicts that mentor holding behaviours are positively related to protégé job involvement. As shown in Table 5-4, mentor holding behaviours had a significant positive effect on protégé job involvement (β = .14, *SE* = .06, $p < .01$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 predicts that protégé personal learning is positively related to their job involvement. As shown in Table 5-5, protégé personal learning had a significant positive effect on their job involvement (β = .66, *SE* = .04, $p < .001$), thereby supporting Hypothesis 4. To check whether personal learning is linked to job involvement, I also conducted model comparison to compare the proposed model with the alternative model by removing the link between

personal learning and job involvement. I found that the proposed model (χ^2 = 110.801, CFI = .939, TLI = .814, RMSEA = .057, SRMR = .029) had a better fit than the alternative model (χ^2 = 182.420, CFI = .821, TLI = .156, RMSEA = .121, SRMR = .059), which further supported Hypothesis 4.

Hypotheses 5(a)–(d) predict protégé personal learning to be positively related to their job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being, respectively. Table 5-3 indicates that protégé personal learning had a significant positive effect on their job performance (β = .27, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$), OCB (β = .35, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$), subjective well-being (β = .33, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$), and physical well-being (β = .32, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypotheses 5(a)–(d) were supported.

Hypotheses 6(a)–(d) predict that protégé job involvement is positively related to their job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being, respectively. Table 5-4 indicates that protégé job involvement had a significant positive effect on their job performance (β = .28, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$), OCB (β = .44, *SE* = .07, $p < .001$), subjective well-being (β = .29, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$), and physical well-being (β = .26, *SE* = .06, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypotheses 6(a)–(d) were supported.

To examine serial mediation (Hypotheses 7(a)–7(d), Hypotheses 8(a)–8(d), Hypotheses 9(a)–9(d)), I used a Monte Carlo bootstrap simulation with 5,000 replications to create bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (CIs) around the indirect effects. Consistent with guidelines (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008), I

modelled the direct effects of mentors' supervisor holding behaviours on each of the outcome variables when testing mediation.

Hypotheses 7(a)–(d) theorise that mentors' supervisor holding behaviours have serial, indirect effects on their protégés' job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being, respectively, via mentor holding behaviours and protégé personal learning. The bootstrap results supported these hypotheses; mentors' supervisor holding behaviours had a positive indirect effect on protégé job performance (estimate = .007), 95% CI [0.001, 0.021], OCB (estimate = .001), 95% CI [0.002, 0.030], subjective well-being (estimate = .026), 95% CI [0.004, 0.077], and physical well-being (estimate = .009), 95% CI [0.001, 0.027], via mentor holding behaviours and protégé personal learning.

Hypotheses 8(a)–(d) theorise that mentors' supervisor holding behaviours have serial, indirect effects on protégé job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being via mentor holding behaviours and protégé job involvement. The bootstrap results supported these hypotheses. Specifically, mentors' supervisor holding behaviours had a positive indirect effect on protégé job performance (estimate = .006), 95% CI [0.001, 0.017], OCB (estimate = .011), 95% CI [0.002, 0.029], subjective well-being (estimate = .019), 95% CI [0.003, 0.056], and physical well-being (estimate = .006), 95% CI [0.001, 0.018], via mentor holding behaviours and protégé personal learning.

Hypotheses 9(a)–(d) theorise that mentors' supervisor holding behaviours have serial, indirect effects on protégé job performance, OCB, subjective well-

being, and physical well-being, respectively, via mentor holding behaviours, protégé personal learning, and protégé job involvement. The bootstrap results supported these hypotheses. Specifically, mentors' supervisor holding behaviours had a positive indirect effect on protégé job performance (estimate = .003), 95% CI [0.000, 0.010], OCB (estimate = .007), 95% CI [0.001, 0.024], subjective well-being (estimate = .007), 95% CI [0.001, 0.033], and physical well-being (estimate = .002), 95% CI [0.000, 0.009], via mentor holding behaviours, protégé personal learning, and protégé job involvement.

To further examine the relationships between mentors' holding behaviours and the four outcome variables, I ran additional analyses to empirically test the direct effects of mentor holding behaviours on protégé job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being. Table 5-6 indicates that mentor holding behaviours had a significant positive effect on protégé OCB ($\beta = .17$, $SE = .08$, $p < .05$) but not on their job performance ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .08$, *n.s.*), subjective well-being ($\beta = .33$, $SE = .24$, *n.s.*), or physical well-being ($\beta = .03$, $SE = .08$, *n.s.*). Further research is needed to explore possible alternative mediating mechanisms for the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and OCB.

Table 5-3

Simultaneous Path Analysis Results (|)

	M1: Mentor' HB (T2)		M1: Mentor' HB (T2)		M2: Protégé Personal Learning (T3)		Y1: Protégé Job Performance (T4)		Y2: Protégé OCB (T4)		Y3: Protégé Subjective Well-being (T4)		Y4: Protégé Physical Well-being (T4)	
Predictor	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
1.Mentor's gender	.14	.08	.16	.09	.02	.08	-.03	.08	-.03	.09	-.06	.06	-.02	.07
2.Mentor's age	-.07	.08	-.01	.01	.14	.08	.09	.09	.06	.08	.10	.08	.14	.09
3.Mentor's education	-.03	.07	-.03	.05	.06	.07	-.10	.07	-.07	.06	-.14*	.07	-.07	.06
4.Mentor's tenure	.03	.08	.00	.01	-.13	.09	-.10	.08	.01	.08	-.10	.09	-.10	.09
5.Mentor's protégé number	.08	.06	.01	.01	.01	.07	.03	.08	.00	.08	-.02	.05	.04	.06
6.Mentor's managerial level	-.02	.08	-.02	.04	.07	.08	-.12	.07	-.12	.08	-.06	.07	-.05	.07
7.Protégé's gender	-.05	.08	-.06	.08	-.17**	.07	-.10	.07	-.02	.08	-.03	.06	-.09	.06
8.Protégé's age	-.05	.09	-.01	.01	-.02	.08	.27***	.07	.22***	.07	.14	.08	.20**	.07
9.Protégé's education	.02	.07	.03	.05	-.19*	.08	-.01	.08	-.02	.07	.02	.08	.01	.07
10.Protégé's tenure	.08	.09	.01	.02	.08	.08	-.10	.07	-.01	.08	-.15	.08	-.10	.08
11.Protégé's managerial level	-.04	.07	-.04	.07	.03	.08	-.11	.09	-.17	.11	-.22***	.07	-.24***	.07
12.Industry	-.03	.07	.00	.01	-.04	.07	.16**	.07	.16*	.07	.22***	.06	.16**	.07
13.Protégé's mentor number	.10	.07	.06	.04	-.05	.07	.03	.05	.01	.06	-.09*	.05	.03	.06

14.Mentorship duration	-.02	.08	.00	.03	-.04	.07	-.11	.07	-.07	.06	-.13	.08	-.12	.07
15.Frequency of interaction	.07	.06	.00	.00	.03	.07	-.05	.07	-.10	.07	-.11	.06	-.10	.07
16.Rank difference	.04	.07	.01	.02	.10	.07	-.07	.07	-.06	.06	-.08	.07	-.06	.07
17.Type of mentorship	.07	.07	.11	.08	-.05	.07	.02	.06	-.02	.07	-.01	.06	-.01	.06
18.Same deportment	.01	.08	.00	.15	.03	.08	.03	.07	.07	.07	.03	.07	.06	.07
19.Whether mentor is supervisor	-.05	.07	-.07	.08	-.01	.08	-.08	.07	-.07	.07	-.09	.07	-.05	.07
20.Mentor's coworker HB	.18*	.07	.03	.06	-.08	.07	.04	.07	.01	.07	.04	.06	.15*	.06
21.Mentor’s power distance	-.08	.06	-.05	.04	.01	.07	-.03	.06	.04	.06	-.03	.06	.01	.06
22.Mentor's supervisor HB	.18**	.07	-.46	.24	.14*	.06	.02	.07	.02	.08	-.06	.06	-.05	.06
23.Mentor's HB					.17**	.07	-.02	.07	.05	.06	.03	.07	-.03	.07
24.Personal learning							.27***	.06	.35***	.06	.33***	.06	.32***	.06
25. Mentor's LMX			-.20	.21										
26. Mentor's supervisor HB*Mentor's LMX			.12*	.06										
R^2	.15		.21		.16		.22		.23		.30		.25	

Note: N=242. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001; HB= Holding behaviors; LMX= Leader-member exchange; T1 = time 1 survey; T2 = time 2 survey; T3 = time 3 survey; T4 = time 4 survey; Mentor's supervisor HB and Mentor's LMX were grand-mean centered prior to the creation of the interaction term; the β and R^2 values were obtained using the STDYX command in Mplus.

Table 5-4

Simultaneous Path Analysis Results (||)

	M1: Mentor' HB (T2)		M3: Protégé Job involvement (T3)		Y1: Protégé Job Performance (T4)		Y2: Protégé OCB (T4)		Y3: Protégé Subjective Well-being (T4)		Y4: Protégé Physical Well-being (T4)	
Predictor	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
1.Mentor's gender	.14	.08	-.02	.09	-.02	.07	-.02	.08	-.05	.06	-.01	.07
2.Mentor's age	-.07	.08	.06	.08	.11	.09	.08	.08	.12	.08	.17*	.09
3.Mentor's education	-.03	.07	.07	.08	-.11	.07	-.09	.06	-.14*	.07	-.07	.07
4.Mentor's tenure	.03	.08	-.14	.09	-.09	.08	.03	.08	-.10	.09	-.11	.09
5.Mentor's protégé number	.08	.06	.07	.06	.02	.07	-.03	.08	-.04	.05	.02	.06
6.Mentor's managerial level	-.02	.08	.02	.07	-.10	.07	-.11	.07	-.04	.07	-.04	.07
7.Protégé's gender	-.05	.08	-.11	.07	-.11	.07	-.03	.07	-.06	.06	-.12	.06
8.Protégé's age	-.05	.09	.18**	.07	.22***	.07	.13	.07	.08	.08	.15	.08
9.Protégé's education	.02	.07	-.16*	.07	-.01	.08	-.02	.07	.01	.08	.00	.08
10.Protégé's tenure	.08	.09	.10	.08	-.10	.08	-.02	.08	-.15	.08	-.10	.08
11.Protégé's managerial level	-.04	.07	-.14	.13	-.07	.09	-.10	.09	-.17*	.08	-.20**	.08
12.Industry	-.03	.07	.07	.07	.13*	.07	.12	.07	.19***	.06	.13*	.07
13.Protégé's mentor number	.10	.07	-.05	.08	.03	.05	.01	.06	-.10*	.05	.03	.07
14.Mentorship duration	-.02	.08	-.10	.07	-.09	.07	-.04	.07	-.12	.08	-.11	.07

15.Frequency of interaction	.07	.06	-.01	.07	-.03	.07	-.09	.07	-.10	.06	-.09	.07
16.Rank difference	.04	.07	.02	.07	-.05	.07	-.04	.06	-.06	.07	-.04	.07
17.Type of mentorship	.07	.07	-.01	.08	.01	.07	-.03	.07	-.03	.06	-.03	.07
18.Same deportment	.01	.08	.00	.08	.04	.07	.08	.07	.04	.07	.07	.07
19.Whether mentor is supervisor	-.05	.07	.00	.07	-.08	.07	-.08	.07	-.09	.07	-.05	.07
20.Mentor's coworker HB	.18*	.07	-.08	.08	.04	.07	.02	.07	.04	.06	.15*	.06
21.Mentor's power distance	-.08	.06	-.04	.07	-.01	.06	.06	.06	-.02	.07	.03	.06
22.Mentor's supervisor HB	.18**	.07	.10	.08	.03	.06	.03	.07	-.04	.06	-.03	.07
23.Mentor's HB			.14**	.06	-.01	.06	.05	.06	.05	.06	-.02	.06
24.Job involvement					.28***	.06	.44***	.07	.29***	.06	.26***	.06
R^2	.15		.15		.23		.28		.29		.23	

Note: N=242. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001; HB= Holding behaviors; T1 = time 1 survey; T2 = time 2 survey; T3 = time 3 survey; T4 = time 4 survey; The β and R^2 values were obtained using the STDYX command in Mplus.

Table 5-5

Simultaneous Path Analysis Results (|||)

	M1: Mentor' HB (T2)		M2: Protégé Personal Learning (T3)		M3: Protégé Job involvement (T3)		Y1: Protégé Job Performance (T4)		Y2: Protégé OCB (T4)		Y3: Protégé Subjective Well-being (T4)		Y4: Protégé Physical Well-being (T4)	
Predictor	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
1.Mentor's gender	.14	.08	.02	.08	-.03	.06	-.02	.08	-.02	.08	-.06	.06	-.02	.07
2.Mentor's age	-.07	.08	.14	.08	-.03	.06	.10	.09	.07	.08	.10	.08	.14	.09
3.Mentor's education	-.03	.07	.06	.07	.04	.07	-.11	.07	-.09	.06	-.14*	.07	-.07	.07
4.Mentor's tenure	.03	.08	-.13	.09	-.06	.07	-.09	.08	.03	.08	-.10	.09	-.10	.09
5.Mentor's protégé number	.08	.06	.01	.07	.06	.05	.02	.07	-.03	.08	-.03	.05	.03	.06
6.Mentor's managerial level	-.02	.08	.07	.08	-.03	.06	-.11	.07	-.11	.07	-.06	.07	-.05	.07
7.Protégé's gender	-.05	.08	-.17**	.07	.01	.06	-.10	.07	-.02	.07	-.03	.06	-.09	.06
8.Protégé's age	-.05	.09	-.02	.08	.19***	.05	.24***	.07	.15*	.07	.11	.08	.18*	.08
9.Protégé's education	.02	.07	-.19*	.08	-.04	.06	.00	.08	-.01	.07	.03	.08	.02	.08
10.Protégé's tenure	.08	.09	.08	.08	.05	.06	-.11	.08	-.03	.08	-.15*	.08	-.11	.08
11.Protégé's managerial level	-.04	.07	.03	.08	-.16	.10	-.08	.09	-.12	.09	-.20**	.07	-.23***	.07
12.Industry	-.03	.07	-.04	.07	.09	.05	.14*	.07	.12	.07	.21***	.06	.15*	.07
13.Protégé's mentor number	.10	.07	-.05	.07	-.02	.07	.04	.05	.01	.06	-.09*	.05	.04	.06

14.Mentorship duration	-.02	.08	-.04	.07	-.08	.06	-.09	.07	-.04	.06	-.12	.08	-.11	.07
15.Frequency of interaction	.07	.06	.03	.07	-.03	.05	-.04	.07	-.09	.07	-.11	.06	-.10	.07
16.Rank difference	.04	.07	.10	.07	-.04	.05	-.06	.07	-.05	.06	-.08	.07	-.06	.07
17.Type of mentorship	.07	.07	-.05	.07	.02	.06	.02	.07	-.03	.07	-.02	.06	-.02	.06
18.Same deportment	.01	.08	.03	.08	-.02	.07	.03	.07	.08	.07	.03	.07	.07	.07
19.Whether mentor is supervisor	-.05	.07	-.01	.08	.00	.05	-.08	.07	-.07	.06	-.09	.07	-.05	.07
20.Mentor's coworker HB	.18*	.07	-.08	.07	-.03	.06	.04	.07	.02	.07	.04	.06	.15**	.06
21.Mentor’s power distance	-.08	.06	.01	.07	-.05	.05	-.02	.06	.06	.06	-.02	.06	.02	.06
22.Mentor's supervisor HB	.18**	.07	.14*	.06	.00	.07	.02	.07	.02	.07	-.06	.06	-.05	.06
23.Mentor's HB			.17**	.07	.03	.05	-.03	.07	.04	.06	.03	.07	-.04	.07
24.Personal learning					.66***	.04	.14	.08	.11	.08	.23**	.08	.26***	.08
25.Job involvement							.19*	.08	.37***	.09	.14	.08	.10	.08
R^2	.15		.16		.51		.23		.29		.31		.26	

Note: N=242. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001; HB= Holding behaviors; T1 = time 1 survey; T2 = time 2 survey; T3 = time 3 survey; T4 = time 4 survey; The β and R^2 values were obtained using the STDYX command in Mplus.

Table 5-6
Simultaneous Path Analysis Results (IV)

	Y1: Protégé Job Performance (T4)		Y2: Protégé OCB (T4)		Y3: Protégé Subjective Well-being (T4)		Y4: Protégé Physical Well-being (T4)	
Predictor	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*	*β*	*SE*
1.Mentor's gender	-.04	.09	-.06	.13	-.22	.26	-.02	.10
2.Mentor's age	.01	.01	.01	.01	.05	.03	.02*	.01
3.Mentor's education	-.07	.06	-.05	.06	-.29	.17	-.04	.06
4.Mentor's tenure	-.01	.01	.00	.01	-.05	.03	-.02	.01
5.Mentor's protégé number	.01	.01	.00	.01	-.01	.03	.01	.01
6.Mentor's managerial level	-.06	.05	-.08	.06	-.08	.16	-.02	.05
7.Protégé's gender	-.17*	.08	-.10	.11	-.34	.24	-.20*	.09
8.Protégé's age	.04	.01	.04**	.01	.06	.04	.03*	.01
9.Protégé's education	-.05	.07	-.08	.08	-.10	.20	-.04	.07
10.Protégé's tenure	-.02	.02	.01	.03	-.09	.07	-.02	.02
11.Protégé's managerial level	-.12	.10	-.22	.16	-.79**	.27	-.31***	.09
12.Industry	.02*	.01	.02*	.01	.09***	.03	.02*	.01
13.Protégé's mentor number	.01	.04	-.02	.05	-.24*	.12	.02	.05
14.Mentorship duration	-.05*	.03	-.04	.03	-.18	.10	-.06	.03
15.Frequency of interaction	.00	.00	-.01	.01	-.02	.01	-.01	.00

16.Rank difference	-.02	.03	-.01	.03	-.07	.11	-.02	.04
17.Type of mentorship	.01	.09	-.06	.13	-.13	.28	-.05	.10
18.Same deportment	.09	.16	.24	.20	.25	.50	.17	.17
19.Whether mentor is supervisor	-.10	.10	-.11	.11	-.37	.32	-.07	.11
20.Mentor's coworker HB	.03	.05	.01	.07	.03	.17	.12*	.06
21.Mentor's power distance	-.02	.04	.04	.06	-.06	.15	.01	.05
22.Mentor's HB	.04	.08	.17*	.08	.33	.24	.03	.08
R^2	.16		.12		.21		.17	

Note: N=242. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001; HB= Holding behaviors; T1 = time 1 survey; T2 = time 2 survey; T3 = time 3 survey; T4 = time 4 survey; The β and R^2 values were obtained using the STDYX command in Mplus.

Hypothesis 10 was tested through moderation. According to Edwards and Lambert (2007), moderation occurs when the effect of an independent variable on a dependent variable varies depending on the level of a third variable, known as a moderator variable, that interacts with the independent variable. The application of a moderator to various degrees results in changes to the main effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, namely either strengthening or weakening the relationship according to the moderator's levels (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

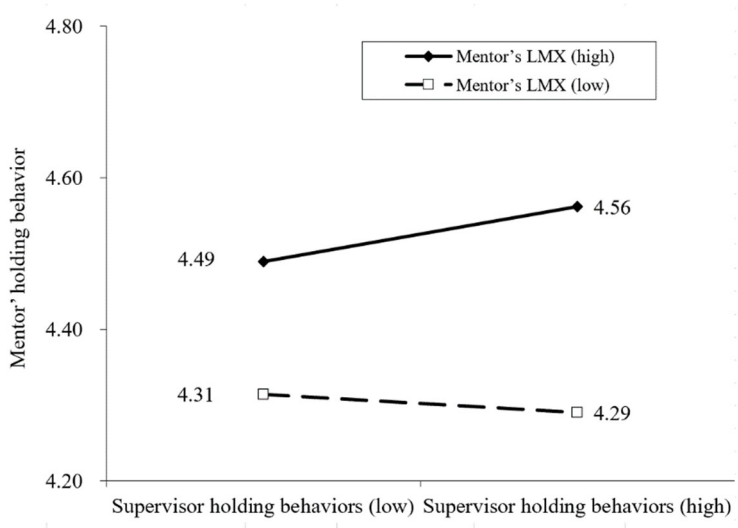
In this study, the moderator was a continuous variable, and the distributions of Z were one standard deviation above and below its mean. Simple slopes were used to examine the indirect and total effects and the confidence intervals from bootstrapping. Additionally, simple paths and effects were plotted for selected values of Z, following the guidelines of Edwards and Lambert (2007).

Hypothesis 10 proposes that mentor LMX moderates the positive relationship between mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and their own holding behaviours, such that the relationship is stronger when mentor LMX is higher. Following recommendations by Aiken and West (1991), I centred mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and mentor LMX before computing the interaction term (Hypothesis 10).

As Table 5-3 reveals, the interaction between mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and mentor LMX was positively related to mentor holding

behaviours (β = .12, *SE* = .06, $p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 10 was supported. I further constructed the interaction plots according to Dawson (2014). Figure 5-1 shows that with a low value of mentor LMX (1 *SD* below the mean), mentors' supervisor holding behaviours were negatively related to their own holding behaviours (–1 *SD*; β = –.508, *SE* = .26, $p < .05$); however, they did not relate to mentor holding behaviours when the degree of LMX was high (+1 *SD*; β = –.420, *SE* = .22, *n.s.*).

Figure 5-1
Interactive effect of Mentor's supervisor holding behaviors and Mentor's LMX on Mentor's holding behaviors



Chapter 6. Discussion

This chapter discusses the implications of the study. It starts with a summary of the findings, followed by an exploration of their theoretical and practical implications. The chapter concludes with a discussion of limitations and suggestions for future research directions.

6.1 Summary of Findings

With a significant increase in interest in mentoring relationship research (Eby & Robertson, 2020; Kwan et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2019), certain shortcomings have come to light with regard to the relevant theoretical framework and understanding the factors that influence holding behaviours. Therefore, I investigated the predictors and outcomes of holding behaviours by testing how and when mentors' supervisor holding behaviours can have a trickle-down effect on their own holding behaviours, in turn benefiting their protégés' performance and well-being. I used a model based on social learning theory and social cognitive theory that shows how holding behaviours flow through various levels of management and ultimately influence protégé outcomes. Additionally, the model suggests that the effects of holding behaviours depend on the nature of the relationship involved (Ragins et al., 2017); therefore, I adopted LMX theory and introduced mentor LMX as a boundary condition to examine its effect on the relationship between supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours.

Based on a multi-wave, multisource research design, my study was able to provide support for all of my hypotheses. Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), I found that supervisor holding behaviours positively affected mentor holding behaviours and that mentor LMX moderated this effect. Specifically, the positive influence of supervisor holding behaviours on mentor holding behaviours was strengthened by higher LMX, indicating that mentors are more likely to display holding behaviours when they have better relationships with their supervisors. My findings regarding the positive relationship between supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours align with those of previous research, which has suggested that supervisors can serve as role models for their subordinates and display mentoring behaviours even without formally acting as mentors (Ragins et al., 2017).

As discussed above, social learning theory proposes that people learn by observing and imitating others' actions and that supervisors' positions and authority make them potential role models for their subordinates (De Cremer et al., 2018). Therefore, my results indicate that holding behaviours can also be transferred through the social learning process. Additionally, my findings regarding the moderating effects of LMX on the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours are consistent with previous research indicating that the significance of social learning is influenced by relationships with role models (Xiao & Mao, 2022). I introduced LMX as an

important boundary condition that shapes mentors' observation and learning of their supervisors' holding behaviours. LMX varies from high-quality socioemotional exchanges to low-quality transactional exchanges (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Higher-quality LMX is likely to increase subordinates' observation of leader behaviours, as it indicates that their relationship involves mutual respect, support, loyalty, and a sense of obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These features of LMX encourage mentors to trust their supervisors, driving them to imitate the supervisors' holding behaviours.

Furthermore, by applying social learning theory and social cognitive theory, I revealed the positive relationship between mentor holding behaviours and their protégés' personal learning and job involvement, both of which contribute to protégés' overall performance and well-being. As Campbell (1990) suggested, job performance can be broken down into distinct sets of activities that have varying impacts on an organisation. In this study, I focused on job performance and OCB as aspects of protégés' performance to examine the influence of mentor holding behaviours. Additionally, researchers have explored numerous health variables, both psychological (such as hostility, depression, and anxiety) and physical (such as perceived health and various illnesses), in their analyses of well-being (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). In my study, I looked at both the subjective and physical well-being of protégés to provide a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and

protégés well-being. As such, the findings of this study suggest that mentor holding behaviours have a positive indirect impact on protégés' (a) job performance, (b) OCB, (c) subjective well-being, and (d) physical well-being via protégés' personal learning and job involvement.

Furthermore, my study revealed a sequential, indirect effect of supervisor holding behaviours on the job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being of protégés. The significant finding regarding holding behaviours suggests that the impact of supervisor holding behaviours on protégés' performance and well-being is still noteworthy, even though supervisors are more removed from protégés than from mentors, from a hierarchical perspective.

This study offers supervisors valuable insight into the importance of their holding behaviours for protégés. In addition, I identified protégés' personal learning and job involvement as proximal outcomes that were differentially affected by supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours. These results demonstrate the value of both supervisors and mentors as resources for protégés' learning and motivation (Lankau & Scandura, 2002). My findings suggest that supervisor holding behaviours are indirectly linked to higher levels of protégé personal learning and job involvement through mentor holding behaviours, thus enriching our understanding of the influence of holding behaviours. Moreover, my study revealed that protégé personal learning stemming from their mentors'

holding behaviours subsequently affected the protégés' job involvement, which is a cognitive state that plays a crucial role in individual effectiveness and productivity in the workplace (Brown, 1996). Therefore, this research provides further evidence of the sequential, indirect effect of mentors' supervisor holding behaviours on protégés' job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being through mentor holding behaviours, protégé personal learning, and protégé job involvement.

Overall, this study has important theoretical and practical implications. The findings offer important insights into the role of holding behaviours in the workplace and highlight the importance of both mentors and supervisors for the performance and well-being of protégés. These results have important managerial implications for organisations looking to promote effective mentorship programmes and foster positive mentoring relationships and holding environments that support the growth and development of their employees.

6.2 Theoretical Contributions

This study contributes significantly to the literature on holding behaviours and mentoring relationships by proposing a conceptually rich model that connects mentors' supervisor holding behaviours to their own holding behaviours and protégés' in-role and extra-role performance, as well as their subjective and physical well-being. I incorporated constructs from social learning theory (i.e., supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours), social

cognitive theory (i.e., job performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being), and LMX theory (i.e., LMX) and used these constructs to develop hypotheses. The proposed model offers a more comprehensive approach to understanding the positive role of upper-level supervisors' holding behaviours in shaping middle-level mentors' holding behaviours and their protégés' job performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being, as it considers both mediating and moderating mechanisms and hierarchical characteristics in the organisation. This study's contributions can be broadly summarised as falling into four categories: (1) understanding the antecedents of the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours and (2) the effect of holding behaviours on protégés' job performance, (3) OCB, and (4) subjective and physical well-being. The trickle-down effect of holding behaviours can be understood from two perspectives, namely role modelling and relationship quality. Furthermore, the effect of holding behaviours on protégés' job performance, OCB, and subjective and physical well-being can be better understood by the processes of personal learning and job involvement.

According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), individuals learn behaviours by observing their environment and role models. Role modelling is particularly beneficial because it saves people from learning all behaviours through trial and error. Studies have shown that individuals tend to pay attention to and mimic the behaviours of high-status models, such as supervisors (Lian et

al., 2012; Liu et al., 2013). While research has focused on the modelling of various leadership behaviours, this study is the first to explore the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours in the mentoring context. Organisational members are inclined to imitate the behaviours of their supervisors, as supervisors serve as high-status role models in an organisation (Liu et al., 2013). The perspective of role modelling has long been applied to explain how and why subordinates mimic the leadership behaviours exhibited by their supervisors. These behaviours encompass various forms of leadership, such as transformational leadership (Kranabetter & Niessen, 2017), transactional leadership (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005), ethical leadership (Brown & Treviño, 2014; Ogunfowora, 2014), and abusive leadership (Liun et al., 2012; Mawritz et al., 2012). Despite the richness of these findings, the current study represents the first endeavour to investigate the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours in the context of mentoring. By examining the relationship between supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours from a hierarchical perspective, this study bridges the gap between holding behaviours and role modelling. Leaders at different hierarchical levels serve different organisational functions (Mayer et al., 2009). One of the critical functions of supervisors is to exhibit appropriate holding behaviours to subordinate mentors, who can then model such behaviours and pass them on to their protégés or other organisational members.

As mentoring is a well-established tactic for newcomer socialisation (Allen

et al., 2004, 2017), the effects of supervisor holding behaviours are likely to extend beyond mentors into the broader organisational context. Therefore, upper-level management significantly affects the organisation as a whole, as their holding behaviours can influence the behaviours of middle-level mentors and, subsequently, protégés and other employees. This study highlights the importance of considering the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours and the potential effect of supervisors on their subordinates' well-being and job performance.

This study also improves our limited understanding of the factors that contribute to holding behaviours. Despite the growing interest in studying holding behaviours in recent years (Chanland & Murphy, 2018; Ragins et al., 2017), little attention has been paid to the antecedents of holding behaviours. Researchers have emphasised the need to extend social learning theory to incorporate managerial hierarchy, to improve our understanding of the role of upper-level management (Cheng et al., 2019). However, the predictors of holding behaviours have yet to be explored within the social learning framework. Responding to the call for an exploration of the predictors of holding behaviours (Chanland & Murphy, 2018), I examined how upper-level management can facilitate holding behaviours among mid-level mentors.

The second crucial factor of the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours is the quality of the relationships between mentors and their supervisors. Social

learning theory proposes that the influence of role models can be affected by various factors, including the role models' relationships with learners (Bandura, 1986; Xiao & Mao, 2022). Because the nature of the exchange between subordinates and supervisors influences the degree to which the subordinates trust and adopt their supervisors' behaviours (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Greenbaum et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2021), I viewed LMX as a critical boundary condition for mentors' acquisition of their supervisors' holding behaviours. In high-quality LMX relationships, there are greater levels of trust, respect, and mutual obligation, while low-quality LMX relationships mainly involve economic exchange behaviours (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). When a supervisor–employee relationship is characterised by high LMX, the employee is more likely to pay close attention to their supervisor's holding behaviours, seek guidance from the supervisor on how to behave, and adopt the supervisor's holding behaviours than when LMX is low. Thus, LMX moderates the association between role models' behaviours and learners' behaviours.

According to LMX theory, social exchange and reciprocity are the fundamental tenets of high-quality relationships (Boon & Biron, 2016). Individuals who closely attend to role models are likely to internalise their values and behaviours, which social learning theory suggests can be influenced by the role model's status and admirability (Bandura et al., 1963; Lankau & Scandura, 2002). I argued that high-quality relationships between supervisors

and subordinates enhance the modelling of holding behaviours, as high-LMX supervisors are likely to be perceived as role models. The quality of the supervisor–subordinate relationship has been found to affect the salience and efficiency of social learning processes (Greenbaum et al., 2018; Walumbwa et al., 2011). By integrating social learning theory and LMX theory, I hypothesised that the impact of role modelling on mentors' holding behaviours is more substantial when they have high-quality LMX with their supervisors. This moderating effect aligns with the predictions of social learning theory and LMX theory, as the influence of supervisor holding behaviours is expected to be more potent when mentors have a strong relationship with their supervisors. Studies have suggested that holding behaviours serve as a unique form of social support that can help individuals cope with challenging experiences at work (e.g., Kahn, 2001; Ragins et al., 2017). As recipients of such support, mentors with high LMX relationships are likely to develop a deeper understanding of the benefits of holding behaviours, perceive their supervisors as role models, and become more motivated to emulate their supervisors' holding behaviours.

While research has shown that the behaviours of upper-level management can influence middle-level managers' behaviours (Cheng et al., 2019), there has yet to be a direct examination of this social learning or role modelling process in the context of holding behaviours. To help fill this gap, I extended the role model effect to include holding behaviours. My findings suggest that when

supervisors exhibit holding behaviours, their subordinates are more likely to model these behaviours than otherwise. Additionally, I investigated the complexity of this role model effect by examining it in terms of the quality of supervisor–subordinate relationships. To do so, I integrated social learning theory and LMX theory to build a comprehensive model that illustrates how relationship quality can serve as a boundary condition for the effects of social learning. This study not only provides robust evidence for the effect of upper-level supervisors' holding behaviours on middle-level mentors but also offers a more nuanced approach than previous models that consider the boundary conditions of the role modelling process of holding behaviours.

Furthermore, this study makes a valuable contribution to research on holding behaviours and their outcomes. The study reveals that the influence of holding behaviours on protégés' performance and well-being can be better understood by examining the mediating effects of personal learning and job involvement. Specifically, the finding that protégés' personal learning mediates the relationship between mentors' holding behaviours and protégés' performance and well-being contributes to the literature on both holding behaviours and personal learning. Furthermore, the evidence that mentors' holding behaviours indirectly influence protégés' performance and well-being through personal learning underscores the importance of personal learning in the mentoring relationship, as highlighted by Liu et al. (2009).

The primary objective of holding behaviours is to enhance the mentoring relationship by helping protégés maintain ego integrity in the face of confusing or stressful organisational experiences (Ragins et al., 2017). Therefore, it is critical to investigate not only the outcomes of holding behaviours but also the mechanisms that link mentor holding behaviours to protégé outcomes. This study adds to research on mentoring, personal learning, performance, and well-being by demonstrating that personal learning plays a crucial mediating role in the relationships between mentors' holding behaviours and protégés' performance and well-being. I hope that this investigation, along with other innovative research in the field of personal learning, will inspire future research on the important role of learning in promoting individual performance and well-being in the mentoring relationship.

The second key contribution of my findings regarding the influence of holding behaviours lies in the identification of job involvement as a mediating variable in the relationship between holding behaviours and protégé outcomes. While research has recognised the importance of holding behaviours in mentoring relationships, the specific mechanisms through which holding behaviours affect protégé outcomes have been less clear. For example, Ragins et al. (2017) demonstrated that mentor holding behaviours can protect protégés against the harmful effects of a discriminatory workplace. Although the importance of holding behaviours has been well recognised, it is less clear what

links holding behaviours to protégé outcomes in the context of mentoring. Thus, this study sheds light on the importance of job involvement as an intervening variable in the relationship between holding behaviours and protégés' performance and well-being.

Research has identified several individual and organisational factors that can significantly affect job involvement (Brown, 1996). For example, job characteristics such as autonomy, skill variety, task identity, and significance have been shown to influence job involvement (Hackman & Oldham, 1980); supervisory behaviours such as consideration and participation have been found to impact job involvement (Lance, 1991; Smith & Brannick, 1990); and individual differences such as internal motivation, Protestant work ethic, and psychological need satisfaction have also been linked to job involvement (Brockner et al., 1988; Gardner et al., 1989; Malhotra et al., 2022). This study adds to this literature by highlighting the critical role of holding behaviours in fostering protégé job involvement and ultimately enhancing their personal performance and well-being in the workplace. In line with previous studies, I found that holding behaviours were displayed in high-quality mentoring relationships as specific and intentional behaviours that went beyond providing essential social support to protégés facing workplace challenges (Kahn, 2001; Ragins et al., 2017). This implies that mentor holding behaviours can contribute to protégé job involvement. More generally, by identifying the mediating effect

of job involvement in the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and protégé outcomes, this study enhances understanding of the benefits of holding behaviours in organisations.

Additionally, this study provides evidence of the positive influence of job involvement on protégés' performance and well-being, contributing to our understanding of job involvement. Research has indicated that employees with positive work-related attitudes, such as job involvement, are more motivated and able to overcome obstacles than others (Brown & Leigh, 1996). High levels of job involvement also provide employees with supportive resources, including feedback and development opportunities, which are critical for their performance and well-being (Hassan, 2012; Maurer et al., 2003). The results of this study may inspire future research to explore the effect of holding behaviours on other outcomes in various contexts by examining the mediating role of enhanced job involvement.

To summarise, this study offers critical theoretical implications regarding the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours on subordinate holding behaviours and, ultimately, on protégé outcomes. First, I applied social learning theory and social cognitive theory to examine the antecedents of holding behaviours and found that upper-level supervisors' holding behaviours significantly influenced middle-level mentors' holding behaviours through a role modelling process. The findings revealed that the holding behaviours of

upper-level supervisors had a greater effect on the holding behaviours of mid-level mentors through the process of social learning. This finding is consistent with the notion that role modelling is essential for understanding why people imitate certain behaviours of others (Xiao & Mao, 2022).

The significant effect of role modelling I observed suggests that certain behaviours demonstrated by supervisors that influence their subordinates are related to holding behaviours, such as containment, empathetic acknowledgement, and enabling perspective. Additionally, I found that LMX moderated the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours, with high-quality LMX being likely to strengthen this relationship over time.

Second, I found that both personal learning and job involvement mediated the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and their protégés' performance and well-being, suggesting the potential of using both approaches to understand this relationship. Future research could focus on promoting both personal learning and job involvement to enhance organisational members' performance and well-being effectively.

Finally, I investigated the model using a Chinese sample. According to a review by Allen et al. (2008), the majority of mentoring studies have been conducted using North American samples, raising questions about whether their findings can be generalised to non-North American societies. Mentorship in

China differs from that in the West, as it is influenced by Confucian values and a collectivist culture (Bozionelos & Wang, 2006). For instance, the mentor–protégé relationship in Chinese organisations is established easily, as it emphasises intimacy, hierarchy, and emotional intensity, which is similar to the traditional Confucian relationship between father and son (Liu et al., 2009). This study's results indicate that supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours promote protégés' personal learning and job involvement, ultimately contributing to their performance and well-being in China. Thus, I respond to Casper et al.'s (2007) call to incorporate non-managerial and Eastern samples into research related to work–family issues. Overall, this study highlights the important role of holding behaviours in mentoring relationships within a Chinese context and contributes to the literature on mentoring relationships and holding behaviours by clarifying the generalisation of Western research findings to non-Western cultures.

6.3 Practical Implications

My study has important practical implications for managers who want to enhance organisational outcomes through holding behaviours. Although it is widely recognised that holding behaviours can help employees deal with anxiety-inducing workplace situations and improve individual performance (Ragins et al., 2017), the mechanisms underlying these effects have yet to be fully explored. My theoretical model and empirical findings have significant

implications for organisations and mentors. As more and more organisations and managers focus on improving employee performance and well-being (Loon et al., 2019; Piccolo & Colquitt; Rich et al., 2010, 2006; Wu et al., 2021) as critical elements of an organisation's success, it is important that they recognise that upper-level supervisors' holding behaviours can encourage mid-level mentors' holding behaviours, which in turn enhance their protégés' performance and well-being. High levels of employee performance are necessary to achieve organisational goals, improve productivity, and enhance the "bottom line" (Rosen et al., 2020). Employee well-being is equally important, as physically and mentally healthy employees are more likely than their unhealthy counterparts to be engaged, productive, and satisfied with their work (Cooper et al., 2019). Organisations prioritising employee well-being can benefit from reduced absenteeism, lower healthcare costs, and increased performance (Bakker et al., 2019). This study offers organisations a means to enhance organisational effectiveness and individual well-being through effective mentoring relationships and holding behaviours.

Specifically, I suggest three pathways by which organisations and executives can improve individual employee performance and well-being. The first pathway involves selection and training. To fully leverage the potential benefits of holding behaviours, organisations should consider hiring or promoting mentors and leaders who exhibit these behaviours and providing

training for pre-existing mentors and leaders. Specifically, such selection methods can include assessments of holding behaviours, emotion management skills, and concern for others. For instance, during job interviews, interviewers can present candidates with scenarios involving anxiety-inducing issues to gauge their responses. Organisations can also ask employees to rate their mentors' or supervisors' holding behaviours to identify suitable candidates for promotion. Additionally, investing in training programmes can promote holding behaviours by emphasising their importance, teaching how to create and foster a holding environment, and developing skills such as perspective-taking and effective communication. Other possible training topics include scenarios associated with holding behaviours, recognising and rewarding leaders who exhibit these behaviours, and promoting role models who can create a holding climate (Ragins et al., 2017).

The second pathway involves establishing high-quality formal and informal social relationships in the workplace. According to LMX theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), when subordinates have a positive relationship with their supervisors characterised by trust, professional respect, information sharing, career development opportunities, support, loyalty, and formal and informal rewards, they are more likely to learn about holding behaviours and model their supervisors' actions than otherwise (Boon & Biron, 2016; Xiao & Mao, 2022). The trickle-down effect suggests that behaviours exhibited by individuals in

higher positions in the organisational hierarchy have an effect on those in lower positions (Wo et al., 2019). Therefore, organisations should focus on building effective leader–member relationships, matching mentors to protégés, monitoring and supporting these relationships, and improving the quality of formal and informal mentoring relationships to maximise the trickle-down effect of holding behaviours in the organisation.

The third approach to enhancing mentors' holding behaviours and improving protégés' performance and well-being is to encourage personal learning and job involvement among protégés. My findings suggest that protégés' personal learning and job involvement are significant predictors of their performance and well-being and that mentor holding behaviours can have a positive impact on protégés' performance and well-being through personal learning and job involvement. Thus, organisations should focus on fostering personal learning and job involvement among protégés. To enhance personal learning, organisations can increase the quality of mentoring relationships by encouraging role modelling and facilitating informal learning opportunities (Noe et al., 2014; Pan et al., 2011). For example, organisations could encourage mentors to provide support to their protégés by creating holding environments and developing networks beyond the traditional dyadic relationship. Additionally, regular feedback, coaching, and mentoring are essential for employees' growth and development. Organisations can also create a holding

environment to promote job involvement and help protégés build positive relationships with their mentors and colleagues. Team-building activities, mentorship programmes, and social events can be developed to help employees establish strong connections with colleagues (Diefendorff et al., 2002).

6.4 Limitations and Future Research Directions

6.4.1 Limitations

Although this study makes valuable contributions to theory and practice, it is essential to acknowledge its limitations. One possible limitation is the use of self-reported measures, which may increase correlations and introduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To mitigate this problem, I collected data from mentor–protégé dyads at four time points. Specifically, the relationships between mentors' holding behaviours and protégés' personal learning (H2) and job involvement (H3) were tested using different sources and different data time points. I used same-source data collected at various time points to test the relationships between mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and their own holding behaviours (H1) and between protégés' personal learning and job involvement (H4); the relationships between protégés' personal learning and job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being (H5); and the relationships between protégés' job involvement and job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being (H6). This reduced the potential for common method bias. Furthermore, research has suggested that the presence

of moderating effects is not significantly affected by common method bias (Evans, 1985). Therefore, common method bias is unlikely to be a significant concern in this study. Furthermore, research has shown that the presence of common method bias does not necessarily affect research findings (Spector, 2006).

The variables measured in this study, such as job involvement, personal learning, subjective well-being, and OCB, are subjective and may therefore be challenging for people to report accurately. Despite this, self-reporting remains a suitable assessment method in well-being research (e.g., Beier et al., 2018; Le et al., 2021). However, future research could benefit from using other methods to measure job involvement and OCB, such as rating by supervisors or peers when the study subjects work closely with their supervisors and peers. Researchers could also gather archival data to evaluate protégés' job performance—such as company records from the human resources department or company profit reports (Barnes et al., 2018)—and physical well-being, for example blood pressure (Bailey, 1984), salivary cortisol (Grossi et al., 1998), or serum uric acid (Cobb, 1974).

The second limitation of this study pertains to the causal direction of some of the hypothesised relationships due to the research design. Without controlling for baseline levels of outcome variables, the possibility of reverse causality could not be ruled out, meaning that the causal direction of some of the observed

relationships may be opposite to the prediction. For instance, protégés who exhibit more personal learning and job involvement may hold a positive attitude towards their mentors' supervisor holding behaviours, which may induce the mentors to reciprocate through high-quality mentoring relationships and holding behaviours. Moreover, protégés who exhibit more job involvement may perceive personal learning more positively and believe that they have learnt much from their work-related involvement. Protégés' work participation and psychological identification are crucial in providing ongoing learning opportunities in their workplace. As a result, protégés may rate their personal learning higher, recognise this behaviour sooner, and interpret behaviour more in line with their job involvement. This concern is particularly relevant for the relationship between protégés' job involvement and personal learning, given that the associated data were obtained from the same source at the same time point.

The third limitation of this study is related to the time interval between the assessment of protégés' personal learning and job involvement and that of protégés' performance and well-being. These assessments were conducted at intervals of approximately 1 month, running the risk of introducing confounding variables that influenced the dependent variables, such as other sources of mentoring support or environmental factors unrelated to the protégés' state but that contributed to their performance and well-being. Therefore, future research

should include measures of other types of mentorship effectiveness, such as mentorship quality (Kwan et al., 2021), to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the effects of mentoring on protégé outcomes.

The fourth limitation of this study pertains to generalisability. Because the data were collected in China, there is a possibility that the results may not be applicable to Western settings. Research has indicated that power distance orientation (Lian et al., 2012) and traditional Chinese values (Liu et al., 2013) may strengthen the role modelling process. In China, employees with a high power distance orientation are likely to perceive their supervisors as having power, superiority, and status; therefore, they respect and learn from their supervisors (Kirkman et al., 2009; Lian et al., 2012). Additionally, traditional Chinese values emphasise hierarchical relationships, meaning that individuals are more sensitive to and learn from authority figures such as supervisors (Liu et al., 2013). These findings suggest that the influence of supervisor holding behaviours on mentor holding behaviours and, consequently, mentor holding behaviours may be more potent in China than in the West. However, the theories used in this study were developed in a Western context; therefore, the model I developed may also be applicable to Western contexts. Nevertheless, future research should test the model using Western samples and include cultural factors such as power distance orientation to enhance its generalisability.

Fifth, I investigated only personal learning and job involvement as potential

mediators between mentor holding behaviours and protégés' job performance and well-being. There may be other mechanisms that link these variables, such as thriving at work, skills, self-efficacy, and positive affect (Kleineet al., 2019). Therefore, future research should explore additional mediators and moderators to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the complex relationships between mentor holding behaviours, protégé outcomes, and potential moderating factors.

Sixth, the interaction plot indicates that holding behaviours and LMX overlapped and that LMX had a dominating effect. Indeed, the correlation between mentors' supervisor holding behaviours and LMX was .65 ($p < .01$), and the correlation between mentor holding behaviours and LMX was .35 ($p < .01$). It is possible that LMX has substitution effects to replace the impact of mentors' supervisor holding behaviours. LMX represents a broad concept about the relationship quality between two parties, but holding behaviours are a narrow type of behaviour. The effect of a broad concept is more influential than that of a narrow concept. Future research should explore whether LMX and holding behaviours have a potential causal relationship and under what conditions holding behaviours provide more influential effects when the effects of LMX are considered. In addition, LMX refers to the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate, which is appropriately proposed to moderate the first stage of the proposed model, that is, the relationship between mentors'

supervisor holding behaviours and their own holding behaviours. However, LMX is not applicable to a mentoring relationship and, therefore, should not be proposed to moderate the second stage of the proposed model, that is, the effects of mentor holding behaviours on personal learning and job involvement. Nevertheless, future research could attempt to explore the moderating role of mentorship quality in the second stage.

Last, it should be noted that there may be other variables that moderate the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours. For instance, the level of mentors' identification with their supervisors may positively moderate this relationship by influencing the extent to which the mentors perceive their supervisors as personal role models and, consequently, the extent to which the mentors learn from them. Indeed, studies have shown that leader identification can increase the extent to which mentors accept their supervisors' holding behaviours and regard them as mentoring role models (Wang et al., 2021). Thus, mentor identification may have a moderating effect on the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours.

6.4.2 Future Research Directions

The present study's findings suggest several promising directions for future research. First, the study highlights the crucial role of role modelling in holding behaviours. For example, based on this study's model, future research could

apply social learning theory to develop hypotheses regarding the effects of supervisor holding behaviours on follower holding behaviours through the social learning mechanism. In particular, researchers could investigate whether mentors' mentoring behaviours can affect their protégés' willingness to provide holding support to their colleagues and family members. Such findings could offer practical implications for organisations to encourage socially supportive behaviours among their members.

Second, although the present study examined the effects of the modelling of holding behaviours at the supervisor–mentor dyadic level, it remains unclear whether the findings concerning the trickle-down effect can be generalised to mentor–protégé dyads. While leadership studies have provided strong evidence that modelling occurs at various dyadic levels (e.g., Bass et al., 1987; Mayer et al., 2009), mentoring relationships differ from supervisor–subordinate relationships in terms of position and authority because mentors can be either inside or outside their protégés' chain of command (Eby & Robertson, 2020). Therefore, the effectiveness of holding behaviours in mentoring relationships may depend on the nature of the relationships, as emphasised by Ragins et al. (2017). Future research could explore whether the modelling effects of supervisor holding behaviours extend to their subordinate mentor–protégé dyads and, if so, whether mentor holding behaviours play a mediating role. This could provide insights into how holding behaviours can be promoted in

mentoring relationships and contribute to the development of effective mentoring interventions. Furthermore, protégés may interpret their holding experiences differently based on their level of closeness and connection with their mentors. Therefore, if mentors are not their supervisors, protégés may not be strongly influenced by their holding behaviours. Therefore, future research could investigate the effect of mentor holding behaviours on protégé holding behaviours. Additionally, mentor holding behaviours may affect protégés through the development of a team holding climate. In other words, workplace climate or norms may be another channel by which mentor holding behaviours influence their protégés' holding behaviours. Eby and Robertson (2020) suggested that organisational context provides another possible layer of influence on workplace mentoring. Spell et al. (2014) found that shared perceptions of developmental support from coworkers and mentors in a work unit had an influence on employee outcomes beyond that offered by the level of support received individually by either source. With respect to holding behaviours, it is expected that mentor holding behaviours create a holding climate within their teams, which subsequently encourages their protégés' holding behaviours. Therefore, organisations may develop protégé holding behaviours not only through modelling but also by cultivating a holding climate or culture. Future research could explore the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and team or organisational climate.

Third, my findings suggest that the influence of mentor holding behaviours may extend beyond the workplace to the family domain, as protégés may learn holding behaviours in the workplace and exhibit them at home, such as by providing social support to their family members. This finding provides support for both work–family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and the crossover perspective (Carlson et al., 2011). The current research mainly focused on the influence of mentor holding behaviours on their protégés' performance and well-being, and future research may integrate social learning theory, work–family enrichment theory, and/or the crossover perspective to understand how and why holding behaviours in the workplace positively influence employees' family life and their spouses' lives.

Fourth, the construct of holding behaviours may be applied beyond the context of supervisors and mentors, to other leadership styles and supportive behaviours. There are many potential research topics involving social learning and holding behaviours. For instance, servant leadership, which emphasises fulfilling followers' needs and promoting their well-being beyond the organisation (Greenleaf, 1977), may be investigated in terms of holding behaviours. Servant leaders may help employees cope with ambient discrimination by creating supportive social conditions in which followers can receive task-related and interpersonal support (Greenleaf, 1977; Hartnell et al., 2023). Because servant leadership considers followers' personal lives

(Greenleaf, 1977), mentors who exhibit this style may extend their role to include helping subordinates cope with anxiety and stress caused by ambient discrimination. Therefore, future research could explore whether supervisors' servant leadership encourages mentors to display holding behaviours as role models and motivators to improve protégés' well-being and performance.

Fifth, future research could examine how and why other potential moderators strengthen or weaken the social learning processes underlying the relationship between supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours or the influences of mentors' holding behaviours on protégés' performance and well-being. I used LMX theory to argue that mentors with high-quality relationships with their supervisors are likely to pay more attention to their holding behaviours, interpret them favourably, and feel obligated to reciprocate with holding behaviours that benefit the organisation. However, leader identification may also serve as a moderator in the social learning process. This concept involves followers defining themselves partially in terms of their leader and establishing a relational identity with them (Lord & Brown, 2004). Consequently, leader identification can positively influence the interpretation of and responses to the leader's actions. Wang et al. (2021) suggested that while a leader may demonstrate ethical leadership behaviours, the degree to which followers personally identify with the leader should moderate the extent to which they view the leader as a role model.

I also proposed that mentor holding behaviours can contribute to their protégés' performance and well-being by providing resources and creating a supportive environment. However, Hobfoll et al. (1990) proposed a "substitution hypothesis"; when one resource is not available, other resources may compensate for it to avoid resource losses. Both perceived organisation support and mentor holding behaviours are valuable resources for protégés to manage work stressors and achieve high levels of performance and well-being. Therefore, when protégés experience resource depletion, perceived organisation support may act as a substitute for mentor holding behaviours. Specifically, perceived organisational support provides a great variety of resources for protégés, compensating for the lack of mentor support such as mentor holding behaviours. A high level of perceived organisational support indicates that various resources are available, including socioemotional support, equipment, funding, technology, ideas, and physical assistance (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In addition, high levels of perceived support have been shown to facilitate mutual support among coworkers (Erdoganet al., 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This also increases protégés' access to various resources. Thus, protégés with high levels of organisational support are endowed with more resources to deal with workplace stressors and to develop effective approaches to accomplishing their tasks and improving their well-being. Given the potential substitution effects discussed above, perceived organisational support may moderate the

relationships between mentor holding behaviours and protégés' performance and well-being. However, the potential moderating effects of mentors' leader identification and protégés' perceived organisational support were not directly examined in this study. Thus, it is important to learn more about the specific moderators that influence the salience of the modelling process and the influence of mentor holding behaviours.

Sixth, this study did not include mentor holding behaviours in a Chinese context as a key variable. To measure supervisors' and mentors' holding behaviours, the study adapted the nine-item holding behaviours index developed by Ragins et al. (2017), which was originally created using a sample of organisational members from the United States. A pilot study to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of holding behaviours in the Chinese context provided good support for the validity of the variables used in this study. Therefore, future research may also use the holding behaviours index in a Chinese setting to examine the generalisability of this scale and the concept of holding behaviours.

Seventh, my findings suggest that protégés' personal learning and job involvement can mediate the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and their protégés' job performance and well-being. However, other potential mediators, such as psychological resources, may also link holding behaviours to protégé outcomes. Conservation of resources theory proposes that

psychological resources are crucial for meeting demands and reducing conflicts (Hobfoll, 2002), and the challenge hindrance stressor framework suggests that psychological resources play an essential role in how individuals perceive stressful experiences and how they can create positive outcomes (Min et al., 2015). Psychological resources that can mediate the relationships between holding behaviours and job performance and well-being include psychological capital, self-efficacy, positive affect, and organisation-based self-esteem. Future research may explore the mediating role of these psychological resources in the relationships between holding behaviours and job performance and well-being.

Last, this study focused on protégés' job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being as the final outcomes. The selection of these elements was based on the limited literature on the role of holding behaviours in creating competitive advantages and promoting employee well-being (Pagán-Castaño et al., 2020; Inceoglu et al., 2018). Given the relatively short history of the concept of holding behaviours and the limited number of related studies, this gap in our knowledge is understandable (e.g., Ragins et al., 2017). The model used in this study could also be applied to explain other positive, work-related consequences (e.g., general job satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceived job security) or work–home interface consequences (e.g., work–family enrichment, work–family positive spillover, and work–life balance). Future research should include these positive outcomes to gain a more

comprehensive understanding of the effects of holding behaviours on organisational member outcomes.

To summarise, in this study, I addressed critical issues related to holding behaviours in mentoring relationships and their trickle-down effect on protégés' performance and well-being. I found that mentor holding behaviours played a significant mediating role in the relationship between supervisor holding behaviours and mentor holding behaviours and that LMX was a key moderator of the main effect of supervisor holding behaviours and the indirect effect of mentor holding behaviours. The results also indicate that protégés' personal learning and job involvement mediated the relationship between mentor holding behaviours and protégés' job performance, OCB, subjective well-being, and physical well-being. While research has shown that mentor holding behaviours can protect protégés against the stress-related outcomes of ambient discrimination (Ragins et al., 2017), this study highlighted the benefits of upper-level supervisors' holding behaviours. To promote holding behaviours in organisations, managers and mentors must increase their intention and ability to exhibit such behaviours, recognising the trickle-down effect of their behaviours on protégés' performance and well-being.

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Appendix: Measures for the Main Study

- **Supervisor and Co-worker Holding behaviors**

Both “Supervisor holding behaviors” and “Co-worker holding behaviors” were included in the thesis.

Source: Ragins, B. R., Ehrhardt, K., Lyness, K. S., Murphy, D. D., & Capman, J. F. (2017). Anchoring relationships at work: High‐quality mentors and other supportive work relationships as buffers to ambient racial discrimination. *Personnel Psychology*, *70*(1), 211-256.

1. My supervisor/coworkers gives me a “safe space” to share my fears and concerns about things that happen at work.
2. I can go to my supervisor/coworkers for support when I am faced with upsetting or stressful workplace experiences.
3. I feel that I can always talk to my supervisor/coworkers about my workplace concerns.
4. My supervisor/coworkers understands and validates my feelings when I am faced with upsetting or disturbing events at work.
5. My supervisor/coworkers acknowledges and respects my feelings when I am upset with things that happen at work.
6. My supervisor/coworkers respects and validates my feelings and reactions to upsetting or disturbing workplace events.

7. My supervisor/coworkers helps me make sense of confusing or upsetting things that happen at work.
8. My supervisor/coworkers enables me and gives me new perspectives on disturbing or confusing things that happen at work.
9. My supervisor/coworkers helps me understand the "big picture" when I am faced with confusing or stressful experiences at work.

- **Leader-member Exchange**

Source: Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The leadership quarterly*, *6*(2), 219-247.

1. I know where I stand with my direct supervisor …I usually know how satisfied my direct supervisor is with what I do.
2. My direct supervisor understands my job problems and needs very well.
3. My direct supervisor recognizes my potential very well.
4. It is very likely that my direct supervisor would use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work.
5. It is very likely that my direct supervisor would 'bail me out'
6. I have enough confidence in my direct supervisor that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so.

7. I would characterize my working relationship with my direct supervisor as highly effective.

- **Mentor holding behaviors**

Source: Ragins, B. R., Ehrhardt, K., Lyness, K. S., Murphy, D. D., & Capman, J. F. (2017). Anchoring relationships at work: High-quality mentors and other supportive work relationships as buffers to ambient racial discrimination. *Personnel Psychology*, *70*(1), 211-256.

1. I give my protégé a "safe space" to share his/her fears and concerns about things that happen at work.
2. My protégé can go to me for support when he/she am faced with upsetting or stressful workplace experiences.
3. My protégé feel that he/she can always talk to me about his/her workplace concerns.
4. I understands and validates my protégé' feelings when he/she is faced with upsetting or disturbing events at work.
5. I acknowledge and respect my protégé' feelings when he/she is upset with things that happen at work.
6. I respect and validate my protégé' feelings and reactions to upsetting or disturbing workplace events.

7. I help my protégé' make sense of confusing or upsetting things that happen at work.
8. I enable my protégé and give him/her new perspectives on disturbing or confusing things that happen at work.
9. I help my protégé understand the "big picture" when he/she is faced with confusing or stressful experiences at work.

- **Personal Learning**

Source: Lankau, M. J., & Scandura, T. A. 2002. An investigation of personal learning in mentoring relationships: Content, antecedents, and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal,* 45(4): 779-790.

1. I have gained insight into how another department functions.
2. I have increased my knowledge about the organization as a whole.
3. I have learned about others' perceptions about me or my job.
4. I have increased my understanding of issues and problems outside my job.
5. I better understand how my job or department affects others.
6. I have a better sense of organizational politics.
7. I have learned how to communicate effectively with others.
8. I have improved my listening skills.
9. I have developed new ideas about how to perform my job.
10. I have become more sensitive to others' feelings and attitudes.

11. I have gained new skills.
12. I have expanded the way I think about things.

- **Job involvement**

Source: Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1995). Job stressors, job involvement and employee health: A test of identity theory. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *68*(1), 1-11.

1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
2. Most of my interests are centred around my job.
3. To me, my job is a very large part of who I am.
4. I am very much personally involved with my job.
5. My job is a very important part of my life.

- **Job performance**

Source: Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of management journal*, *50*(2), 327-347.

1. Carried out the core parts of your job well
2. Completed your core tasks well using the standard procedures
3. Ensured your tasks were completed properly

4. Adapted well to changes in core tasks
5. Coped with changes to the way you have to do your core tasks
6. Learned new skills to help you adapt to changes in your core tasks
7. Initiated better ways of doing your core tasks
8. Come up with ideas to improve the way in which your core tasks are done
9. Made changes to the way your core tasks are done

- **Organizational Citizenship Behavior**

Source: Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: the role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of applied psychology*, *87*(1), 131.

1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.

9. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
10. Keep up with developments in the organization.
11. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
12. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
14. Express loyalty toward the organization.
15. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.

Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

- **Subjective Well-being**

Source: Diener, E., & Emmons, R. A. (1984). The independence of positive and negative affect. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *47*(5), 1105.

Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, *49*(1), 71-75.

Positive affect (PA) items

1. Joyful.
2. Happiness.
3. Pleased.
4. Enjoyment/ fun.

Negative affect (NA) items

5. Worried/anxious.

6. Depressed.

7. Frustrated.

8. Angry/hostile.

9. Unhappy.

Life Satisfaction Scale

10. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.

11. The conditions of my life are excellent.

12. I am satisfied with my life.

13. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.

14. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

- **Physical Well-being**

Source: Goldberg, D. P. (1978). General health questionnaire. GHQ12. Windsor, UK: NFER Publishing.

1. Able to concentrate.

2. Didn't lost of sleep over worry.

3. Playing a useful part.

4. Capable of making decisions.

5. Didn't felt constantly under strain.

6. Could overcome difficulties.

7. Able to enjoy day-to-day activities.

8. Able to face problems.
9. Didn't felt unhappy and depressed.
10. Didn't lose confidence.
11. Didn't think of self as worthless.
12. Feeling reasonably happy.

- **Mentor's Power Distance**

Source: Dorfman, P. W., & Howell, J. P. (1988). Dimensions of National Culture and Effective Leadership Patterns: Hofstede Revisited. *Advances in International Comparative Management*, 3, 127-150.

1. Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
2. It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.
3. Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.
4. Managers should avoid off-the-job social contacts with employees.
5. Employees should not disagree with management decisions.
6. Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.