

## Abstract

Research on mentoring programs has portrayed them almost exclusively beneficial for newcomer retention. Drawing from the social cognitive model of career management and the boundaryless career perspective, we depart from this predominant view and examine the “double-edged sword” effects of career support mentoring on newcomer turnover. We propose that career support mentoring received by newcomers is likely to elicit both internal proactive socialization and external career self-management, which act as countervailing forces driving newcomer turnover in opposite directions (i.e., the retention pathway and the unintended detrimental pathway). We further propose that the organizational role of the mentor—supervisor vs. non-supervisor—is critical in determining which pathway prevails. We conducted two multi-wave newcomer studies to test our hypotheses. In Study 1 ( $N = 495$ ), we found that received career support mentoring was associated with lower newcomer-turnover probability through the serial mediation of internal proactive socialization and perceived internal marketability but higher newcomer-turnover probability through the serial mediation of external career self-management and perceived external marketability. In Study 2 ( $N = 193$ ), we found that received career support mentoring was associated with lower newcomer-turnover intention through the serial mediation of internal career advancement expectation and internal proactive socialization but higher newcomer-turnover intention through the serial mediation of external career advancement expectation and external career self-management. In both studies, the unintended detrimental pathway was significant only when a newcomer’s mentor was not a supervisor.

*Keywords:* career support mentoring, newcomer turnover, boundaryless careers, proactive socialization, career self-management

## **The “Double-Edged Sword” Effects of Career Support Mentoring on Newcomer Turnover: How and When It Helps or Hurts**

New employees often experience a reality shock during organizational entry (Major et al., 1995). Not surprisingly, “turnover is often the highest in the first year” (Allen & Shanock, 2013, p. 350), making newcomer retention a challenging task for organizations (Carucci, 2018). One popular strategy adopted by many companies to deal with this problem is to put newcomers into formal mentoring programs (Eby & Lockwood, 2005; Waterman & He, 2011) where experienced individuals (i.e., mentors) are paired with junior employees (i.e., protégés, such as newcomers) to facilitate the latter’s development and growth (Allen et al., 2017; Eby et al., 2013). Essentially, the services of mentors fall into two broad categories of developmental functions: psychosocial functions and career-enhancing functions (Kram, 1983, 1985). While psychosocial functions provide acceptance, counseling, and friendship, career-enhancing functions benefit protégés’ career development and professional growth (Eby, 1997; Kram & Isabella, 1985).

The prevalent consensus in the literature is that mentoring (particularly its career support functions) cultivates positive organizational attitudes and is universally beneficial for newcomer retention (Cai et al., 2020; Farnese et al., 2016; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Scandura & Viator, 1994). Despite the intuitiveness of this consensus, it may be premature and potentially misleading because it is based on a questionable assumption: employees will not voluntarily leave an organization that nurtures and support them (Eisenberger et al., 1990). This assumption was sensible in the traditional career world but, more recently, has been challenged. Careers today are becoming increasingly “boundaryless,” such that they regularly “depart from linear progression within a single employment setting” (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011, p. 570) and take “a range of forms that defies traditional employment assumptions” (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996, p. 3). According to the newer view, to ensure career success,

employees should be value-added to their current employer and should maintain external competitiveness for outside opportunities (Arthur et al., 2005; Sullivan et al., 1998). Indeed, recent census data show that the new generation workforce widely endorses the idea of building interorganizational mobility while climbing the ladder within an organization, to the extent that they regard both pursuits as plausible (Gallup, 2016). We argue that career support mentoring enables newcomers to take proactive steps in the simultaneous pursuit of internal and external career pathways, which have opposite implications for retention. Disregarding one or the other of the pathways may cause an incomplete understanding of the consequences of career support mentoring and difficulty in explaining why mentoring programs sometimes fail to deliver intended outcomes.

The goal of this paper is to shed light on two interesting and underexplored questions: *can* mentors' career support concurrently pull newcomers toward and push them away from their organizations, and if so, *how*? To answer these questions, we draw upon the social cognitive model of career management (Lent & Brown, 2013; see also Lent et al., 1994), along with the boundaryless career perspective (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). The social cognitive model of career management is directly derived from the general social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989, 2001) and represents a specific extension of this theory to the career literature. This model emphasizes how certain contextual influences can affect individuals' self-appraisals of capabilities to execute required actions and outcome expectations, thereby motivating career-related self-regulation (e.g., proactive and adaptive career behaviors). The boundaryless career perspective also bears significant relevance to our research because unpacking the entirety of the path between mentoring and turnover "would require looking at mentoring and mobility from a career perspective, not from the perspective of a particular job or organization" (Dougherty & Dreher, 2007, p. 86). Integrating these two theoretical frameworks, we propose that career support mentoring may prompt newcomers to engage in

two distinct forms of proactive behaviors: *internal proactive socialization* (i.e., active adaptation behavior to learn the ways of one's organization to achieve success within that organization; Ashford & Black, 1996) and *external career self-management* (i.e., active behavioral attempts to increase one's job mobility preparedness and further one's career outside the current organization; Sturges et al., 2002). These two types of behaviors can, in turn, differentially influence newcomer turnover through enhanced internal vs. external marketability (i.e., value and career prospects in the current employment vs. in the broad job market; Eby et al., 2003). Notably, the organizational role of the mentor (i.e., supervisor vs. non-supervisor) may serve as a key contingency that shapes which pathway prevails by altering the direction or locus of the corresponding mentor's career support activities.

In the current research, we focus specifically on career support mentoring, which fulfills career-enhancing functions by improving protégés' human capital and connecting them to important individuals in their profession through coaching, assigning challenging assignments, exposure, and sponsorship (e.g., Allen et al., 2004; Scandura & Ragins, 1993; Tharenou, 2005). Three reasons support this focus. First, career support mentoring meets protégés' career development needs and brings them tangible gains and has therefore been found to be more consequential for turnover than psychosocial support (for a meta-analytic review, see Eby et al., 2013). Second, "psychosocial functions may not be as unique to mentoring relationships as are the career-related functions" because other individuals in organizations (e.g., coworkers and friends) could carry out similar functions, whereas career coaching is an irreplaceable feature of mentorship (Chao et al., 1992, p. 631; Kram, 1983). Third, as explained later, studying career support mentoring aligns with our theoretical focus on newcomer career management. Previous research has similarly concentrated on career support mentoring due to its stronger relevance to their research interests (e.g., Blokker et al., 2023; Renn et al., 2014; Scandura & Williams, 2004; Williams et al., 2009).

We tested our hypotheses with two multi-wave studies. In Study 1, we used four-wave survey data over one year to examine how received career support mentoring affects newcomers' actual turnover behavior via the countervailing mediating mechanisms (i.e., internal proactive socialization and subsequently perceived internal marketability vs. external career self-management and subsequently perceived external marketability) and the associated contingency (i.e., the role of the mentor; supervisor vs. non-supervisor). Figure 1 summarizes the research model of Study 1. In Study 2, we used three-wave survey data to further examine whether received career support mentoring shapes internal proactive socialization and external career self-management (and ultimately turnover intention) via the mediation of internal and external career advancement expectations (two key explanatory accounts informed by the social cognitive model of career management; Lent & Brown, 2013). This study sheds additional light on the mechanisms underlying the effect of career support mentoring on newcomer turnover. The research model for study 2 is summarized in Figure 2.

Our paper makes several contributions. First, we shift away from the predominant view that mentoring is uniformly conducive to retaining newcomers. We highlight that career support can be both a boon and a bane for newcomer retention. In a boundaryless career world, an exclusive focus on the beneficial effects of career support while ignoring its unintended liabilities can result in inaccurate evaluations and misuse of mentoring programs. Our dual-pathway model provides a more balanced perspective and extends conventional theory by arguing that career support mentoring may sometimes backfire. This paper also answers the call for studying how mentoring affects employee turnover from a broad career (rather than a single organization) perspective (Dougherty & Dreher, 2007).

Second, by using a social cognitive model, we uncover that the mechanisms underlying the relationship between received career support mentoring and turnover are more

complex than previously assumed. As “much of the theoretical base for the mentoring relationship relies on social exchange theory” (Raabe & Beehr, 2003, p. 273), it is unsurprising that the social exchange framework has emerged as the dominant lens to explicating why mentoring reduces turnover in the literature (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012; Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2017). For example, Baranik et al. (2010, p. 370) argued that “the receipt of mentoring support sets in motion a social exchange process” that lowers protégés’ turnover. Consequently, most accounts based on this theory are tied to newcomers’ internally oriented behaviors as a form of reciprocity. Our social cognitive model emphasizes personal agency and is not constrained by such directionality. Thus, it extends the mechanisms of career support to include externally oriented behaviors (e.g., external career self-management), which cannot be easily extrapolated from social exchange theory.

A third contribution is our elucidation of how the organizational role of a mentor acts as a critical boundary condition for the proposed dual-pathway effects. This knowledge is important for organizations if they hope to benefit from the retention power of mentoring programs and minimize these programs’ unintended “side effects.” Our investigation contributes to how to better design and leverage mentoring programs for newcomer retention.

### **Theory and Hypothesis Development**

Among a variety of mechanisms proposed by Bandura (e.g., 1986, 1989) to explain personal agency, the social cognitive model of career management pays particular attention to people’s beliefs about their capabilities and probable outcomes of actions for their roles in determining goals, choice of activities, and direction of effort in the processes of career management (Lent et al., 1994; Lent & Brown, 2013). According to this model, people are more likely to attempt proactive behaviors to advance their careers when they believe they have the necessary capabilities to do so and that their effort will result in desired outcomes. Moreover, the model points to socialization, social support, and learning experiences as

enabling contextual factors that enhance one's assessment of capabilities and expectations of goal attainability, eventually promoting proactivity aiming to advance careers (Lent & Brown, 2013). Insights from research on boundaryless careers further suggest that proactive career advancement behaviors can manifest in various forms and are not limited to one's current organization (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996). People strive for career success as an overarching goal and can achieve such a goal through internal (intraorganizational) or external (interorganizational) pathways (Eby et al., 2003). Although both entail proactive actions, the two pathways differ regarding their implications for individuals and organizations.

In the following sections, we combine the social cognitive model of career management with the boundaryless career perspective to propose that career support mentoring can kindle different career advancement expectations and lead to both internal proactive socialization and external career self-management. These two behaviors are key to explaining why career support mentoring may simultaneously exert opposite influences on newcomer turnover.

### **The Effects of Career Support Mentoring on Internal Proactive Socialization and External Career Self-Management**

Organizational entry places newcomers in an unfamiliar situation and engenders feelings of uncertainty (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Bauer & Erdogan, 2014). Newcomers usually worry whether they have the capacities to produce desired outcomes (Brett, 1984; Miller & Jablin, 1991) and negatively appraise the feasibility of goal attainment (Ashford & Black, 1996). We argue that career support mentoring received by newcomers may offset their unease and cultivate in them positive expectations that they can successfully navigate their own career development. Mentors' career support aids protégés' career growth principally through assistance in goal coordination, career motivation, acquisition of human and social

capital, and the development of career-related skills (e.g., Kram, 1985; Scandura, 1992; Scandura & Ragins, 1993). With enhanced knowledge and resources, mentored individuals may have a greater sense of competence (e.g., Day & Allen, 2004; Renn et al., 2014; St-Jean & Mathieu, 2015) and more favorable appraisals of their career expectations (e.g., Anderson et al., 2016; Baugh et al., 1996; Scandura & Williams, 2004). According to the social cognitive model of career management (Lent & Brown, 2013), employees proactively advance their careers to the extent that they believe they are capable and anticipate positive outcomes. Conversely, employees remain passive when doubting their competencies or concerned that their efforts will be for naught. Growing research has recognized that supportive organizational practices such as mentoring can encourage employees to take a more proactive approach for their careers (Williams et al., 2009; Wong et al., 2017).

In the context of organizational entry, one obvious way for newcomers to pursue a promising professional future is to proactively socialize themselves into effective organizational members (Fang et al., 2011). Proactive socialization is considered an important way for people to take charge of their own career development internally and strive for success within organizations (Gazit et al., 2021; Lapalme et al., 2017; Seibert et al., 2001). Behaviors associated with proactive socialization, such as information seeking and relationship building, cultivate opportunities for newcomers and benefit their internal career prospects (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993a). As explained earlier, career support mentoring elevates newcomers' sense of competence and career expectations, motivating their engagement in internal proactive behavior that helps them climb the corporate ladder. Given its crucial role in career advancement within one's organization, proactive socialization can be a reasonable manifestation of the internal proactivity triggered by career support mentoring. The link between career support and internal proactive socialization has received some empirical support. For example, Ostroff and Kozlowski (1993) found that

mentoring can increase newcomers' information gathering. Thus, we propose:

*Hypothesis 1.* Received career support mentoring is positively related to newcomers' internal proactive socialization.

We argue that, in addition to proactively socializing themselves to advance within the current organization, newcomers receiving career support can express their proactivity in a way that furthers their career externally (De Janasz et al., 2003). In a boundaryless career world, the popular idea is to explore employment relationships in a "career ecosystem" comprising diverse institutions (Arthur et al., 2005; Baruch, 2015). Whether newcomers will proactively prepare themselves for external opportunities depends on their assessments of their ability and the probable outcomes (e.g., Bandura, 1989; Lent & Brown, 2013).

Career support mentoring provides not only organization-specific support but also profession-oriented general knowledge and assistance (Kram, 1985). Indeed, Eby (1997) specifically noted that mentoring facilitates career-related development, such as cultivating "a broad repertoire of new competencies and skills," establishing "diversified contacts within and outside the organization," staying "informed of trends and developments in his or her [protégé's] professional field," and encouraging "continuous learning and cross-disciplinary experiences" (p. 128). It is likely that a mentor may coach newcomers and sponsor their participation in challenging assignments that develop key skills and expertise transferable across organizations (Weisblat & Sell, 2012). Other functions of career support mentoring, such as enhancing visibility and networking opportunities, may expand newcomers' interactions with significant clients, partners, managers, and other professional contacts beyond the current organization (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Eby et al., 2003). As a result, the empowering and resource-enhancing effects of career support mentoring can broaden the scope of new hires' considerations for career development, foster a more positive assessment of the feasibility of interorganizational mobility, and increase their sense of agency in

managing their own careers beyond the confines of the organization (cf. Eby, 1997).

Drawing from the social cognitive model of career management (Lent & Brown, 2013), we contend that career support mentoring raises newcomers' expectations regarding their ability and potential for external career advancement. These optimistic expectations fuel newcomers to proactively manage their own careers beyond organizational boundaries. Newcomers may engage in such behaviors of external career self-management as exploring external environments, networking with people outside the current organization, attracting the attention of relevant outsider stakeholders, and preparing for job changes (e.g., Sturges et al., 2002). Research has shown that fostering individuals' general learning and network development broadens their perspective and liberates their external career behavior (Arthur, 1994; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996), providing preliminary evidence for our theorizing.

***Hypothesis 2.*** Received career support mentoring is positively related to newcomers' external career self-management.

### **The Differential Downstream Impacts of Internal Proactive Socialization and External Career Self-Management**

Scholars recognize that while various forms of proactivity involve common core processes, their outcomes can differ based on their specific content (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Griffin et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2019). Given that internal proactive socialization and external career self-management diverge in terms of effort direction and specific behaviors, we anticipate distinct downstream consequences to follow from each.

Specifically, internal proactive socialization focuses on gaining the knowledge and resources required to successfully adapt to a new work role (Ashford & Black, 1996). Behaviors involved in proactive socialization improve newcomers' job competence and enable them to effectively navigate their environment (Ashforth et al., 2007). For instance, job- and organization-related information seeking allows newcomers to accumulate

knowledge of different domains (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992) and increase task mastery as well as social integration with the current organization (Morrison, 1993a, 1993b). Moreover, negotiating job changes with supervisors and coworkers enables newcomers to tailor job responsibilities to align with their strengths (Ashford & Black, 1996; Yu & Davis, 2016) and create personalized deals that put them in advantageous positions (Hornung et al., 2008). In addition, relationship building and networking with other members within the organization offers valuable instrumental and social benefits by providing sources of technical expertise, referent guidance, and appraisal information, promoting newcomers' effectiveness and favorable recognition from superiors and peers (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Wang & Kim, 2013; Wolff & Moser, 2009). Overall, newcomers who engage in internal proactive socialization are more likely to successfully socialize themselves in their organization (Saks et al., 2011) and develop a higher level of competitiveness in multiple respects of the current job (Lapalme et al., 2017). Thus, they may consider themselves highly valuable and employable in the current organization (i.e., high perceived internal marketability).

Newcomers perceiving a higher level of internal marketability will feel at ease and foresee opportunities such as promotions and rewards in the current organization (Eby et al., 2003). Perceived internal marketability provides a sense of sustainability and continuity in one's organizational career track (Barthauer et al., 2020). Research has shown that people prefer to remain in a company where they believe they can add value and prosper (Weng et al., 2010). This is because individuals are generally driven to "seek out environments where they have a feeling of success, and maintain their employment within these parameters" (Barthauer et al., 2020, p. 4). Perceived internal marketability thus represents a gravitational pull that strengthens the desire to stay and lowers newcomer turnover (Baranchenko et al., 2020; Mobley et al., 1979). Consistent with this argument, Barthauer et al. (2020) found that

internal employability was negatively related to turnover intention.

To reiterate, a pillar of the social cognitive model of career management is that efficacy information from diverse sources contributes to positive self-assessments of individuals' capabilities and goal attainability; such appraisals set in motion goal-directed proactive actions, resulting in different career outcomes (Lent & Brown, 2013; Lent et al., 2022). It follows that career support mentoring (as a source of sense of competence) may stimulate newcomers' internal proactive socialization (as a form of proactive action), sequentially leading to an increased perception of internal marketability (as a proximal career outcome) and lower newcomer turnover (as a distal outcome). The following hypothesis represents the beneficial retention pathway of career support mentoring for turnover:

***Hypothesis 3.*** Received career support mentoring has a negative indirect effect on newcomer turnover behavior through the serial mediation of internal proactive socialization and perceived internal marketability.

External career self-management (also resulting from career support mentoring) involves planning and enacting strategies to advance one's career outside the current organization (Kossek et al., 1998; Sturges et al., 2010). It is a process by which individuals proactively explore their career options and develop greater awareness of themselves and the external environment (King, 2004). Such proactivity may increase newcomers' job-mobility preparedness and job-market competitiveness. For example, closely monitoring job advertisements, a typical external career self-management behavior, allows newcomers to seize available vacancies and access valuable job-market resources (Sturges et al., 2002). Additionally, externally engaged newcomers invest in career-related training and undertake additional efforts to improve their résumés (Hirschi & Koen, 2021), thus enhancing their chances of securing external job opportunities. Moreover, extra-organizational networking and attention-attracting behaviors equip newcomers with more resources, enabling them to

gather key information about job opportunities and acquire important referrals for possible job changes (Porter et al., 2016; Van Hoye et al., 2009). These benefits may collectively strengthen newcomers' favorable appraisals of their value and potential prospects outside the current organization (i.e., high perceived external marketability).

The relationship between perceived external marketability and turnover is quite straightforward. Externally marketable newcomers believe that they are ready to seize a better job opportunity when it arises (Baranchenko et al., 2020; De Cuyper et al., 2011). Their reliance on the current organization is weakened by the perception that they are easily employable elsewhere (Nelissen et al., 2017). Indeed, perceived alternative employment opportunities and ease of movement have long been recognized as factors contributing to leaving (De Vos et al., 2017; Mobley et al., 1979). Therefore, we can expect that increased external marketability will promote newcomer turnover. It is not uncommon in other research areas to find that retention-promotion practices end up increasing turnover. For example, Benson et al. (2004) discovered that employees are more likely to leave after completing graduate degrees funded by their company. Organizational support in developing general competencies can facilitate cross-organizational transitions (Ito & Brotheridge, 2005).

Overall, we expect career support mentoring to have an unwanted far-reaching impact on turnover through a serial mediation pathway. Similar to the retention pathway (Hypothesis 3), the unintended pathway is informed by the causal chain established in the social cognitive model of career management (i.e., source of efficacy information → goal-directed proactive actions → proximal and distal career outcomes, Lent & Brown, 2013; Lent et al., 2022). The difference is that the proactive action (i.e., external career self-management) and subsequent proximal outcome (i.e., perceived external marketability) in this pathway have opposite implications for newcomer retention. Thus, we hypothesize:

***Hypothesis 4.*** Received career support mentoring has a positive indirect effect on

newcomer turnover behavior through the serial mediation of external career self-management and perceived external marketability.

### **The Moderating Role of Supervisory vs. Non-supervisory Mentors**

In mentoring programs, newcomers can be paired with either direct supervisors or non-supervisors (e.g., senior coworkers) (Kram, 1985; McManus & Russell, 2007). Scholars have acknowledged the significance of the composition of mentoring relationships, particularly the organizational role of mentors, in shaping the ultimate outcomes of mentoring (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Thomas & Lankau, 2009). While there are general guidelines for formal mentoring programs (Allen et al., 2006), the interpersonal and dyadic nature of mentoring makes it impractical to develop a single rigid script that every mentor can follow to deliver identical results. Although non-supervisory mentors may be equally adept at providing career support and fostering proactivity in newcomers, we argue that the role of the mentor influences the direction of such proactivity due to functional role differences.

Specifically, we propose that having supervisory (vs. non-supervisory) mentors strengthens the retention pathway via internal proactive socialization. Supervisors' mentoring role is blended with managerial responsibilities, which involve minimizing human-resource loss and achieving collective goals (Schuler & Jackson, 2007). Consequently, supervisory mentors are more likely to align their specific mentoring activities for newcomers' careers with organizational goals (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Consider the key career mentoring activity of exposing newcomers to developmental opportunities. Supervisory mentors may focus on improving organization-specific skills by setting goals that meet internal organizational needs; by contrast, non-supervisory mentors may offer a broader range of developmental opportunities that foster general competencies for the profession (Kram, 1985; Thomas & Lankau, 2009). Similarly, supervisory mentors are more likely to coach newcomers toward greater integration with the current organization (Payne & Huffman, 2005), while non-

supervisory mentors may not prioritize promoting such integration. In addition, supervisory and non-supervisory mentors may differ in the types of power they can wield to influence protégés. Besides the expert power shared by all mentors, supervisory mentors possess legitimate and positional power (Sosik & Godshalk, 2005), which allows them to have a direct hand in shaping protégés' internal career path and provide targeted guidance on becoming effective organizational members (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Eventually, career support from a supervisory (vs. non-supervisory) mentor is more likely to make newcomers perceive a manageable path toward successful organizational integration, form positive expectations of internal career development, and engage in internal proactive socialization.

In contrast, we expect that having non-supervisory (vs. supervisory) mentors strengthens the unintended detrimental pathway via external career self-management. Typically, non-supervisory mentors do not bear the responsibility of personnel retention and organizational goal attainment, and they are not directly affected by newcomers' departure. This lack of accountability may lead non-supervisory mentors to be less inclined than supervisory mentors to tailor their career support mentoring toward stability and internal job opportunities (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Indeed, non-supervisory mentors may provide more guidance on newcomers' long-term career goals and use their knowledge and professional networks to facilitate newcomers' exploration and learning behaviors beyond organizational boundaries (Scandura & Williams, 2004). Consequently, career support from non-supervisory mentors may inadvertently heighten newcomers' awareness that they can and should keep their options open in a boundaryless career world and thus prompt newcomers' external career self-management behaviors.

Taken together, we propose that mentors' organizational role will shape the direction of newcomer proactivity, with supervisory (vs. nonsupervisory) mentors more likely to channel newcomers' proactivity internally by engaging in proactive socialization (vs.

externally by engaging in career self-management). Taking the dual-pathway model into consideration, the contingency effect of mentors' organizational role will also be reflected in its far-reaching implications for newcomer turnover. Thus, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 5.** Having a supervisory (vs. nonsupervisory) mentor strengthens the effect of received career support mentoring on internal proactive socialization (H5a), as well as its indirect effect on newcomer turnover behavior via internal proactive socialization and perceived internal marketability (H5b).

**Hypothesis 6.** Having a supervisory (vs. nonsupervisory) mentor weakens the effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management (H6a), as well as its indirect effect on newcomer turnover behavior via external career self-management and perceived external marketability (H6b).

### **Ethics, Transparency and Openness**

The studies reported in this paper were approved by Research Ethics Committee of Shandong University, China, ID 20180001 ("Mentoring and newcomer socialization and turnover"). For both studies, we described our sampling plan, data exclusions, and measures and adhered to the *Journal of Applied Psychology* methodological checklist. We conducted our analyses with *Mplus* 8.4. *Mplus* analysis codes for the main analyses are available at [https://osf.io/5g78x/?view\\_only=57c2f874763944dabce46f838d4a2bfb](https://osf.io/5g78x/?view_only=57c2f874763944dabce46f838d4a2bfb). Data are not available due to their proprietary nature. The study design was not preregistered.

## **Study 1**

### **Method**

#### **Sample and Procedures**

The participants were newcomers working in one of the largest information technology (IT) companies in China (more than 30,000 employees). As a standard practice in large corporations in China, this company strategically recruits many new employees each

year to replace personnel losses due to turnover and retirement. The company onboards the newcomers around the same time. We synchronized our data collection with the company's bulk-hiring effort in 2018. At that time, the company had been experimenting with formal mentoring programs for several years to promote newcomer adjustment and manage turnover. The company's Human Resource Management department paired each new employee with a mentor based on expertise similarity immediately after joining the organization. The mentors were experienced senior colleagues (supervisors or non-supervisors) who had voluntarily signed up to coach junior employees. The formal nature of the mentoring programs meant that they had general guidelines for mentors. For example, mentors were advised to have frequent meetings (at least once every week) in the first two to three months following a newcomer's organizational entry; after that, the meeting frequency was left up to each mentor–newcomer pair but was generally around two meetings a month. The forms of the meetings were based on individual preferences, with the goal of fostering newcomers' personal development and professional growth. To facilitate mutual familiarity in the first few months, the company allocated a small budget for social activities between mentors and newcomers (e.g., having coffee or lunch together).

We informed participants that the data would be used for research purposes only and participation was voluntary. To reduce common method bias, we adopted a four-wave design (Podsakoff et al., 2003). At Time 1 (two months after joining the company), we measured the independent variable (i.e., received career support mentoring), the moderator (i.e., mentors' organizational role), demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, education, and job position), and other control variables (i.e., proactive personality and perceived internal and external marketability baselines). At Time 2 (four months after entry), respondents rated their internal proactive socialization and external career self-management. Eight months after joining the organization (Time 3), participants evaluated perceived internal and external marketability. In

the final wave (Time 4; 12 months after entry), participants' employment status was obtained from the company's archival records. The study employed a one-year time frame because the first 12 months are critical for newcomer mentoring and socialization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bauer et al., 2021; Wanberg et al., 2006), and the relatively extended duration allowed for enough variance in turnover behavior to ensure sufficient statistical power (Lee et al., 2017).

We obtained 621 (out of 757) valid questionnaires at Time 1, 600 at Time 2, and 495 at Time 3 (response rate = 65%). We conducted the main analyses using the listwise deletion approach, which rendered 495 observations without missing values.<sup>1</sup> In the final sample, 81% were male. The average age was 25.80 years ( $SD = 2.02$ ). In terms of education, 66% of the participants held an undergraduate degree, and 34% held a postgraduate degree. Regarding the job positions, 63% of the respondents held research-and-development positions, 8% held technical-support positions, 13% held project-implementation positions, and 16% held administrative positions.

## Measures

All items, which had originally been developed in English, were translated into Chinese using translation and back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980). Unless otherwise noted, responses were measured on a five-point scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*.

**Received career support mentoring (Time 1).** Received career support mentoring was measured with the 6-item scale developed by Scandura and Ragins (1993). Participants were instructed to assess the mentoring they had received since joining the firm. A sample

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<sup>1</sup> To address the non-response bias concern (e.g., newcomers who intended to leave or had left the organization between Time 1 and Time 3 were less likely than their colleagues to answer the Time 2 and Time 3 surveys), we conducted a robustness check by modeling missing values at Time 2 and Time 3 (there were no missing values for Time 4 turnover behavior obtained from the archival records) ( $N = 621$ ). The result patterns were similar to those reported in the main analyses (see Online Supplements for details). In addition, using turnover intention as a replacement of actual turnover behavior rendered similar result patterns regardless of whether missing values were modeled.

item is “My mentor takes a personal interest in my career.” The Cronbach’s alpha was .95.<sup>2</sup>

**Role of the mentor (Time 1).** Information about the organizational role of each mentor was obtained from the company’s archival records. We coded supervisory mentors as 1 and non-supervisory mentors as 0. Among the participants, 149 had their own supervisors as mentors, and the rest had other senior colleagues as mentors.

**Internal proactive socialization (Time 2).** We used 17 items from a scale developed by Ashford and Black (1996) that measures participants’ information seeking, job-change negotiating, and relationship building. In this scale, the relationship-building aspect is broken down into general socializing, building relationships with the boss, and networking. We focused on these three aspects following guidance from Wang et al. (2015), which states that the socialization process primarily “addresses newcomers’ proactive role in seeking information, applying self-control strategies, and building relationships” (p. 10). Wang et al. (2015) also point to job-change negotiation as a quintessential self-control strategy.

Participants were instructed to assess their relevant activities since the last survey. A sample item is “I try to form a good relationship with my boss.” The Cronbach’s alpha was .95.

**External career self-management (Time 2).** We used the 16-item scale developed by Sturges et al. (2002) to measure participants’ external career self-management.

Participants were instructed to assess their relevant activities since the last survey. To ensure consistency between our measurement and theorizing, we modified the wording of a few

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<sup>2</sup> The original mentoring scale contained three dimensions: career support, psychosocial support, and role modeling. Our research centers on career support, which aligns with our theoretical focus on newcomer career management. Correlations among the three types of mentoring are typically high, and some studies thus formed a global measure of mentoring by averaging subdimensions (e.g., Chen et al., 2017; Eby et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Spell et al., 2014; Thomas & Lankau, 2009). In our research context, the correlations of career support with psychosocial support and role modeling were .84 and .83 in Study 1 and .68 and .79 in Study 2. Such high correlations were likely due to the high-quality systematic mentoring program offered by the company being surveyed. For reasons explained in the Introduction, we included only received career support mentoring in the main analysis. In performing a robustness check, we controlled for psychosocial support and role modeling during the analysis to examine whether career support could predict above and beyond the other two types of mentoring. The result patterns were similar, except that the main effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management became non-significant ( $p = .105$ ). See Online Supplements for details.

items so that they explicitly reflected externally oriented career self-management (e.g., we changed “I get myself introduced to people who can influence my career” to “I get myself introduced to people in other companies who can influence my career”). Two items (“I ask for feedback on my performance when it is not given” and “I refuse to accept a new role because it will not help me develop new skills”) were dropped owing to their low relevance to our theorizing of external career self-management and the low factor loadings in the original scale. As a result, we retained 14 items to measure external career self-management. The Cronbach’s alpha was .92.

**Perceived internal and external marketability (Time 1 and Time 3).** As explained later, we controlled for newcomers’ initial internal and external marketability baselines. Therefore, these two variables were measured at both Time 1 and Time 3. We measured perceived internal marketability with a three-item scale from Eby et al. (2003). A sample item is “My company views me as an asset to the organization.” The Cronbach’s alpha was .81 at Time 1 and .83 at Time 3. Perceived external marketability was measured with a three-item scale from the same source (sample item: “I could easily obtain a comparable job with another employer”). The Cronbach’s alpha was .83 at Time 1 and .71 at Time 3.

**Turnover behavior (Time 4).** Information about employees’ actual turnover behavior was obtained from organizational records (there was no involuntary turnover during this one-year period). We created a dummy variable where 0 = “remained” and 1 = “left.” Of all the newcomers ( $N = 621$ ), 91 voluntarily left the company (voluntary turnover rate = 15%). This turnover rate is comparable to that seen in similar organizations (e.g., Lu et al., 2019; Tse et al., 2013). As to the final sample ( $N = 495$ ), 26 employees voluntarily left the company. Given the relatively small number of employee departures in the final sample, we considered our model testing relatively conservative (see Online Supplements for a supplementary analysis using the 621 participants).

**Control variables (Time 1).** Proactive personality is an established predictor of proactive behavior and career success (Wu et al., 2018; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003). Therefore, we controlled it to demonstrate the unique influence of received career support mentoring. A four-item proactive-personality scale was adopted from Wu et al. (2014). A sample item is “I am excellent at identifying opportunities.” The Cronbach’s alpha was .75. Also, to increase our confidence that internal and external marketability are indeed the results of the theorized process, we controlled for the baseline of these two variables measured at Time 1. Lastly, we controlled for newcomer demographic characteristics (gender, age, education, and job position), as they were likely to affect individuals’ career-related perceptions and decisions (Guan et al., 2019; Sullivan & Baruch, 2009).<sup>3</sup>

### **Analytical Strategy**

Although all the variables were assessed at the individual level, the data were partly nested because some participants shared supervisors while the rest had a unique supervisor. Therefore, we used the command TYPE = COMPLEX in *Mplus* (Muthén & Muthén, 2009) to account for the influence of potential nonindependence on parameter estimation (e.g., Deng et al., in press). All relationships were included in the same path model and examined in an integrative manner. To test the indirect effects, we applied a bias-corrected bootstrapping approach, which is a recommended practice because it does not involve spurious assumptions about the normal distribution of the indirect effects (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). As turnover behavior was a dichotomous variable, the regression followed a probit link function when it was the dependent variable (the probit model is the default in *Mplus* because it is a more general model for multivariate dependent variables with fewer restrictions). To facilitate interpretation, we mean-centered continuous independent variables prior to our analysis (Aiken & West, 1991).

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<sup>3</sup> Excluding all control variables rendered similar results (see Online Supplements for details).

## Results

**Preliminary analysis.** We conducted confirmatory factor analyses to demonstrate the discriminant validity of the scale measures (i.e., proactive personality, received career support mentoring, internal proactive socialization, external career self-management, perceived internal marketability, and perceived external marketability). Because the ratio of our sample size to the number of free parameters (i.e., 495:156) did not meet the recommended ratio of 10:1 or even the minimum acceptable ratio of 5:1 (Bentler & Chou, 1987), we used the item-to-construct balance technique for building parcels to improve estimation accuracy (Little et al., 2002). Specifically, for variables with six or more items, we created three parcels for each (we used the four item-level indicators to model proactive personality). We followed Little et al.'s (2002) approach, in which the three items with the highest loadings serve to anchor the three parcels, then the three items with the next highest loadings are added to each anchor in an inverted order, and the three items with the next highest loadings are added to the three anchors in turn. This process continues until all items are entered into the parcels. Results showed that the 6-factor model fit the data well:  $\chi^2$  (137,  $N = 495$ ) = 288.00,  $p < .001$ , confirmatory fit index (CFI) = .98, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .97, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05, and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .04. In addition, this model fit the data better than alternative models where items of internal proactive socialization and external career self-management were combined ( $\chi^2$  [142,  $N = 495$ ] = 1,350.76,  $\Delta\chi^2$  [5] = 1,062.76,  $p < .01$ ) or items of perceived internal and external marketability were combined ( $\chi^2$  [142,  $N = 495$ ] = 643.20,  $\Delta\chi^2$  [5] = 355.20,  $p < .01$ ). Table 1 summarizes the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the study variables.

**Mediation model results.** Table 2 presents the path-modeling results for the mediation model. Received career support mentoring was positively related to internal

proactive socialization ( $\gamma = .26, SE = .04, p < .001$ ) and external career self-management ( $\gamma = .11, SE = .04, p = .018$ ), providing support for H1 and H2. Internal proactive socialization was positively related to perceived internal marketability ( $\gamma = .18, SE = .07, p = .006$ ), and perceived internal marketability was negatively related to newcomer turnover behavior ( $\gamma = -.52, SE = .18, p = .005$ ). A one-unit decrease from the mean for perceived internal marketability corresponds to approximately a 10-percentage-point increase in turnover probability. Based on 10,000 bootstrapped samples, the indirect effect of received career support mentoring on perceived internal marketability through internal proactive socialization was .05 with a 95% confidence interval (CI) of [.02, .09]. In addition, the serial indirect effect of received career support mentoring on turnover behavior through internal proactive socialization and perceived internal marketability was significant and negative (coefficient = -.02, 95% CI = [-.06, -.01]), supporting H3. Taken together, these results provide evidence for the retention pathway of received career support mentoring.

Meanwhile, external career self-management was positively related to perceived external marketability ( $\gamma = .24, SE = .06, p < .001$ ), and perceived external marketability was positively associated with turnover behavior ( $\gamma = .41, SE = .16, p = .009$ ). A one-unit increase from the mean for perceived external marketability corresponds to approximately a 7-percentage-point increase in turnover probability. The indirect effect of received career support mentoring on perceived external marketability through external career self-management was significant and positive (coefficient = .03, 95% CI = [.01, .06]). The serial indirect effect of received career support mentoring on turnover behavior through external career self-management and perceived external marketability was also significant and positive (coefficient = .01, 95% CI = [.001, .03]), supporting H4. This set of results supports the unintended detrimental pathway of received career support mentoring.

**Moderated mediation model results.** Table 3 presents the path modeling results for

the moderated mediation model. The moderating effect of the role of the mentor on the relationship between received career support mentoring and internal proactive socialization was not significant ( $\gamma = -.04$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $p = .602$ ). Thus, H5a and H5b were not supported. As expected, the role of the mentor significantly moderated the relationship between received career support mentoring and external career self-management ( $\gamma = -.17$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $p = .042$ ). We plotted the interaction in Figure 3. The effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management was positive and significant when mentors were not supervisors (slope =  $.15$ ,  $p = .003$ ). It became non-significant when mentors were supervisors (slope =  $-.02$ ,  $p = .835$ ). Thus, H6a was supported. Additionally, the conditional indirect effect of received career support mentoring on turnover behavior was significant among non-supervisory mentors (coefficient =  $.02$ , 95% CI =  $[.003, .04]$ ) but not among supervisory mentors (coefficient =  $-.001$ , 95% CI =  $[-.02, .01]$ ). The difference between the two conditional effects was significant (coefficient =  $-.02$ , 95% CI =  $[-.05, -.001]$ ). Therefore, we found support for H6b.

## Discussion

The four-wave survey study over the time span of one year generally supported the proposed dual-pathway model. The role of the mentor only moderated the effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management but not internal proactive socialization. A limitation of this study is that we did not directly test the theoretical mechanisms linking received career support mentoring to internal proactive socialization and external career self-management. Thus, we conducted a follow-up study to empirically test these theoretical mechanisms informed by the social cognitive theory of career management.

## Study 2

### Hypothesis Development

A key tenet of our theorizing that remained untested is that career support mentoring

gives rise to newcomers' proactive behaviors because it promotes their expectations that they can competently and feasibly achieve career goals. More specifically, career support mentoring facilitates newcomers' appraisals of their capabilities (e.g., Renn et al., 2014) and elevates their expectation that they can successfully navigate career advancement inside the organization (i.e., internal career advancement expectation), thus eliciting internal proactive socialization (Scandura & Williams, 2004). Meanwhile, career support mentoring cultivates human capital, broadens horizons, and expands networking, enhancing newcomers' expectation that they can successfully navigate career advancement outside their organization (i.e., external career advancement expectation) (cf. Eby, 1997) and elicit external career self-management. To fully unpack the motivational processes underlying career support mentoring and proactive behaviors, we hypothesize and test internal and external career advancement expectations as important mediating mechanisms linking career support mentoring to internal proactive socialization and external career self-management.

***Hypothesis 7.*** Received career support mentoring has a positive indirect effect on newcomers' internal proactive socialization through internal career advancement expectation.

***Hypothesis 8.*** Received career support mentoring has a positive indirect effect on newcomers' external career self-management through external career advancement expectation.

The main purpose of Study 2 is to extend the research model in Study 1 by directly examining the mechanisms linking received career support mentoring to internal proactive socialization and external career self-management. Due to the data collection constraints, we can only obtain information on newcomers' turnover intention rather than actual turnover behavior. Nevertheless, as turnover theories typically argue that employees' intention to leave relates to actual turnover behavior (Hom et al., 2012; Hom et al., 2017), turnover intention seems a valid proxy for turnover behavior. Jointly considering Hypotheses 7 and 8 and the

differential implications of internal proactive socialization and external career self-management for newcomer turnover, we thus propose:

*Hypothesis 9.* Received career support mentoring has a negative indirect effect on newcomer turnover intention through the serial mediation of internal career advancement expectation and internal proactive socialization.

*Hypothesis 10.* Received career support mentoring has a positive indirect effect on newcomer turnover intention through the serial mediation of external career advancement expectation and external career self-management.

According to our prior theorizing, the organizational role of the mentor moderates the effects of received career support mentoring on proactive behaviors mainly because supervisory and non-supervisory mentors differentially shape newcomers' career advancement expectations. On the one hand, compared to nonsupervisory mentors, supervisory mentors are more likely to tailor mentoring activities based on internal organizational needs and leverage positional power to influence newcomers' internal career path (Raabe & Beehr, 2003). Therefore, newcomers who receive career support mentoring from supervisors (rather than non-supervisors) may find it easier to adjust to and integrate into their current organization, resulting in higher internal career advancement expectation and thus higher internal proactive socialization. Following this logic, having supervisory (vs. non-supervisory) mentors would strengthen the retention pathway via internal career advancement expectation and thereby internal proactive socialization.

On the other hand, non-supervisory mentors, who generally lack the responsibility to retain newcomers, are more likely than supervisory mentors to provide newcomers with general career guidance that may go beyond organizational boundaries (Scandura & Williams, 2004). Such mentoring activities enhance external career advancement expectation, eliciting external career self-management. Therefore, having non-supervisory (vs.

supervisory) mentors likely strengthens the unintended detrimental pathway via external career advancement expectation and thereby external career self-management. Taken together, we hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 11.** Having a supervisory (vs. nonsupervisory) mentor strengthens the effect of career support mentoring on internal career advancement expectation (H11a), as well as its indirect effect on newcomer turnover intention via internal career advancement expectation and internal proactive socialization (H11b).

**Hypothesis 12.** Having a supervisory (vs. nonsupervisory) mentor weakens the effect of career support mentoring on external career advancement expectation (H12a), as well as its indirect effect on newcomer turnover intention via external career advancement expectation and external career self-management (H12b).

## Method

### Participants and Procedure

The participants were newcomers who worked for the same company as the participants in Study 1, but there was no overlap between the two samples. To reduce common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), we adopted a three-wave design. At Time 1 (two months after joining the company), we measured received career support mentoring, the role of the mentor, and control variables (i.e., gender, age, education, and proactive personality). At Time 2 (one month after Time 1), we collected ratings on internal and external career advancement expectations. At Time 3 (one month after Time 2), participants answered questions about internal proactive socialization, external career self-management, and turnover intention. A total of 300 newcomers were invited to participate in this study. We obtained 264 questionnaires at Time 1, 278 at Time 2, and 266 at Time 3. After matching the three waves of data and removing responses with missing values, 193 valid observations remained (response rate = 64%). Of these respondents, 69% were male, and the average age

was 22.99 years ( $SD = 1.61$ ). In terms of education, 78% of the respondents held an undergraduate degree, and 22% held a postgraduate degree.

### Measures

All variables that appeared in Study 1 were measured with the same scales, except that internal proactive socialization was assessed with Ashford and Black's (1996) 24-item full scale<sup>4</sup>. The Cronbach's alphas for proactive personality, received career support mentoring, internal proactive socialization, and external career self-management were .74, .93, .98, and .96, respectively. Internal career advancement expectation (e.g., "I see the feasibility of advancing my career in my current organization") and external career advancement expectation (e.g., "I see the feasibility of advancing my career outside my current organization") were both measured with three items generated for this study. The Cronbach's alphas were .94 and .92, respectively. Turnover intention was measured with three items adapted from Cammann et al. (1979). A sample item is "I often think about quitting." The Cronbach's alpha was .70.

### Analytical Strategy

As in Study 1, the present data were partly nested because some participants shared supervisors, and we used the command `TYPE = COMPLEX` in *Mplus*. All relationships were included in the same path model and examined in an integrative manner. We used a bias-corrected bootstrapping approach for indirect-effect testing. We mean-centered continuous independent variables prior to the analysis.

### Results

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<sup>4</sup> The correlation between the 24-item full scale and the 17-item scale, which overlapped with the Study 1 measure, was .99 ( $p < .001$ ).

**Preliminary analysis.** We conducted confirmatory factor analyses to demonstrate the discriminant validity of the seven scale measures (i.e., proactive personality, received career support mentoring, internal career advancement expectation, external career advancement expectation, internal proactive socialization, external career self-management, and turnover intention). As in Study 1, we created three parcels for each variable with six or more items (we used the four item-level indicators to model proactive personality) using the item-to-construct balance technique (Little et al., 2002). Results showed that the 7-factor model fit the data well:  $\chi^2(188, N = 193) = 331.90, p < .001$ , CFI = .97, TLI = .96, RMSEA = .06, and SRMR = .07. In addition, this model fit the data better than alternative models in which items of internal and external career advancement expectations were combined ( $\chi^2[194, N = 193] = 748.66, \Delta\chi^2[6] = 416.76, p < .01$ ) or items of internal proactive socialization and external career self-management were combined ( $\chi^2[194, N = 193] = 868.33, \Delta\chi^2[6] = 536.43, p < .01$ ). Table 4 summarizes the means, standard deviations, and correlations for the Study 2 variables.

**Mediation model results.** Table 5 presents the path modeling results for the mediation model. Received career support mentoring had a positive indirect effect on internal proactive socialization via the mediation of internal career advancement expectation (coefficient = .26, 95% CI = [.14, .41]), supporting H7. Meanwhile, received career support mentoring had a positive indirect effect on external career self-management via the mediation of external career advancement expectation (coefficient = .09, 95% CI = [.01, .19]), supporting H8. In addition, consistent with H9, received career support mentoring had a negative indirect effect on turnover intention via the serial mediation of internal career advancement expectation and internal proactive socialization (coefficient = -.10, 95% CI = [-.23, -.03]). Lastly, consistent with H10, received career support mentoring had a positive indirect effect on turnover intention via the serial mediation of external career advancement

expectation and external career self-management (coefficient = .04, 95% CI = [.01, .11]).

**Moderated mediation model results.** Table 6 presents the path modeling results for the moderated mediation model. The moderating effect of the role of the mentor on the relationship between received career support mentoring and internal career advancement expectation was not significant ( $\gamma = -.17$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $p = .291$ ). As a result, the role of the mentor did not moderate the indirect effects of received career support mentoring on turnover intention. Thus, H11a and H11b were not supported. As expected, the role of the mentor significantly moderated the relationship between received career support mentoring and external career advancement expectation ( $\gamma = -.54$ ,  $SE = .21$ ,  $p = .009$ ). We plotted the interaction in Figure 4. The effect of received career support mentoring on external career advancement expectation was positive and significant when mentors were not supervisors (slope = .52,  $p = .001$ ). The effect became non-significant when mentors were supervisors (slope = -.03,  $p = .859$ ). Thus, H12a was supported. The conditional indirect effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management via external career advancement expectation was significant among non-supervisory mentors (coefficient = .18, 95% CI = [.08, .34]) but not among supervisory mentors (coefficient = -.01, 95% CI = [-.11, .09]). The difference between the two conditional effects was significant (coefficient = -.19, 95% CI = [-.38, -.05]). In addition, the conditional indirect effect of received career support mentoring on turnover intention via external career advancement expectation and external career self-management was significant among non-supervisory mentors (coefficient = .09, 95% CI = [.03, .20]) but not among supervisory mentors (coefficient = -.004, 95% CI = [-.06, .05]). The difference between the two conditional effects was significant (coefficient =

-.09, 95% CI = [-.22, -.03]). Therefore, we found support for H12b<sup>5,6</sup>.

**Supplemental analyses.** Due to the inclusion of internal and external career advancement expectations as mediators linking received career support mentoring to internal proactive socialization and external career self-management, the current models tested both the direct and indirect effects (via internal and external career advancement expectations) of received career support mentoring and its interaction with the role of the mentor on internal proactive socialization and external career self-management. As a replication effort (Maxwell et al., 2015), we conducted path modeling analysis without modeling internal and external career advancement expectations as mediators. Replicating interaction effects across two studies is particularly meaningful because many contingency effects are rarely replicated in organizational psychology, leading to over-generalization concerns (Maxwell et al., 2015). Table 7 presents the modeling results. The moderating effect of the role of the mentor on the relationship between received career support mentoring and internal proactive socialization was not significant ( $\gamma = -.07$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $p = .639$ ). As expected, the role of the mentor significantly moderated the relationship between received career support mentoring and external career self-management ( $\gamma = -.40$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $p = .012$ ). We plotted the interaction in Figure 5. The effect of received career support mentoring on external career self-management was positive and significant when mentors were not supervisors (slope = .28,  $p = .010$ ). It became non-significant when mentors were supervisors (slope = -.12,  $p = .331$ ). Additionally, the conditional indirect effect of received career support mentoring on turnover intention via external career self-management was significant among non-supervisory mentors (coefficient = .17, 95% CI = [.04, .34]) but not among supervisory mentors (coefficient = -.08, 95% CI =

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<sup>5</sup> As a robustness check, we controlled for psychosocial support and role modeling during the analysis to examine whether career support could predict above and beyond the other two types of mentoring. Our result patterns were similar, except that the main effect of received career support mentoring on external career advancement expectation became marginal ( $p = .092$ ). See Online Supplements for details.

<sup>6</sup> Excluding all control variables rendered similar results (see Online Supplements for details).

[-.25, .07]). The difference between the two conditional effects was significant (coefficient = -.25, 95% CI = [-.49, -.05]).

In addition, one may argue that internal proactive socialization and external career self-management are likely to affect internal and external career advancement expectations. We thus tested alternative models where we switched the model specifications for internal career advancement expectation and internal proactive socialization as well as for external career advancement expectation and external career self-management (i.e., internal proactive socialization and external career self-management behaviors were modeled as mediators linking received career support mentoring to internal and external career advancement expectations, respectively). The alternative mediation model fit the data worse than our hypothesized mediation model ( $\Delta\chi^2 [0] = 36.36, p < .01$ ). In addition, in the alternative model, external career self-management was negatively related to internal career advancement expectation ( $\gamma = -.20, SE = .09, p = .03$ ), which was difficult to justify from a theoretical perspective. By contrast, this association was non-significant in the hypothesized mediation model. Similarly, the alternative moderated mediation model fit the data worse than our hypothesized moderated mediation model ( $\Delta\chi^2 [0] = 46.60, p < .01$ ). In the alternative model, external career self-management was also negatively related to internal career advancement expectation ( $\gamma = -.24, SE = .08, p = .004$ ), and this association was non-significant in the hypothesized model. Our empirical evidence suggests that the hypothesized mediation and moderated mediation model specifications were reasonable.

## **Discussion**

In this study, we found that received career support mentoring was related to internal proactive socialization and external career self-management (and ultimately turnover intention) via the mediation of internal and external career advancement expectations, respectively. In line with Study 1, the organizational role of the mentor in Study 2 moderated

only the unintended detrimental pathway, not the retention pathway. This study offers a meaningful replication of Study 1, and incorporating internal and external career advancement expectations helps unpack the theoretical mechanisms linking received career support mentoring to the two forms of proactive career behaviors based on social cognitive theory. Limitations of Study 2 are that we were unable to capture the mediators (i.e., perceived internal and external marketability) linking proactive career behaviors to newcomer turnover and that we measured newcomer turnover intention along with these proactive behaviors at Time 3 without capturing actual turnover behavior (capturing turnover behavior requires a relatively long time span—6 months at least and 12 months or more in most cases—to generate sufficient variance; Lee et al., 2017; Li et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the two studies complement each other in testing the proposed dual-pathway model and yield consistent findings.

## **General Discussion**

### **Theoretical Implications**

This research has several important theoretical implications. First, our research challenges the dominant view that mentoring programs designed to improve newcomers' career development are an inherently beneficial practice for newcomer retention (e.g., Cai et al., 2020; Farnese et al., 2016; Payne & Huffman, 2005; Scandura & Viator, 1994). We demonstrate that career support mentoring can be both a boon and a bane for newcomer turnover and that two opposing pathways are likely to co-exist. By untangling the mixed effects, our research fills an important theoretical void in the mentoring literature. In addition, our finding that career support mentoring can be a double-edged sword complicates traditional assumptions about organizational support. Previous studies have emphasized that organizational support, including the provision of development opportunities, is reciprocated by employees and thus reduces turnover (e.g., Allen et al., 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2002;

Maertz et al., 2007). Our research suggests that although employees may appreciate such support from their organization, their responses to the support do not always follow the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). In today's boundaryless career world, certain forms of organizational support that enhance employees' skills and career competencies may create a backlash as far as turnover is concerned; employees may take advantage of their firm's resources to promote personal employability across organizational boundaries. Therefore, our research adds to the literature by suggesting the necessity of taking a more dialectical perspective regarding the effects of development-oriented organizational support and human-resource practices.

Second, our research has implications for the social cognitive model of career management. This model seeks to understand the process through which individuals attempt to develop their careers proactively (Lent & Brown, 2013). Our research extends this model by identifying career support mentoring as a potential motivator. Our work also represents a theory-testing effort by directly measuring expectations for two types of career advancement goals (i.e., internal and external career advancement expectations) theorized as the underlying process in this model. Moreover, prior work on the social cognitive model of career management has demonstrated how sources of self-efficacy information promote general career exploration among college students (Lent et al., 2016; Lent et al., 2017). By differentiating between an intraorganizational and interorganizational career exploration pathways for newcomers, our research provides finer-grained insights into the specific content and directions of proactivity that can result from the social cognitive mechanism theorized in this model. Parenthetically, examining how mentoring leads to proactive socialization is meaningful in and of itself because "although research has demonstrated that mentoring is associated with socialization, the process by which this occurs is less understood" (Allen et al., 2017, p. 331). By investigating the mediating role of internal career

advancement expectation in this link, our research advances the knowledge of how mentoring relates to newcomer socialization.

Third, our research not only presents a dual-pathway model that can shed light on the countervailing forces underlying career support mentoring and newcomer turnover but also helps resolve the inconsistency by introducing a key boundary condition—the organizational role of the mentor (i.e., supervisor vs. non-supervisor). Because career support mentoring can decrease and increase newcomer turnover depending on the pathway in play, it is critical to understand which circumstances privilege certain pathways. We have found that when the mentor of newcomers is also their direct supervisor, the unintended detrimental pathway that leads to higher turnover is attenuated. Although the basic functions of career support mentoring may generalize across mentors, especially in formal programs, the moderating effect of the organizational role of the mentor suggests that the specific content and activities during mentor–newcomer interactions may vary according to mentors’ roles and identities. Although we hypothesized that the retention pathway would be more salient among supervisory mentors, we did not find evidence for the hypothesis. It is plausible that, because mentoring was originally designed to support employees’ adjustment to and integration into the current organization, the retention pathway remains robust regardless of who is implementing it in practice.

Finally, proactivity is traditionally portrayed as conducive to organizational success and effectiveness (Crant, 2000; Parker et al., 2006). Our findings contribute to a more refined understanding of the organizational implications of proactivity by demonstrating the importance of investigating the direction of proactive behavior. We differentiate between internally oriented proactive behavior, which focuses on improving one’s role as an organizational member, and externally oriented proactive behavior, which focuses on enhancing one’s competitiveness in the job market. Whereas the former benefits

organizations, the latter is not necessarily so, owing to their distinct effects on newcomer turnover. A key implication here is that, when concluding the organizational impacts of proactive behaviors, we should be more mindful of the type of proactive behavior in which organizational members engage.

### **Practical Implications**

From a practical standpoint, our finding that career support mentoring can possibly lead to voluntary turnover by activating external career self-management is noteworthy because career support mentoring is widely used (Allen et al., 2006) and generally regarded as an effective tool for the management of newcomer retention (Payne & Huffman, 2005; Scandura & Viator, 1994). In this respect, our findings suggest that organizations should be made aware of the unintended consequences associated with career support mentoring so that the organizations can give more consideration to how their design and implementation of mentoring programs can mitigate the programs' unintended negative effects. Our findings show that career support mentoring is less likely to trigger external career self-management and, thus, turnover when the mentoring is delivered by direct supervisors. Organizations are thus recommended to ensure that the mentor of newcomers is, when possible, their supervisor; this strategy would allow organizations to maximize the benefits of career support mentoring in terms of newcomer retention. When non-supervisors are appointed as mentors, organizations need to think about mitigating the potential risk (e.g., by creating communication channels between mentors and supervisors so that the former can provide tailored support that facilitates newcomers' adaptation to the current job and organization). In addition, given the importance of mentors' organizational role, organizations are advised to offer training sessions to all mentors to help them deliver mentoring content that is aligned with organizational needs, goals, and strategies. Our *post hoc* correlational analysis of the data showed that newcomers' job positions may influence some outcomes of interest:

newcomers in research and development positions seemingly perceived higher internal marketability and had lower turnover than those in other positions. A possible explanation for this finding is that, in our sample, newcomers in research and development positions may have had more company-based growth and promotion opportunities than newcomers in support or administrative roles. Therefore, it would be reasonable to advise organizations to pay particular attention to employees whose job positions lack internal career opportunities.

An understanding of why career support mentoring unintentionally leads to turnover also informs the potential remedies. The underlying mechanism is enhanced external career self-management and elevated perceptions of external marketability. To counteract this influence, organizations can couple career support mentoring with other socialization practices that will reinforce newcomers' awareness of their current organization's resources and opportunities. It would seem advisable for organizations to convey to newcomers that they can get timely recognition and rewards in their current organization. Disseminating this message can reduce the likelihood that new employees will seek career advancement opportunities outside the organization.

### **Limitations and Future Directions**

As with any study, the present research has several limitations that should be acknowledged. First, although we adopted time-lagged designs, our results cannot establish causality. In addition, although we obtained data from different sources, there might be common method variance in some relationships based on self-reported data. Future research should consider incorporating mentors' perceptions of protégés as another source of information. That said, common method bias is unlikely to drive the main conclusions of our findings. The inclusion of proactive personality along with other control variables, the time-lagged multi-source design, and the two-study replication are indicative of the overall robustness of our findings (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Second, we relied on data from newcomers in a single IT company. This decision may affect the generalizability of our findings. As this sector is characterized by abundant mobility opportunities and a relatively high turnover rate, participants in this study might have been more prone to use external mobility as a career strategy. In light of this possibility, future research should examine whether our findings can be replicated in other settings (e.g., workplaces with higher levels of age diversity; Fasbender & Gerpott, 2022) and how the external job market and the characteristics of a particular industry may influence the dual pathways by which career support mentoring affects newcomer turnover.

Third, we examined mentors' organizational role as a moderator in the dual-pathway model, but newcomers' own characteristics may also matter. For example, we know that individuals with a protean career orientation tend to be values- and self-driven when they define career identities and pursue career goals (Briscoe & Hall, 2006; Cortellazzo et al., 2020). Thus, these individuals are more likely to react to career support mentoring with external career self-management, which increases the likelihood of turnover. In contrast, employees with a high aversion to change (such as those low on openness to experience; Boudreau et al., 2001; Vinson et al., 2007) may tend to make use of career support mentoring to develop their internal marketability and hence are less likely to leave. Future research could explore these additional boundary conditions to offer more insights into how firms can ensure that career support mentoring serves its intended purpose.

Finally, we examined how the prevalence of each pathway could be shaped at the first stage of the model, from career support mentoring to internal and external proactive behaviors. Future research would do well to consider contingency factors at the later stage of the model. For example, newcomers with high openness to experience are more likely to seek out novel and diverse experiences (McCrae & Costa, 1997) and therefore take advantage of their high external marketability and leave for newer pastures. On the other hand, the

retention function of high internal marketability may be more salient for those newcomers with high conscientiousness owing to their characteristic traits of diligence and responsibility.

### **Conclusion**

There is a consensus that career support mentoring is instrumental to newcomer retention. We have complemented this perspective by demonstrating that career support mentoring may bring both benefits and costs to an organization. We have also shown that the extent to which the unintended consequence of career support mentoring manifests itself depends on whether the mentor of newcomers is their supervisor. We hope that our work provides a more fine-grained way of theorizing career support mentoring and stimulates new directions for future mentoring research.

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**Table 1.**  
*Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	.19	.39	—									
2. Age	25.80	2.02	-.05	—								
3. Education	.34	.47	.01	.84**	—							
4. Position 1	.63	.48	-.33**	.25**	.22**	—						
5. Position 2	.08	.28	.04	-.12**	-.14**	-.40**	—					
6. Position 3	.13	.34	.09	-.22**	-.26**	-.51**	-.12**	—				
7. Proactive personality	3.69	.63	-.07	.12*	.13**	.06	-.02	-.06	(.75)			
8. Perceived internal marketability baseline	3.74	.70	-.10*	.20**	.21**	.05	.02	-.08	.38**	(.81)		
9. Perceived external marketability baseline	3.07	.74	-.03	.03	.07	.07	-.03	-.05	.14**	.04	(.83)	
10. Received career support mentoring	3.99	.82	-.06	.09*	.09*	.10*	.00	-.04	.28**	.54**	-.02	(.95)
11. The role of the mentor	.30	.46	-.01	.13**	.07	-.04	.01	-.06	-.08	-.05	-.07	.00
12. Internal proactive socialization	3.74	.70	-.06	.10*	.12**	.04	-.10*	-.01	.31**	.37**	.06	.42**
13. External career self-management	3.35	.69	-.02	.06	.02	-.01	.00	.05	.23**	.17**	.23**	.18**
14. Perceived internal marketability	3.59	.67	-.13**	.15**	.13**	.13**	-.04	-.04	.26**	.42**	-.01	.30**
15. Perceived external marketability	2.56	.71	-.10*	.05	.01	-.03	.06	.03	.06	-.05	.29**	-.08
16. Turnover behavior	.05	.22	.00	-.05	-.07	-.08	-.01	.13**	.10*	-.02	.01	.05
Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16						
11. The role of the mentor	—											
12. Internal proactive socialization	-.03	(.95)										
13. External career self-management	-.09*	.63**	(.92)									
14. Perceived internal marketability	.03	.32**	.10*	(.83)								
15. Perceived external marketability	-.04	-.01	.27**	-.21**	(.71)							
16. Turnover behavior	-.08	.07	.04	-.12*	.12**	—						

*Notes.* *N* = 495. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor. For turnover behavior, 0 = remain in the organization, 1 = left the organization. Position 1 = research & development position; Position 2 = technical support position; Position 3 = project implementation position. Position was dummy coded with administrative position as the reference group. Cronbach's alpha coefficients are presented in parentheses along the diagonal.

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

**Table 2.**

*Study 1: Unstandardized Path Modeling Results (Mediation)*

	Internal proactive socialization		External career self-management		Perceived internal marketability		Perceived external marketability		Turnover behavior	
	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE
Intercept or threshold	3.87**	.08	3.47**	.09	2.87**	.40	2.15**	.43	1.13	1.37
<i>Control variables</i>										
Gender	-.08	.07	.00	.08	-.07	.07	-.21**	.07	-.03	.46
Age	-.01	.02	.06*	.02	.02	.03	.05	.03	.05	.09
Education	.08	.09	-.22*	.11	-.04	.10	-.13	.12	-.39	.53
Position 1	-.15*	.07	-.04	.08	.21*	.08	-.11	.09	-.19	.44
Position 2	-.33*	.15	.01	.15	.12	.12	.10	.12	-.14	1.44
Position 3	-.06	.10	.12	.12	.17	.11	.01	.11	.34	.46
Proactive personality	.18**	.06	.16**	.06	.09	.05	.03	.05	.48*	.20
Perceived internal marketability baseline	.13*	.06	.04	.06	.30**	.05	-.07	.06	-.16	.22
Perceived external marketability baseline	.04	.05	.20**	.04	-.04	.05	.23**	.05	-.15	.18
<i>Independent variables</i>										
Received career support mentoring	.26**	.04	.11*	.04	.02	.05	-.06	.05	.21	.16
The role of the mentor (supervisor = 1)	-.02	.06	-.10	.06	.08	.06	-.04	.06	-.35	.55
<i>Mediators</i>										
Internal proactive socialization					.18**	.07	-.06	.07	.24	.18
External career self-management					-.04	.06	.24**	.06	-.13	.17
Perceived internal marketability									-.52**	.18
Perceived external marketability									.41**	.16
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.25		.13		.25		.17		.30	

*Notes.* *N* = 495. *SE* = Standard Error. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor. For turnover behavior, 0 = remain in the organization, 1 = left the organization. Position 1 = research & development position; Position 2 = technical support position; Position 3 = project implementation position. Position was dummy coded with administrative position as the reference group. The regression followed a probit link function when turnover behavior was the dependent variable.

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

**Table 3.**

*Study 1: Unstandardized Path Modeling Results (Moderated Mediation)*

	Internal proactive socialization		External career self-management		Perceived internal marketability		Perceived external marketability		Turnover behavior	
	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE
Intercept or threshold	3.87**	.08	3.47**	.09	2.87**	.40	2.16**	.43	1.15	1.37
<i>Control variables</i>										
Gender	-.08	.07	-.01	.07	-.07	.07	-.21**	.07	-.03	.47
Age	-.01	.02	.06*	.03	.02	.03	.05	.03	.05	.09
Education	.08	.09	-.22*	.11	-.04	.10	-.13	.12	-.39	.54
Position 1	-.15*	.07	-.04	.08	.21*	.08	-.11	.09	-.19	.46
Position 2	-.33*	.15	.01	.15	.12	.12	.10	.12	-.14	1.45
Position 3	-.06	.10	.11	.12	.17	.11	.01	.11	.34	.48
Proactive personality	.18**	.06	.16**	.06	.10	.05	.03	.05	.48*	.20
Perceived internal marketability baseline	.13*	.05	.04	.05	.30**	.05	-.07	.06	-.16	.22
Perceived external marketability baseline	.04	.04	.20**	.04	-.04	.05	.23**	.05	-.15	.17
<i>Independent variables</i>										
Received career support mentoring (CS)	.27**	.05	.15**	.05	.01	.05	-.06	.05	.20	.18
The role of the mentor (supervisor = 1)	-.02	.06	-.11*	.06	.08	.06	-.04	.06	-.35	.60
CS × The role of the mentor	-.04	.08	-.17*	.08	.03	.07	.01	.09	.04	.37
<i>Mediators</i>										
Internal proactive socialization					.18**	.07	-.06	.07	.25	.17
External career self-management					-.03	.06	.24**	.06	-.13	.17
Perceived internal marketability									-.52**	.18
Perceived external marketability									.41**	.16
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.25		.14		.25		.17		.31	

*Notes.* *N* = 495. *SE* = Standard Error. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor. For turnover behavior, 0 = remain in the organization, 1 = left the organization. Position 1 = research & development position; Position 2 = technical support position; Position 3 = project implementation position. Position was dummy coded with administrative position as the reference group. The regression followed a probit link function when turnover behavior was the dependent variable.

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

**Table 4.***Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables*

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	.31	.46	—										
2. Age	22.99	1.61	-.12	—									
3. Education	.22	.41	-.11	.76**	—								
4. Proactive personality	3.53	.59	-.09	.02	-.01	(.74)							
5. Received career support mentoring	3.75	.74	-.03	.17*	.12	.22**	(.93)						
6. The role of the mentor	.45	.50	.03	.09	.16*	.16*	.12	—					
7. Internal career advancement expectation	3.91	.77	.10	-.03	.06	.11	.49**	.03	(.94)				
8. External career advancement expectation	3.31	.89	-.06	-.09	-.05	.16*	.20**	-.10	.37**	(.92)			
9. Internal proactive socialization	3.74	.72	.08	.03	.09	.26**	.29**	.10	.57**	.32**	(.98)		
10. External career self-management	3.39	.76	-.07	.06	.01	.28**	.14	.06	.25**	.48**	.69**	(.96)	
11. Turnover intention	2.59	.79	-.05	.03	-.06	-.04	-.23**	-.01	-.30**	.17*	-.15*	.21**	(.70)

*Notes.*  $N = 193$ . For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor. Cronbach's alpha coefficients are presented in parentheses along the diagonal.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

**Table 5.***Study 2: Unstandardized Path Modeling Results (Mediation)*

	Internal career advancement expectation		External career advancement expectation		Internal proactive socialization		External career self-management		Turnover intention		
	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	
Intercept	3.80**	.07	3.42**	.09	1.44**	.35	1.73**	.42	2.71**	.35	
<i>Control variables</i>											
Gender	.18*	.09	-.10	.12	.09	.09	-.05	.10	.07	.11	
Age	-.13*	.06	-.10	.07	.01	.05	.10	.05	.06	.05	
Education	.42*	.20	.16	.24	.08	.16	-.26	.18	-.16	.20	
Proactive personality	.03	.10	.21	.13	.23**	.08	.25**	.09	-.08	.10	
<i>Independent variables</i>											
Received career support mentoring	.53**	.08	.24*	.12	-.04	.10	-.08	.10	-.13	.10	
The role of the mentor (supervisor = 1)	-.08	.10	-.25*	.12	.09	.08	.12	.10	.08	.10	
<i>Mediators</i>											
Internal career advancement expectation					.48**	.09	.12	.10	-.21	.12	
External career advancement expectation					.10*	.05	.37**	.06	.17*	.08	
Internal proactive socialization									-.40*	.16	
External career self-management									.47**	.12	
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.28		.09		.37		.28		.40		

Notes.  $N = 193$ .  $SE$  = Standard Error. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor.

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

**Table 6.***Study 2: Unstandardized Path Modeling Results (Moderated Mediation)*

	Internal career advancement expectation		External career advancement expectation		Internal proactive socialization		External career self-management		Turnover intention		
	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	
Intercept	3.80**	.07	3.43**	.09	1.41**	.37	1.81**	.44	2.71**	.36	
<i>Control variables</i>											
Gender	.19*	.09	-.09	.12	.09	.09	-.05	.10	.07	.11	
Age	-.14*	.06	-.11	.07	.02	.05	.09	.06	.06	.05	
Education	.44*	.20	.21	.24	.08	.16	-.24	.18	-.16	.20	
Proactive personality	.04	.10	.24	.13	.23**	.08	.27**	.09	-.08	.10	
<i>Independent variables</i>											
Received career support mentoring (CS)	.61**	.10	.52**	.16	-.07	.16	.03	.14	-.14	.13	
The role of the mentor (supervisor = 1)	-.08	.10	-.25*	.12	.09	.08	.11	.10	.08	.10	
CS × The role of the mentor	-.17	.16	-.54**	.21	.06	.15	-.19	.16	.01	.15	
<i>Mediators</i>											
Internal career advancement expectation					.49**	.09	.11	.10	-.21	.12	
External career advancement expectation					.10	.05	.35**	.07	.17*	.08	
Internal proactive socialization									-.40*	.17	
External career self-management									.47**	.12	
$R^2$	.29		.14		.37		.29		.40		

Notes.  $N = 193$ .  $SE$  = Standard Error. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

**Table 7.***Study 2: Unstandardized Path Modeling Results without Modeling Career Advancement Expectations (Moderated Mediation)*

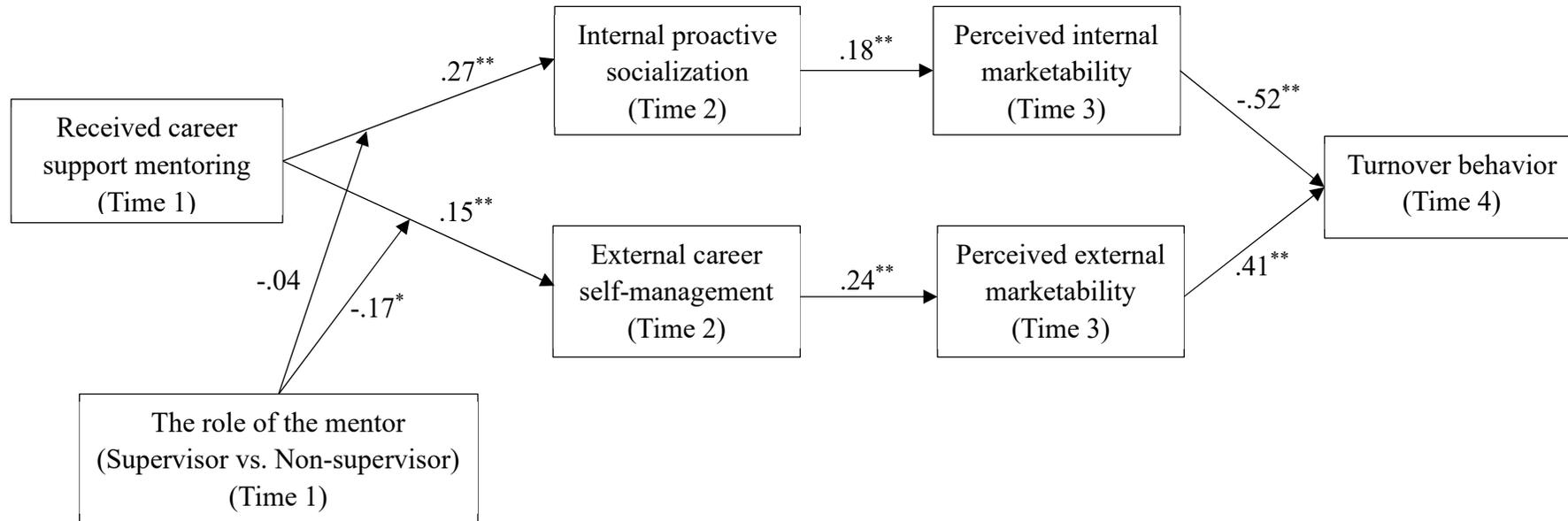
	Internal proactive socialization		External career self-management		Turnover intention	
	Est.	SE	Est.	SE	Est.	SE
Intercept	3.61**	.08	3.45**	.08	2.56**	.42
<i>Control variables</i>						
Gender	.17	.10	-.06	.11	.05	.11
Age	-.06	.07	.04	.08	.05	.05
Education	.31	.21	-.11	.23	-.15	.20
Proactive personality	.27**	.10	.36**	.11	-.06	.10
<i>Independent variables</i>						
Received career support mentoring (CS)	.28*	.13	.28*	.11	-.18	.13
The role of the mentor (supervisor = 1)	.02	.10	.01	.11	.05	.10
CS × The role of the mentor	-.07	.16	-.40*	.16	.002	.16
<i>Mediators</i>						
Internal proactive socialization					-.55**	.13
External career self-management					.62**	.11
$R^2$	.15		.13		.45	

Notes.  $N = 193$ .  $SE$  = Standard Error. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. For education, 0 = undergraduate degree, 1 = postgraduate degree. For the role of the mentor, 0 = nonsupervisory mentor, 1 = supervisory mentor.

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

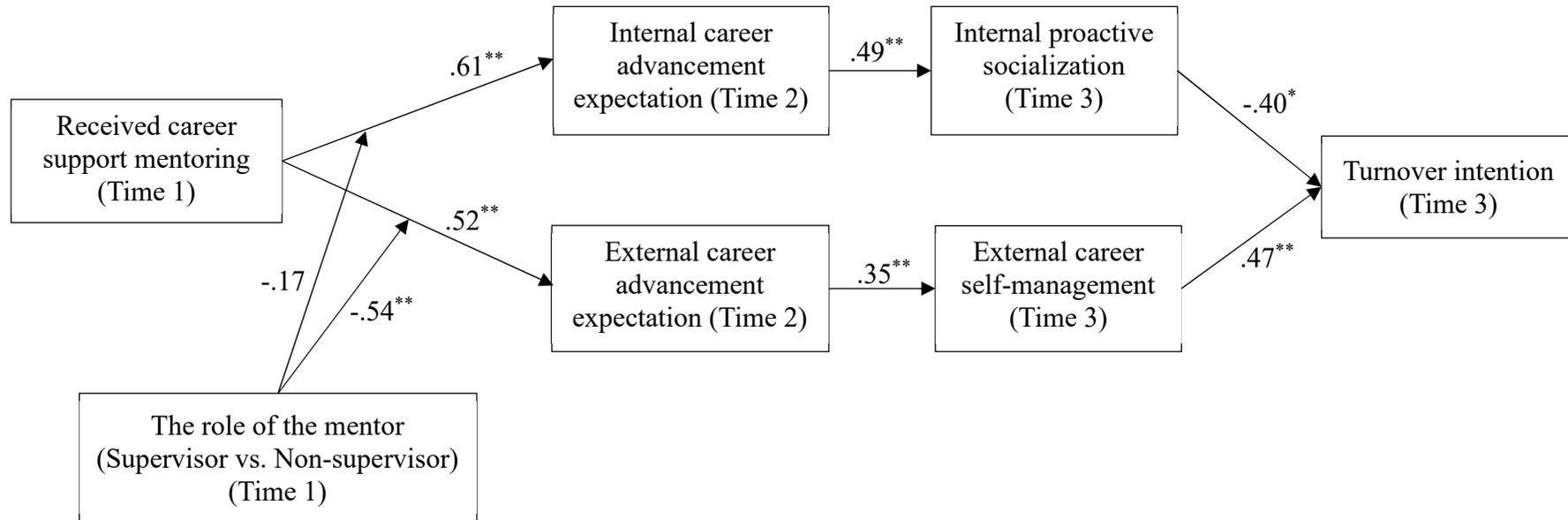
**Figure 1.**

*Study 1: Research Model and Result Summary*



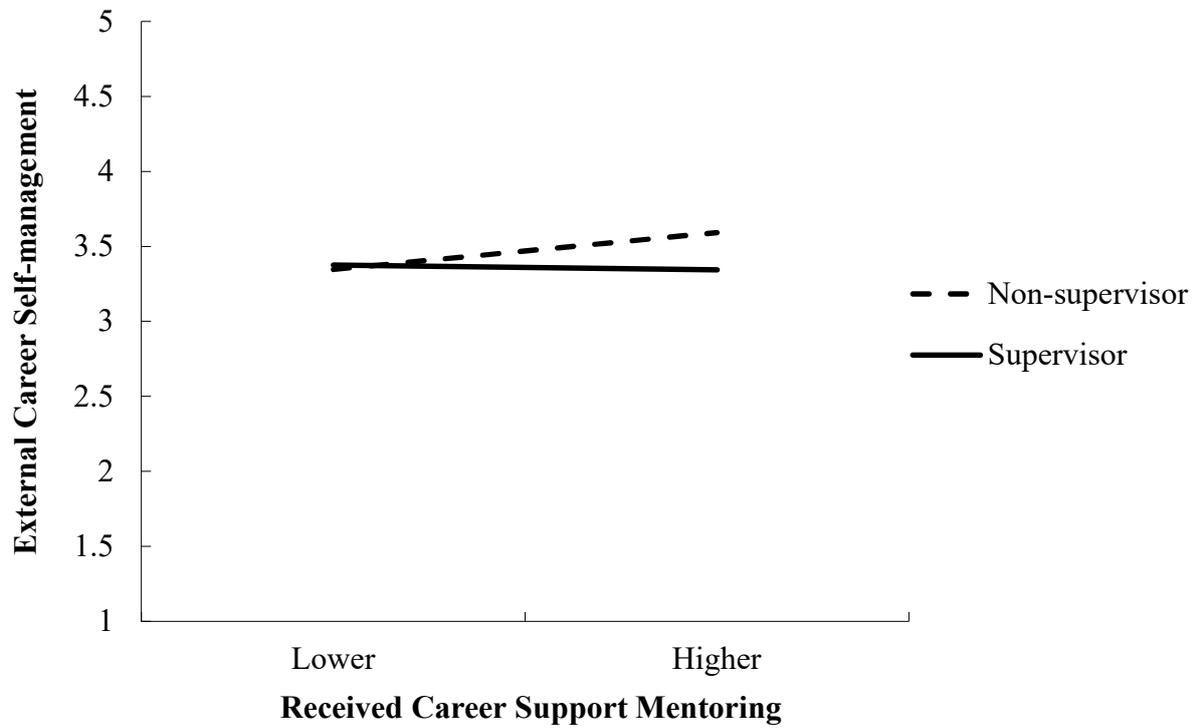
**Figure 2.**

*Study 2: Research Model and Result Summary*



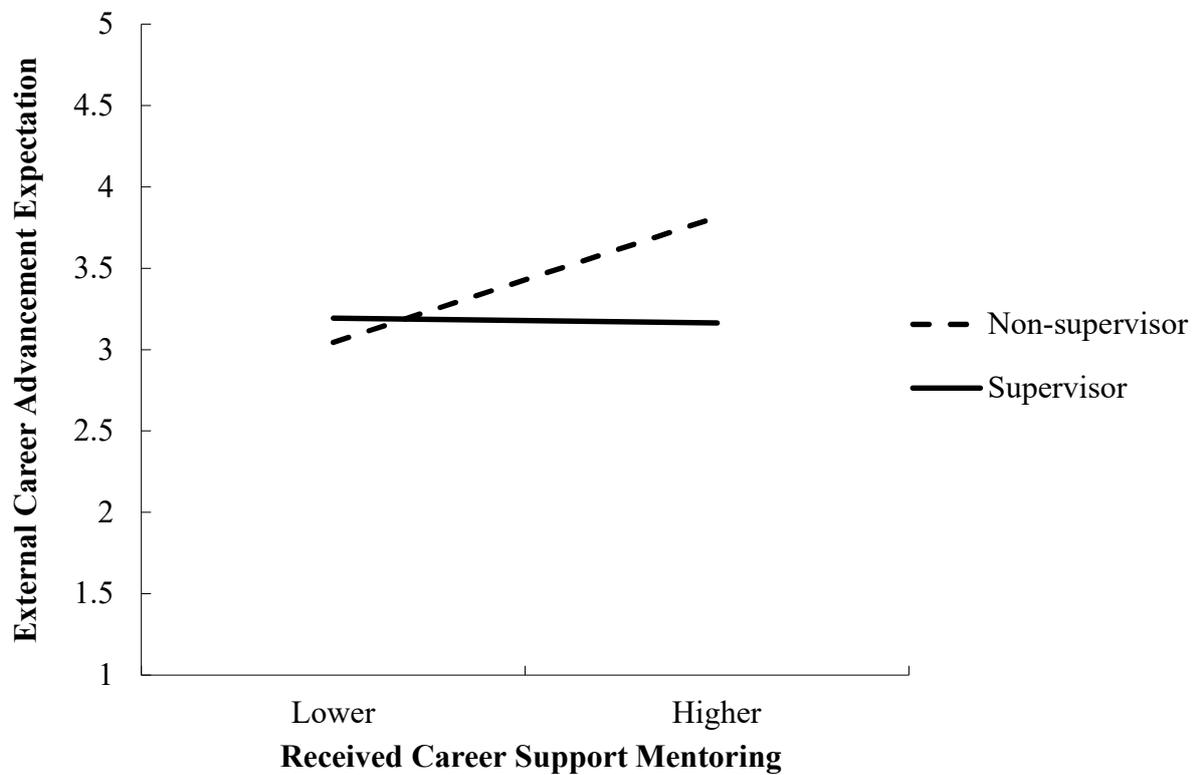
**Figure 3.**

*Study 1: The Interaction between Received Career Support Mentoring and the Role of the Mentor on External Career Self-management*



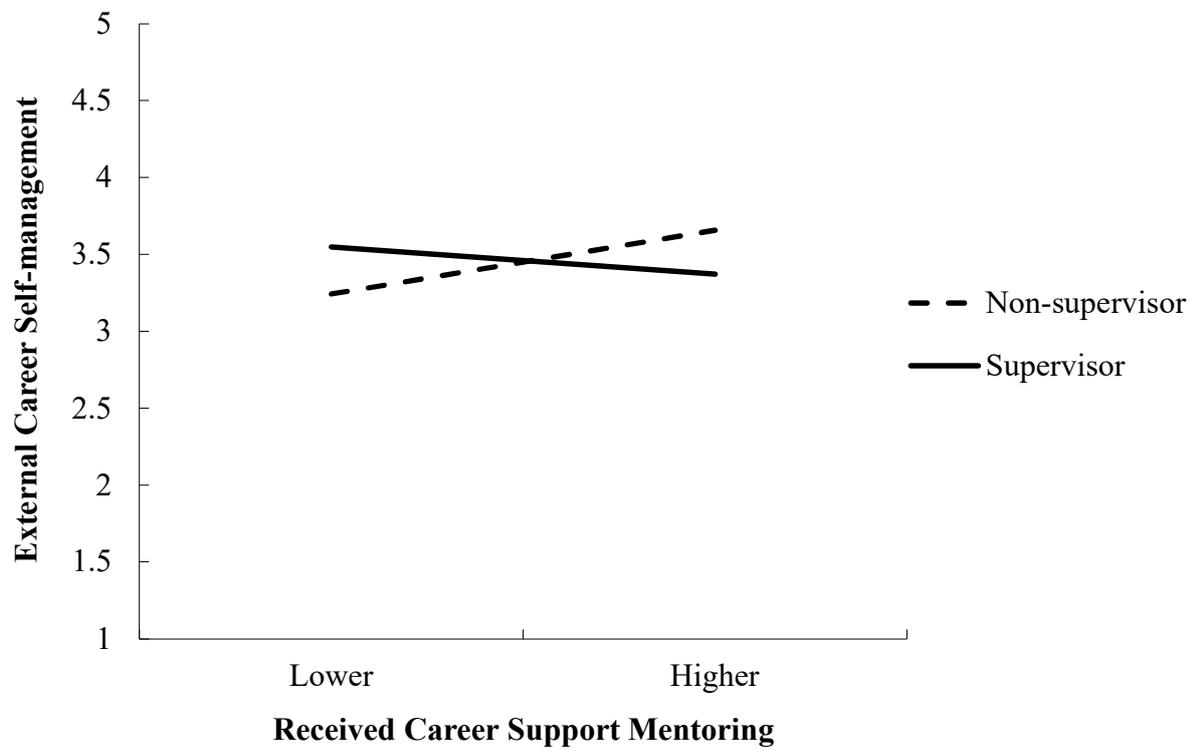
**Figure 4.**

*Study 2: The Interaction between Received Career Support Mentoring and the Role of the Mentor on External Career Advancement Expectation*



**Figure 5.**

*Study 2: The Interaction between Received Career Support Mentoring and the Role of the Mentor on External Career Self-management*





**Citation on deposit:**

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