

ADOLESCENT PERSPECTIVES ON THE FUNCTIONING MENTOR ROLE

By

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A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

2013

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To all of God's precious children

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

From every fiber of my being I outpour gratitude and thanks to my Lord Jesus Christ. Through Him alone was I given the mental stamina to complete this thesis. I thank my Mom and Dad for their unconditional support and guidance, from my birth to present. Lastly, I thank my committee members: Jerry Culen, Rose Barnett, and Nicole Stedman; and the CYFAR team for autonomy and endorsement throughout the research process.

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Abstract of Thesis Presented to the Graduate School
of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science

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May 2013

Chair: Jerry Culen

Major: Family Youth and Community Sciences

Mentoring is a growing intervention strategy for at-risk adolescent. Yet, how influential is mentoring in the development of at-risk youth? The inquiry fueling this study was to determine whether adolescents perceive their mentors as complementary or compensatory to their primary caregiver regarding adolescent socialization. The findings of this study can inform current mentoring purposes and practices towards more advantageous methods of intervention for at-risk youth. Participants were 29 at-risk adolescents who completed semi-structured interviews examining the level of influence their mentor and primary caregiver had on their socialization. Interviews were transcribed then analyzed using an inductive content analysis, which involved a systematic reading of interviews and analytic coding procedures (Patton, 2002; Weber, 1990). Results indicated that adolescents perceived their mentor (1) was complementary to their primary caregiver and (2) less impactful than the primary caregiver in multiple domains of socialization. The study also revealed that the mentor was more influential on adolescent socialization when (1) the duration of the mentor relationship was longer, (2) the intensity of the mentor relationship was higher, and (3) when the mentor and primary caregiver were in relationship with each other. These

results are discussed pertaining to implications for mentoring program and practice improvements and future directions of research.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Background

Historically parents have been the primary figures responsible for socializing and rearing children to be contributing and positive members of society (Larson & Richards, 1994; Masten, 1994; Parke & Buriel, 1998; Scales & Gibbons, 1996). A plethora of research exists on the functions parents have on the socialization and development of children and adolescents (Foster-Clark, 2003; Hendry et al., 1992). As Social Learning Theory posits, children learn behaviors primarily by observing and then imitating the behaviors of others (Learning Theories Knowledgebase, 2011). The more a child is exposed to certain traits, behaviors and mentalities the more likely that child will learn and perpetuate those traits, behaviors and mentalities (Snyder et al, 2003).

Researchers have been in agreement that parents (or primary care-givers) are the most influential person in a child's development and life outcome (Bronfenbrenner, 1958; Heilbrun, 1965; Sopchak, 1952). According to Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1969), this is a result of consistent exposure and contact with their parental counterparts, who demonstrate and teach children how to behave. Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969) also explains aspects of behavior formation through the strong and complex parent-child relationship. Social Support Theory (Heller et al., 1986) further expounds on the significant role that a strong adult bond has on the development of and resiliency of adolescents.

As society has shifted in numerous dimensions, the role of child socialization has moved from primarily parents' duty to a shared role with day-care workers, teachers and other community members. As this responsibility of socialization has been increasingly

shared, adolescents are seemingly less exposed to one-on-one adult interaction and instead placed in “herding” environments. This was reflected in Former U.S. Commissioner of Education Harold Howe II’s (1989) statement that schools have become “impersonal teaching factories.” The complex and multifarious parent-child bond is not emulated in these temporary adult-child interactions. Therefore, the necessary affects that accompany a strong and secure adult attachment are lacking for many adolescents. The settings in which children are expected to develop and learn appropriate behaviors have become less intimate and personal. Children and adolescents are then provided insufficient adult bonds, which impeded maturation (Rice, 1990). Nightingale and Wolverson (1993) reported at Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, “Adolescence has become a waiting period of enforced leisure with few responsibilities and little or no meaningful contact with adults.” Research has been consistent in showing that countless damaging repercussions result from lack of adult attachments and supervision (Flannery et al., 1999; Petit, Bates, Dodge & Meece, 1999). Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory both theoretically guide these discoveries in proposing that adolescent’s engagement in negative behaviors is attributed to the absence of consistent interactions with positive adults (Hurd et al, 2011).

Youth delinquency can be attributed to adolescents primarily being exposed to negative behaviors, of which they imitate. This was supported in the research of Miller and Donald (1941), who found that if negative and risky behaviors are demonstrated to and around adolescents on a frequent basis, they will mimic such behaviors. More recent research (Rivara, Sweeney, and Henderson, 1987; Bandura, 1986; Huesmann,

1988; Anderson, 1990; Bell & Jenkins, 1993; Greenberger, Chen, & Beam, 1998; Zimmerman, Steinman, & Rowe, 1998; Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Synder et al., 2003; Hurd et al., 2011) has provided further empirical support that youth delinquency is strongly associated with adolescents being exposed to negative behaviors, of which they imitate. In disadvantaged communities, the occurrence of violence, antisocial, and destructive behaviors has been far more prevalent, which has resulted in exposed adolescents learning and acclimating such values, behaviors and norms (Bell & Jenkins, 1993). Negative behaviors demonstrated by adults have fostered adolescents to engage in the same behaviors. When adolescents then grow into adults, they perpetuate the same behaviors to the next generation (Zimmerman, Steinman, & Rowe, 1998, Hurd et al, 2011). Proper socialization requires exposure to positive and constructive behaviors, yet research has continued to demonstrate a decrease in the availability and exposure of positive adult role models and support in the lives of adolescents (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Putnam, 2000; Rhodes, 2002). If natural positive role models do not exist in the community, then adolescents need to be directed elsewhere to find positive adult relationships to guide their maturation. Yet, the question arises, even if positive role models are provided, will their presence trump the negative factors surrounding the adolescents?

In aims to ameliorate the lack of positive role models, mentoring has been a widely implemented intervention. This study sought to further understand the role mentoring plays in adolescent development, specifically in comparison to the parental bond.

Rationale of Study

Based on the 2010 National Survey of School Violence and Discipline, 74 % of schools in the U.S. experienced violent incidents, defined by the frequency of incidents, such as physical attacks, robberies, and thefts in the school. Then, 26 % of schools reported having problems with distribution, possession and use of illegal drugs and 14 % problems with the distribution of, possession, and use of alcohol while at school (U.S. Dept of Education, 2010). Whereas in 1990, 23 % of U.S. schools reported problems with students physically fighting, 6 % reported problems of student drug use while at school and 10 % had problems with student alcohol use (U.S. Dept of Education, 1996). Within a twenty-year period the frequency of youth violence in schools drastically increased. However, it was in 1972 that youth violence in schools had risen to a point of receiving federal recognition and intervention (Jaslow, 1978). Thus youth violence and poor behavioral conduct has been on the incline for at-least the past forty years.

Interventions have been initiated in attempt to temper and eradicate this growing problem. However, although many such programs exist, negative behaviors among at-risk adolescents are continuing to increase (Dryfoos, 1990). With the growth of research related to this topic, scholars and practioners have documented the large contribution that a lack of parental or adult influence and support play into the increase of youth delinquency (Flannery, Williams & Vazsonyi, 1999; Galambos & Maggs, 1991; Goldstein, David-Kean & Eccles, 2005; Hurd et al, 2011; Mahoney & Stattin, 2000; McHale, Crouter, & Tucker, 2001; Pettit, Bates, Dodge & Meece, 1999). As a result, community organizations and educational systems have more recently established a number of relationship-based intervention programs designed to improve the academic, behavioral and mental struggles underprivileged adolescents face. Examples of these

types of programs are Big Brother Big Sister, Friends of Children, Mentoring USA, etc. The common goal of these programs can be summarized as seeking to ameliorate negative behaviors among adolescents and promote positive maturation into contributing members of society, through the implementation of a supportive and positive adult into the youth's life. Essentially, the objective is that staff would provide a supportive and exemplary adult relationship in the adolescent's life and more frequently expose the adolescent positive behaviors. Thus, then impacting the behaviors the adolescent learns and emulates. Mentoring increases adolescent's exposure to positive behaviors, by providing role models and connections to community resources. Research consistently demonstrates measureable improvements on youth delinquency, mental-well being, academic success, and positive life outcomes for adolescents who have a positive mentor (Catalano et al, 2004; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002).

As these programs become more prevalent, research continues to further examine the best practices associated with mentoring and positive role modeling with adolescents. One particular area of concern that has not been addressed is the perspective adolescents have on their mentors in comparison to their parents, as to who is most influential in shaping their behaviors and life trajectory. This study will examine how individual adolescents perceive the role of their mentor in comparison to their parental bond and compare and contrast the differences these roles play on the youth's development.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the perspectives of adolescents in regards to the relationship between their mentors and their primary attachment (primary caregiver). The study seeks to determine if adolescents perceive the mentor as serving

as complementary or compensatory to their primary attachment. Specifically, this study will examine the mentoring relationship in afterschool settings.

Research Questions

#1: How do at-risk adolescents with mentors in afterschool settings perceive the function of their relationship with mentors in relation to their primary caregiver? Do at-risk adolescents perceive their mentor relationships as serving a compensatory (compensate for absence of strong primary attachment) or complementary (in addition to a strong primary attachment) function?

#2: How do at-risk adolescents with mentors in community settings perceive the function of their relationship with mentors in relation to their primary caregiver? Is their mentor relationship perceived as compensatory or complementary?

These research questions are essentially seeking to understand how adolescents perceive their mentoring relationship in specific reference to compensatory or complementary functions with relation to their primary caregiver. The intent of two different research questions was not comparative, but rather to include both the afterschool and community settings in the research. Compensatory functions can be described as substituting for a poor primary attachment and bearing stronger impacts on the behaviors and life trajectory of the youth. Complementary functions refer to a mentor whose effects are merely additional and secondary to the primary caregiver's influence.

Research Hypothesis

A case study often does not employ a hypothesis because the design is based on asking "How" and "Why" research questions (Yin, 2009). Because this study is inductive by nature, a hypothesis would be restrictive and would limit or steer the

youth's responses in a particular direction (Lloyd-Jones, 2003; Hammersley, 1992). Rather, this study will suggest a proposition based on the literature review. This proposition will reflect the reasons why certain variables (e.g. duration, intensity and quality of the mentoring relationship and the strength of primary attachments) will provide insight on the effects of mentoring as perceived by adolescents.

Due to the nature of the research questions and the research design of this study, comparison groups cannot be determined beforehand. However, groups will evolve as the data are gathered and analyzed. It is predicted that the groups that will emerge in the study will be determined by the adolescents' descriptions of their mentoring relationship and primary attachment. The adolescents' responses will highlight which individual(s) most shape their behaviors and life trajectory.

Despite the plethora of research on mentoring, limited research exists pertaining to adolescent's perception of the mentor relationship in comparison to their primary caregiver. Based on the literature, this research study posits that adolescents who have a stronger primary attachment will characterize a mentor as a complementary figure, whereas the adolescents who have a weak primary attachment will characterize a mentor as a compensatory figure. Furthermore, adolescents who report a higher quality relationship with their mentor will be more likely to attribute the mentor to a compensatory figure. Whereas, those who report low levels of quality in their mentoring relationship will be more likely to perceive their mentor as a complementary figure in relation to their primary caregiver (Figure 1-1). The quality of the mentoring relationship (further described in Chapter 2) is as defined by the current research (Dubois et al.,

2002; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002; Herrerra et al., 2000; Langhout et al., 2004; Morrow & Styles, 1992; Rhodes, Reddy, Roffman, & Grossman, 2005).

All of the data collected were qualitative, and therefore, no statistical hypothesis or data were included in this study. This study employed a method of qualitative data collection in the form of semi-structured interviews. Although the Youth Mentor Relationship Quality Inventory and the Parent-Child Attachment Surveys are widely used and proven reliable measures (Folan & Britner, 2009; George & Solomon, 1999; Little, Kearney & Britner, 2010; Rhodes et al., 2005; Robinson et al. 1996; Turner, 2005; Zand et al., 2009), it was determined a more comprehensive and in-depth answer could be generated from the adolescents through qualitative data. Open-ended interview questions best fit the study's proposed objectives (Richards & Morse, 2007).

Definitions

ADOLESCENCE. "A period of the life course between the time puberty begins and the time adult status is approached, when young people are preparing to take on the roles and responsibilities of adulthood in their culture" (Arnett, 2010).

ADOLESCENTS. For the purpose of this study, youth are adolescents between the ages of 11 and 18, which is conducive with the ages Erikson (1950) used to frame the psychosocial development of "adolescents".

AFTER SCHOOL PROGRAM. "Afterschool is an all inclusive term for youth development programming that occurs beyond the school day, including before school, after school, holidays, weekends and summers" (Indiana After School Network, 2010).

AT-RISK YOUTH. Youth who are predisposed to juvenile delinquency, school dropout, teen-pregnancy, drug abuse and personality disorders (Tidwell & Garrett, 1994).

COMPENSATORY. A functional role of the mentor that is characterized by compensating adult resources or support unavailable to the protégé (Erickson, McDonald, & Elder, 2009).

COMPLEMENTARY. A functional role of the mentor that is characterized by providing additional resources and support to that which the protégé already has readily available (Erickson, McDonald & Elder, 2009).

MENTOR. Mentor was defined as any non-parental adult that takes a special interest in the life of a youth and step outside their normal social roles to serve as a role model. (Erickson, McDonald, & Elder, 2009). The mentor typically provides guidance and instruction to improve their protégé's character and competence, and over time develops a unique bond with the protégé that is characterized by support, trust, empathy and mutuality (Bronfenbrenner, 1988; Freedman, 1988; Rhodes, et al., 2006).

FORMAL MENTOR. A mentor that is pre-arranged and pre-assigned to one or more protégés via a social program or organization (Erickson, McDonald & Elder, 2009).

INFORMAL MENTOR. A mentor that emerges from the youth's natural social network or community and exists in the youth's natural environment (Erickson, McDonald & Elder, 2009).

PRIMARY ATTACHMENT. The attachment a child forms with their primary caregiver on which they build an "internal working model" (Bowlby, 1969, 1982) that provides a "set of conscious and/or unconscious rules for the organization of information relevant to attachments" and expectations about other relationships (Main et al., 1985). Used interchangeably with parental bond and primary bond or attachment.

Significance of Study

The emerging intervention strategy of mentoring is growing rapidly. Yet, there exist gaps in the research pertaining to various dimensions of the mentoring relationship and its effects on adolescents. Furthermore, the current research on mentoring has produced inconsistent results, posing the need for more concrete findings on the effects of mentoring and the best practices in mentoring (Dubois et al., 201; Keating et al., 2002). This study will add to the existing body of knowledge regarding mentoring and its relationship to youth development.

As the research on mentoring grows, there is a need for more robust explanations on the unique dynamics of mentoring. This study incorporates multiple

models and theories to better understand and describe the dynamics of mentoring as well as its relation to other adult roles and influences on an adolescent's development. This study recognizes that all aspects of youth development contemporaneously interact on multiple levels to influence an adolescent's development and life trajectory. Examining all these influential factors in an adolescent's life simultaneously would be tedious and difficult in the context of one study. However, this research does seek to merge different theories and models of influence to build a more comprehensive understanding of the role mentoring plays in youth development.

This study integrated models of differing theories, as they overlapped and significantly contributed to understanding and answering the research questions listed above. In doing so, this study further enhanced the explanatory power of Attachment Theory, Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory. This study not only expanded the body of research pertaining to mentoring but also examined un-explored gaps in the research. Research on adolescent development as well as research examining theoretical implications and evidence-based practices in mentoring would benefit from the findings of this study.

Assumptions of the Study

This study assumed that the adolescents who participated in the study had at least one adult with whom they identified as a mentor, either in the afterschool program or in the community. This study also assumed that the adolescents that participated had a primary caregiver.

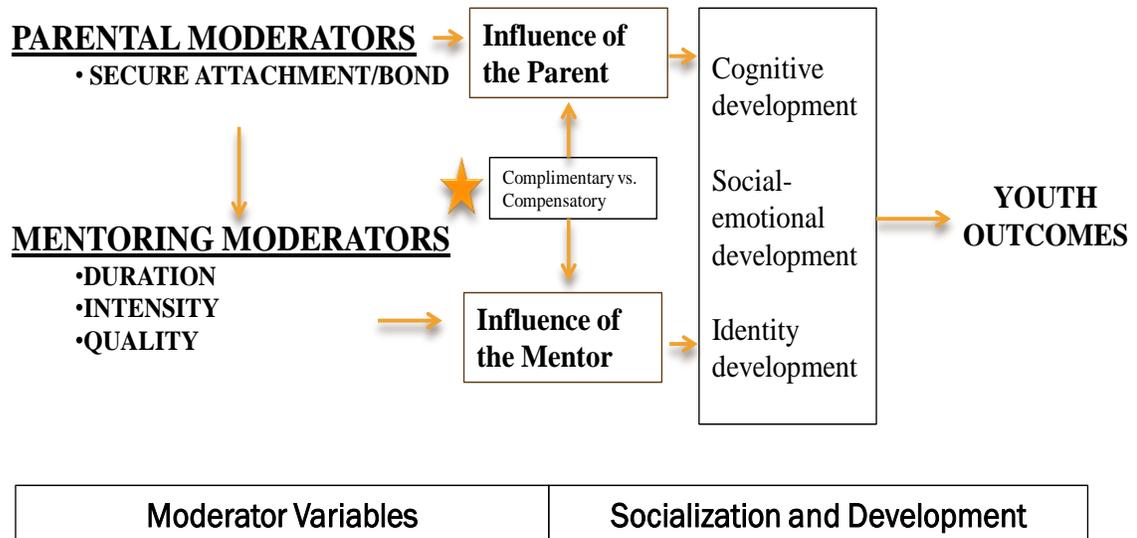


Figure 1-1. Predictions of Study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

As researchers and practitioners have become more aware of adolescent's needs for strong adult relationships, relationship-based interventions, such as mentoring, have become popular strategies. Yet, as Erickson and colleagues (2009) stated, the effects of mentoring are often studied and assessed independent of other resources available to and impacting adolescents. By viewing mentoring relationships within the broader context of youth development researchers can better gauge the role mentoring serves and how it fits into that existing social context.

Primary Caregiver-Youth Relationships

Attachment Theory

Attachment Theory pioneered an understanding of the unique bond created between infant and primary caregiver (often parent) and its transference into childhood and adolescence. Bowlby (1969) proposed that human beings have an innate mechanism that immediately bonds them to an attachment figure that provides them with security, safety and affection. Based on his research, Bowlby's conjecture was that from this first attachment, babies learn how to form all other attachments (Bowlby, 2007). Furthermore,

Secure attachment relations, perhaps by supporting exploration and mastery of the environment, [predict] adjustment in several areas of functioning, such as cognitive development, academic skills, emotional development, and interpersonal or social functioning. (Rice, 1990)

The quality of the primary attachment formed becomes the foundation for a child's socialization.

The primary attachment is either an insecure or secure attachment. A secure attachment is characterized by “having a predictable, safe, and affectionate bond with an attachment figure,” whereas an insecure attachment “means having a less predictable bond with an attachment figure” in which the caretaker is insensitive and an unreliable source of support (Bowlby, 2007, p. 309; Rice, 1990). Neurologically, an insecure attachment affects the physical structure of a child’s brain development. As the right side of the brain, which controls emotional and relational skills and intuition, develops an insecure attachment delays and sometimes retards growth (Bowlby, 2007). The developmental delays carry on into childhood specifically pertaining to personality development. An insecure attachment also increases the child’s likelihood of developing mental and emotional problems (Schore, 1994; Maughan, Collishaw, Goodman, & Pickles, 2004). When a secure attachment is absent or withheld from a child, he/she begins to adapt dissociative behaviors to stall or de-activate the natural attachment seeking mechanism, which prevents them from seeking other attachments and is often accompanied by antisocial behaviors (Bowlby, 2007). The primary attachment is also inextricably linked to a child’s identity formation (Bretherton, 1985; Schultheiss & Blustein, 1994; Scott, et al., 2011). The main determinant of the personality and identity of a child is his/her primary attachment (Scott, et al., 2011).

Bowlby (1969) also mentioned the occurrence of secondary attachments. In the absence of a primary attachment figure, a secure secondary attachment can buffer the consequent negative effects. Secondary attachments form with adults whom the child sees frequently and who are invested emotionally in the child, such as a grandmother or

nanny. Research has shown that the more secure secondary attachments a child forms the better his/her mental well-being and resiliency (Bowlby, 2007).

Both the primary and secondary attachments of a child and the experiences (positive or negative) that accompany those relationships form a cognitive schema, which guides the child's social interactions, both within and outside of the family (Hartup & Laursen, 1999; Hesse, 1999). Mentoring attempts to provide a secure secondary attachment figure, which may, potentially and ideally, serve as a corrective measure against negative internalizations made by an insecure attachment (Rhodes, 2005).

As children move into adolescence, the main indicator of a secure parental attachment is adult supervision and monitoring (Patterson, 1986; Steinberg, 2001). Research on parental attachment has found that children who have strong attachments with their parents, in that they spend a significant amount of time with their parents, are less likely to engage in delinquent acts and have better mental and emotional health (Hirschi, 1969; Loeber and Dishion, 1983; Simourd and Andrews, 1994; Belsky & Cassidy, 1994; Bretherton, 1985; Parke & Buriel, 1998; Cotterell, 1992; Taylor, 1994). Research has also shown that adolescents who spend time with their parents have better grades, lower absenteeism, and greater school involvement than youth who spend less time with their parents (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984). In addition to parental monitoring as the strongest preventer of youth delinquency, a strong parental attachment and consistent parental supervision often lead to the parent's psychological presence. The psychological presence of a parent deters adolescents from engaging in delinquent acts, even when the parent is not physically present (Hirschi, 1969; Gault-

Sherman, 2011). Evidently, a secure primary attachment has the most impact on guiding an adolescent's behaviors and life trajectory.

Sampson and Laub (1993) put forth a theoretical model combining Attachment Theory, with other predominant youth delinquency theories. They demonstrated that attachment, supervision and discipline were the three main dimensions that link children to family and integrate them into society. These three dimensions must work in conjunction with the others to optimally promote the positive development of adolescents and create productive members of society. However, presently in America, unemployed married mothers on average spend 3.6 hours daily with their children, while employed married mothers spend 1.8 hours daily with their children (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). The same survey reported that employed married men spent a total of 24-67 minutes on average with their children daily, whereas unemployed men were reported to having spent a total of 24-85 minutes with their children. Societal trends demonstrate simultaneously an increase in juvenile delinquency and a decrease in secure parental attachment and parental supervision.

Social Learning Theory

Understanding Attachment Theory provides insight to the initial roots of adolescent's psychosocial, behavioral and cognitive development. Attachment Theory also identifies where adolescents begin to formulate their identity and how identity is linked to behavior. Social Learning Theory further expounds upon this link. Social Learning Theory studies the process of how and why children and adolescents take ownership of and demonstrate the values, attitudes and behaviors of the environment in which they are raised (Bandura, 1969; Grusec, 1992). Bandura (1969) proposed that children learn behaviors primarily by observing and then imitating the behaviors of

others. When a secure bond exists between parent and child, children begin to emulate the behaviors, mentalities and attitudes of their parents (Bandura, 1969).

Within this theoretical framework, the mechanisms of learning are directly related to environmental influences upon an individual. Erickson (1968) found that during adolescence children look up to the adults in their community, including parents. From these adults' behaviors, adolescents formulate acceptable and appropriate behaviors and attitudes. Similarly, Bandura (1969) and subsequent researchers (Anderson, 1990; Bell & Jenkins, 1993; Freedman, 1993; Greenberger et al., 1998; Huesmann, 1988; Hurd et al., 2011; Rhodes, 1994; Synder et al., 2003; Zimmerman, Steinman, & Rowe, 1998) posited that adolescents are most likely to imitate the behaviors and attitudes most frequently demonstrated to them.

Thus, the absence of a secure adult attachment and positive role models can lead adolescents into negative modes of influence. Piaget (1932) and Vygotsky (1978) emphasized the importance of interpersonal relationships' on the development of knowledge, language, social problem solving skills, and moral behavior of adolescents. And yet, the lack of adult interaction creates an environment in which adolescents are socialized by their peers. Anthropologist Margaret Mead (Schwartz, 1980) described this phenomenon as a co-figurative culture in which learning and socialization are horizontal rather than vertical. Such socialization cultures emerge when older generations do not impart their maturity or wisdom to develop the younger generations. Rather, adolescents acquire morals and values and behaviors based on their peer society. "The concept of the differential socialization opportunities in horizontal (peer) versus vertical (adult) interpersonal contexts has been especially influential in the

domains of cognitive and moral development” (Parker et al., 2005, p. 437). Horizontal contexts for adolescents often lack life experience and wisdom, and cannot understand abstract moral concepts or skills necessary for maturation and socialization into positive and contributing members of society (DeVries, 2004; Schwartz, 1980). The horizontal versus vertical socialization culture is noteworthy because its root cause stems back to a lack of a positive and secure primary attachment.

Following Mead’s assertion of co-figurative culture, a study by Montemayor and Van Komen (1980) empirically demonstrated the widespread prevalence of age-segregation in American society, in which adults and adolescents pursue and exist in separate cultures. To further understand the implication of a separate youth culture, Anderson (1990) collectively examined the cultural dynamics of neighborhoods. He found that an essential aspect of the social fabric, critical to its stability, was the “old head” – adolescent relationship. Anderson described the “old head” as adult figures in the neighborhood whose role was “to teach, support, encourage, and in effect, socialize young men to meet their responsibilities with regard to work, ethic, family life, the law and decency” (p. 69). Anderson posed certain rationales as to why the role and influence of old head figures has declined, ranging from shifts in societal structure to the changes in cultural values. Regardless, “old heads have ceased to participate in the community, and in fact are mocked by neighborhood youth for ... not understanding the ‘way the work really works’” (Anderson, 1990, p. 70).

Freedman (1988) found that intense intergenerational relationships were absent from social programs for at-risk youth. The adolescents he interviewed expressed their need for relationship and interaction with adults who had been the most crucial

ingredient in developing their life-skills and psychological and social maturity. Freedman (1993) used the term “generativity,” first developed by Erik Erikson (1986), to describe how mentors could intentionally promote youth development by conveying knowledge, values and culture to the younger generation. “Generativity” was representative of a vertical culture of learning and socialization. In congruence with Social Support Theory, the adolescents reported that close relationships with an adult was the key factor in evading negative life outcomes and bolstering their ability to engage in positive relationships with other adults (Freedman, 1988). This discovery became a forerunner of research on youth’s isolation from adult guidance, both in the sense of personal isolation from adult attention and moral isolation from pro-social adult influences (Freedman, 1993). The isolated factors that have caused this wedge between the generations include the breakdown of the nuclear family and the erosion of neighborhood comradery.

This study pertained to at-risk youth, primarily low-income and of African American descent. The research conducted with this particular population discovered that adolescents in disadvantaged inner city communities have fewer adults whom they can depend upon for guidance and positive role models (Newman, 2000). Boyle and Hassett-Walker (2008) found that neighborhoods with higher levels of unemployment and poverty experienced higher levels of crime and social disorder. Additionally, Anderson (1990) found that in economically disadvantaged neighborhoods, violence is seen as a means of gaining power, status and respect. Consequently, adolescents in these neighborhoods are exposed to a higher frequency of negative adult behaviors and adult violence. Deductively, if adolescents are exposed to negative behaviors during the

crucial stage of formulating their identity and assessing appropriate behaviors, they are more likely to themselves engage in negative behaviors and formulate attitudes of acceptance towards negative behaviors. This phenomenon is empirically supported by Greenberger (2003) and Hurd (2011), whose studies demonstrated the direct effect and implications that the observation of negative behaviors had on adolescents own acquisition of those behaviors and attitudes. Both studies found that role model behavior and sanctioning of behavior was a robust predictor of an adolescent's behavior.

Adolescents in disadvantaged communities are more severely affected by this deterioration of adult-youth relationships. While affluent families can somewhat temper adolescents generational isolation with programs or therapy, underprivileged adolescents do not have those resources available. Furthermore, the adolescents in disadvantaged neighborhoods are more likely to witness violence, anti-social behaviors and undergo high stress situations (Freedman, 1993).

These traumatizing experiences, while creating additional need for support, simultaneously make it more difficult for many disadvantaged youth to accept or attract the assistance they need. At the same time, poverty works in multiple and reinforcing ways to cut off sources of potential help. (Freedman, 1993)

Poverty can be a potential cause of further isolation from primary attachment figures because parents are working longer hours to provide for their family, leaving adolescents unsupervised, as indicated by the U.S. Department of Education (1988).

However, research evaluating the factors that deter at-risk adolescents from engaging in negative behaviors and rather promote positive life outcomes found that a supportive adult-relationship was the most influential (Lefkowitz, 1986). Werner & Smith (1982), who conducted a 30-year study of 700 at-risk adolescents, found that all of the

adolescents who succeeded in life goals had a supportive adult involved in their lives in addition to their parents. Other studies also found that at-risk adolescent's who grew up successful, in that they evaded jail and welfare or unemployment, had supportive adults/mentors while growing up (Anderson, 1991; Williams and Kornblum, 1985). Beier and colleagues (2000) found that adolescents who had natural or informal mentors were significantly less likely to participate in violence and other problem behaviors than adolescents without a mentor. Adolescents in low-income urban communities with informal mentors reported more positive attitudes toward school, less involvement in alcohol and marijuana use, and fewer delinquent behaviors (Zimmerman et al, 2002). Another study evaluated the effects of mentoring on school violence, drug and alcohol use, and teen parenthood. The results indicated a significant decrease in these behaviors when the adolescents had a mentor (Jekielek et al, 2002).

In accordance with this growing body of research highlighting the importance of a positive role model and attachment figure in an adolescent's life, prevention programs and community programs have increasingly implemented relationship-based intervention programs, such as mentoring. Mentoring provides the modeling of positive and constructive behaviors. As indicated above, many behavior improvements have been linked with mentoring programs.

Social Support Theory

Primary attachment figures are not only responsible for the socialization of adolescents but are also a source of support and other various forms of capital for adolescents. Social Support Theory explains the functions of a supportive network for individuals. Supportive figures in the lives of adolescents serve socialization functions and protective functions.

Supportive figures engage adolescents in supportive relationships, which influence the adolescent's learned behaviors and set the precedent for their future social interactions (Heller et al, 1986). There is overlap between Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory; however, the emphasis of Social Support's theoretical framework is the interplay between social relationships and an adolescent's psychological processes and well being, which then project adolescent's future social behaviors. Social Support Theory contains two summative constructs: perception of available support and actual received support. Perceived support influences ones evaluation of self and others, which then impacts ones identity, self-esteem and choices of behaviors (Lakely & Cohen, 2000). The actual received support is the tangible resources (e.g. knowledge, skills, and money) and/or the physical presence of a person providing safety and security.

Social Support Theory emphasizes the role social networks play in the paradigm shift from risk to resilience in an adolescent. Research in this field suggests that resiliency is heavily dependent upon an adolescent's relational network and support system (Butler, 1997). One study, in particular, demonstrated that resiliency was directly related to the perceived safety and support of a significant individual within the adolescent's social network (Garmezy, 1993). Similarly, a study conducted to identify the most significant factors in the resilience of at-risk youth found that the most influential factor was a strong relationship with a competent, caring, and motivating adult (Masten et al., 1990, Masten, 1994). This presence of a supportive adult relationship was significantly influential in adolescents acquiring and utilizing resiliency skills (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

A reoccurring theme in Social Support research is the positive correlation between a close and supportive adult relationship and an adolescent's ability to overcome adversity, engage in positive behaviors, improve academic achievement and decrease delinquent behaviors (Garmezy, 1993; Luthar et al, 2000; Steinberg, 2001). These behavioral results are characteristics of a positive future orientation. Supportive adult relationships, therefore, foster positive future orientation in adolescents, which is an aspect of socialization (Broomfield, 2007). On the contrary, when the presence of a strong primary attachment is lacking, adolescents report having less social support and are more withdrawn, inattentive, are harmful to others and have a negative future orientation (Kashini, Reid & Rosenberg, 1989).

The primary attachment figure, ideally, acts as a supportive figure that buffers negative influences and stressors occurring throughout an adolescent's life. Furthermore, the attachment between the primary caregiver and the adolescent provides the adolescent with a foundation, or schema, for future social relationships. This schema either expands or hinders the growth of the adolescent's social network. Research has indicated that the presence of a secure attachment with a positive adult is the most influential of all factors in the positive maturation of adolescents. Social Support Theory, Social Learning Theory and Attachment Theory emphasize the monumental influence the primary attachment figure plays in the development of an adolescent. These influences include: socialization, protection and security, emotional, informational and practical skills, modeling of behaviors and attitudes, and a relational schema. When a primary caregiver is not fulfilling these roles/needs, adolescents are more likely to engage in negative behaviors and fail to assume an active and

contributing member of society. Thus, through an understanding of the importance of these needs in the life of an adolescent, society has developed interventions and social programs to help compensate for the lack thereof. One of which is mentoring. Mentors provide adolescents with a social network, support and protection on various levels. The social capital supplied through a mentor improves an adolescent's functioning and development (Keating, et al., 2002).

Compensatory vs. Complementary

Research suggests that there are significant overlaps between the role of a primary caregiver and the role of mentor in an adolescent's life. Goldner & Mayseless (2008) compared and contrasted the roles of different types of caregivers and role models, including mentors. The researchers indicated that mentors have the unique ability to take on several aspects of each role, while still maintaining the flexibility to not be constrained to a single role. Cavell and colleagues (2002) suggested that when the mentoring relationship is naturally integrated into the adolescent's social network, the mentor could fill a unique role that has the attributes of both parents and friends. Gilligan (1999) suggested that mentors fill a role somewhere between a family member and a professional caregiver.

Some studies have demonstrated the similarities between mentors and parents in that adolescents also view their mentor as a role model, imitate their behaviors and strive to attain the status of their mentor (Keller, 2005; Rhodes et al., 2006; Yancey, 1998; Hamilton & Hamilton, 1992). The mentor's role correlates very closely with the parental role. For example both are expected to teach adolescents knowledge, values, skills and provide them with a basis for and a better understanding of their identity, self-esteem and competency (Hirsch, Mickus & Boeger, 2002; LoSciuto, Rajala, Townsed &

Taylor, 1996; etc). Gilligan (1999) outlined four specific behaviors that mentors emulate: maintenance (meeting the child's development needs), protection (promoting the child's rights and protecting him or her from negative influences), compensating (offsetting deficits of inadequate parenthood) and preparation (teaching techniques and knowledge). These behaviors overlap with parental functions. Furthermore, both mentor-bonds and parental-bonds possess qualities of warmth, caring, support and trust (Hamilton & Darling, 1989; Rhodes et al, 2006).

The main difference that has existed between parents and mentors was the intensity of the relationship. Parents often have far greater influence on their child than a mentor because of the amount of time they spend together (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984). As previously discussed, the parenting relationship begins at an early age and is representative (formation of schema) for the child at crucial stages of development (Bowlby, 1969; Erickson, 1968). Thus, the psychological depth and complexity of the parent-child relationship is greater than the mentor-youth relationship, which may not develop until after some of the crucial stages of a child's development (Goldner & Mayseless, 2008). This research suggests that the parent-child relationship typically has a greater influence on the trajectory of the adolescent's developmental outcomes, even when a mentor is present.

When a strong primary attachment bond exists the mentoring role is often supplementary to that bond. The primary caregiver imparts a secure relational schema, thus providing adolescents with social skills to seek out and form additional adult relationships (Benson et al., 1986; Werner, 1993). Primary caregivers, who assume their role as instruments of socialization and development, tend to involve their

adolescent in multiple social environments. The increase of supportive networks is positively correlated with adolescents developing mentoring relationships and extra-familial resources (Barajas & Pierce, 2001; Hamilton and Hamilton, 2005; Mortimer, 2003; Pretty, Andrews & Collett, 1994). The mentoring relationships formed between adolescents who possess a secure primary attachment and have a variety of social and personal resources tend to serve a complementary role in the adolescent's development (Erickson et al., 2009).

However, with regards to disadvantaged adolescents, researchers have observed that the mentor relationship served as a compensatory role to the adolescent's primary caregiver. Galbo (1989) found that unrelated significant adults played a major role in the development of adolescents whose familial ties were not strong. Werner & Smith (1982) found mentors to be substitutions for the adolescent's parental bond; the mentors were identified as auxiliary parents. DeJong's (2004) inquiry of the mentoring process found that some protégés referred to themselves as being the children of their mentors. Likewise, Ainsworth (1989) observed the mentors as parental surrogates to their protégés. In seeking to understand why mentors may serve a compensatory role, Grossman & Rhodes (2002) found that many at-risk adolescents involved in mentoring programs had a history of negative relationships with adults. The absence of a secure primary attachment seemed to be the strongest indicator of a compensatory mentor-youth relationship.

Erickson and colleagues (2009) interviewed students, families and teachers and examined high school transcripts to examine whether informal mentoring relationships served as complementary or compensatory roles in adolescent's lives, specifically

pertaining to educational outcomes and academic achievement. Differences were examined between adolescents who were categorized as disadvantaged and advantaged. The disadvantaged adolescents reported less informal mentors than that of the advantaged adolescents. Yet, the mentors served as a compensatory role for disadvantaged adolescents and a complementary role for the advantaged adolescents (Erickson et al., 2009). The presence of a secure or insecure relationship with parents (primary caregivers) affected the role of the mentor.

While congruence exists between the functioning role of parents and mentors, research has indicated that the conjunction of a strong parental bond and a mentor is most beneficial for adolescents. Garmezy (1985) suggested that a triad of protective factors exists for at-risk adolescents, one of which is a supportive and cohesive family environment, while another is the presence of additional adult support outside the home, such as a mentor. This implies that when the combination of a mentor and strong parental-child bonds exists, the outcome of the adolescent is more likely to be successful.

Mentor-Youth Relationships

While the security and strength of the primary attachment moderates the functioning role of the mentor, the strength of the mentor-youth relationship is also a moderator variable. The factors that contribute to the strength of the mentor-youth relationship also determine whether the mentor serves a complementary or compensatory role. The development of the mentor-youth relationship and its contingent factors are shown in Figure 2-1.

Research has found that the most positive mentor-youth relationships are characterized by mutuality, trust and empathy. These qualities increasingly develop as

the duration of the mentor-youth relationship increases, and as the intensity of the relationship increases (program practices). Other factors that impact the development of mutuality, trust and empathy are: the adolescent's interpersonal history, which is related to Attachment Theory; social competencies, also related to previous social interactions anchoring on the primary attachment relationship; the adolescent's developmental stage; and the family/community context, which is related to Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory.

The level of mutuality, trust and empathy within the mentor-youth relationship determines the quality of the relationship. The factors influencing the quality of the relationship also affect the perceptions adolescents have on the complementary versus compensatory role the mentor may play. As depicted in the diagram, the development of mutuality, trust and empathy in the mentor-youth relationship is pivotal to the influence the mentoring relationship has on the adolescent's developmental outcomes (Rhodes, 2005).

Each mentoring relationship possesses a combination of characteristics unique to each dyad, ranging from strong to weak mentor-youth bonds. These characteristics influence the complementary or compensatory function the mentor will emulate, as well as the adolescent's benefit from the relationship and its impact on their developmental outcome. Research suggests the most pivotal factors of influence are: the duration, the intensity, and the quality of the mentoring relationship (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). In a meta-analysis of 55 different mentoring programs and their effectiveness, Dubois (2002) found that the most successful programs reported the most contact between mentors

and mentee, a longer duration of the mentoring relationships and the presence of emotional bonds between mentee and their mentors.

Duration

The duration of a mentoring relationship is how long a mentor is actively involved in an adolescent's life. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found that mentoring relationships grow stronger over time and the positive academic, psychosocial and behavioral effect on the adolescent increases the longer the mentoring relationship persists. Longer duration of the mentoring relationship was associated with positive adolescent perceptions, higher scholastic competence, self-esteem and behavioral conduct (Rhodes et al, 2005).

In regards to developing a strong attachment in mentoring relationships, despite past negative relationships, duration of the relationship is a critical element. At-risk adolescents have often already developed an insecure attachment schema, which involves fears and doubts about relationships and often inhibits them from forming strong bonds with their mentor immediately (Bowlby, 1982; Egeland et al, 1988). However, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) found that when the relationship persisted one year or longer, these barriers were slowly removed, and positive rebuilding occurred.

The positive functions of social support networks are achieved most effectively when relationships are steady and continuous. The development and longevity of the mentor relationship brings supportive meaning to the interactions (Nestmann & Hurrelmann, 1994). One study found that within the first 6 months of a mentoring relationship only 54% of adolescents considered their relationship with mentor as positive (Keating et al, 2002). Yet, Morrow and Styles (1992) found the majority of lasting positive effects emerged only after the mentor relationship has persisted at least

one year. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) suggested that a crucial component to mentoring is long-term consistency in the relationship. When long-term consistency is present, the mentor relationship acts as a “corrective experience” for adolescents who have a history of negative parent-child relationships (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985; Olds, Kitsman, Cole, & Robinson, 1997).

When a mentoring relationship is terminated early, this leads to negative outcomes for the adolescent, such as decreased self-worth and lower academic competency (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Short-term mentoring programs and short-term relationship-based interventions are more detrimental to adolescents rather than beneficial, because short-term relationships are believed to reinforce negative patterns and insecure attachments with adult relationships (Downey, Khouri & Feldman, 1997; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). In conclusion, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) suggested that because the adult-child bond is complex in nature and often involve specific internal representations of relationships – that may need to be corrected – the benefits of mentors cannot emerge until a significant amount of time has been invested into the relationship. Therefore, the duration of the mentor-youth relationships will significantly affect the adolescent’s perception of the mentor’s role.

Intensity

The intensity of the mentoring relationship refers to the extent to which the mentor is engaged and present in the naturally occurring environment of the adolescent. Research has shown that supportive relationships must be intense, integrated and proximal to the adolescent’s natural environment for positive influence to take place (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Based on their findings, Grossman and Rhodes (2002) noted that, “the central component of mentoring is the formation of intensive one-on-one

relationships". The intensity of the mentoring relationship secures the strong emotional bond between mentor and mentee. The more frequent the interactions between the adolescent and their mentor, the deeper the attachment that forms and the more exposure the adolescent has to positive behaviors (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002).

The more integrated the mentor is in the natural environment of the adolescent and the more time the mentor spends with the adolescent, more positive effects for the adolescent follow (Herrera et al., 2000; Keller, 2007; Parra et al., 2002; Spencer, 2006) Based on a number of mentoring assessments and evaluations, Deutsch and Spencer (2009) summarized the value of a more intense mentor-youth relationship:

Spending time together regularly creates opportunities for mentors to become more directly involved in youth's lives and for positive change to occur, whether through the provision of emotional and instrumental support or by facilitating attachment related processes, such as helping youth more effectively cope with stress and promoting positive changes in youth's working models of relationships.

Freedman (1988) characterized two types of mentoring relationships: primary and secondary. The primary constituted extraordinary commitment, intensity, and the expression of both positive and negative emotions within the relationship, whereas the secondary was described as helpful and distinguished but with limited support and emotionally distant. Adolescents engaged in primary mentoring relationships reported increased stability, increased sense of competency, the development of a variety of functional skills, overall improvement in quality of life, and increased resiliency to crisis events. Similarly, Langhout and colleagues (2004) examined mentoring relationships and the outcomes of different variations of intensity in the mentoring relationships. The study found that the intensity of the mentoring relationship not only affects the adolescent's benefit from the relationship but also impacts their perception of the

relationship. Therefore, mentors who are intensely engaged in the adolescent's life are more effective and impactful.

Quality

The quality of the bond formed between the mentor and mentee profoundly impacts the outcomes and the perceptions that adolescent have about the mentor role. Rhodes and colleagues (2005) suggested that relationship-based interventions, such as mentoring programs, are contingent upon and most effective when a strong interpersonal bond is formed. This concept was supported by a large survey of 772 mentoring programs across the nation to assess the quality of relationships formed and how the strength of the mentoring bond is correlated with positive adolescent outcomes (Herrera et al., 2000). Not all mentoring relationships forge strong bonds. Deutsch and Spencer (2009) noted that numerous studies have indicated that individual adolescents within the same program can experience a different relationship quality with their mentor. As previously discussed, researchers have begun to categorize different types of mentoring dyads and mentoring styles, all of which to some capacity measure the quality and outcome of the established mentoring connection.

Formal vs. Informal Mentoring

The literature informed a distinct difference between informal and formal mentoring relationships. Formal mentoring relationships are created through a formal mentoring program or organization that forges pre-assigned mentee to mentor matches (e.g. Big Brother Big Sister) (Erickson, McDonald & Elder, 2009), whereas informal mentoring relationships are characterized by relationships formed naturally between a mentee and mentor with no formal assigning process.

There exist some drawbacks, as well as advantages, to both informal and formal mentoring. For example, while organized mentoring programs were established to intentionally place a positive adult within the adolescent's natural social network, these formal mentors are not always integrated into a adolescent's natural environment (Goldner & Maysseless, 2008). Furthermore, Sipe and Roder (1999) found that within formal mentoring programs, the staff to volunteer mentor ratio was 1:20 and that the majority of the programs contacted volunteer mentors to monitor the mentoring less than once a month. This provides little to no accountability to ensure the mentoring relationship formed is a strong and positive bond. Formal mentoring programs can lack quality and intensity and only persist for a limited time. The ensuing results can be more characteristic of negative effects rather than positive and reinforce the attitudes towards adults as inconsistent and unsupportive (Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). Research has noted that formalized youth programs can serve as orphaning structures because the program only provides support and integration for the adolescents as long as they fit into a given age group or time frame (DeVries, 2004). This fragmentation from consistent adult support and attachment can be detrimental to the adolescents in the long run.

Although informal mentoring is typically more intensely integrated into the adolescent's natural environment and social network, it does lack formal accountability. Yet, some researchers have suggested that because informal mentoring operates on the internal motivation of the mentor or mentee to persist in the relationship, it lasts longer regardless of the lack of formal accountability (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Furthermore, "beneficial effects are expected only to the extent that the mentor and

youth forge a strong connection that is characterized by mutuality, trust, and empathy” (Rhodes & Dubois, 2008). When the mentoring relationship emerges naturally, these qualities are more predominant than in forged mentoring relationships through formal programs.

The Afterschool Setting

Mentoring relationships exist in varying different arenas. Figure 2-1 is an adaptation of the mentoring model, purposed by Rhodes (2005), with particular relevance to the after-school setting. This model depicts the process of an adolescent developing a mentor relationship with the afterschool program’s staff and the results that then ensue. Within the afterschool setting the potential of adolescents developing strong mentor relationships with staff are contingent upon factors such as the youth-staff ratio, and the frequency the adolescent attends the program. These are significant factors because they influence the forging of a strong youth-staff relationship. If an adolescent attends sporadically they are unlikely to form a strong bond with the staff. Once a mentor relationship has formed the factors such as duration, intensity and quality affect the impact of that relationship on the adolescent’s development. The adolescent’s interpersonal history, previous secure or insecure attachments, and the adolescent’s relational skill set also influences the strength of the mentor relationship formed and its development outcomes. The developmental outcomes that result from the mentor relationship are categorized into socio-emotional, cognitive and identity development. The manifestation of the adolescent’s development is improved emotional, academic, health and behavioral outcomes.

Gender and Mentoring Among At-risk Populations

Research studies have demonstrated that role models, supportive networks and mentors typically exist within the family (Blyth et al., 1982; Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Hendry et al., 1992, Hurd et al., 2009). Yet, low-income and minority adolescents have a greater likelihood of being raised in a single parent home, and typically a female headed home (Grossman & Tierney, 1998; Zill, 1993). Research also notes that adolescent's tend to have role models who share their same gender (Hurd, Zimmerman & Reischl, 2010). This poses potential problems for male adolescents seeking gender-like role models in a largely female-headed environment.

Particularly among the African American subgroup of at-risk youth, there is an absence of positive male role models in the lives of adolescents (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Masten et al., 1994). The presence of a positive male role model is associated with fewer problem behaviors and better academic attitudes in both male and female adolescents (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003). This study also demonstrated that adolescents of both sexes are "more likely to model the problem behaviors or adopt the attitudes of male role models than female role models" (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003). Interestingly, while the majority of homes are matriarchal, one study found that male adolescent's are less likely to identify a significant adult of the opposite sex than their female counterparts (Scales & Gibbs, 1996). This points out that the male adolescents in particular seek male role models and mentors. However, another study found that a high percentage of both males and females alike reported their mother as a salient person in their life (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003). Some research explains that adolescents tend to establish seek these relationships with same-sex in order to resolve their own gender identification (Coleman and Hendry, 1990; Hendry, et al., 1992).

Other theories that support this claim are: Social Identity Theory, the similarity-attraction paradigm, and the relational demography perspective (Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

In gender matched mentoring dyads, female and male adolescents tend to respond differently to the mentoring relationship. The adolescent's response to the mentor affects the mentor's functions as well as the outcomes of the relationship (Ragins & Cotton, 1999). Males tend to respond to instrumental, heroic and chivalrous forms of helping, whereas females are drawn to social, nurturing and caring forms of help (Eagly & Crowley, 1986). Similarly female mentors tend to offer more emotional and personal support in comparison to their male counterparts (Allen, Day & Lentz, 2006; Allen & Eby, 2004; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). In light of these differences, gender shapes the function of the mentor and varies the level of influence the mentor has on an adolescent's development (Hamilton & Hamilton, 2004). Different styles of mentoring may impact females and males differently, such as relationship duration, perceived importance of the relationship and perceived helpfulness of the relationship (Kram, 1985). Some researchers project that psychosocial approaches to mentoring, often exhibited by women, tend to produce more enduring relationships and thus are more influential (Burke et al., 1993; Kram, 1985). A study examining the gender differences in duration and quality of mentoring relationships found that for both males and females the rewards of the mentoring relationships were not maximized until the relationship had endured over multiple years (Rhodes et al., 2008). This study also found that factors beyond gender tended to dictate the quality of the mentoring relationship, factors such as: the characteristics and needs of the adolescent; the mentor's skills and background; and frequency of contact between the mentor and the mentee (Rhodes et al., 2008).

Despite gender differences, when the mentoring relationship persists for a longer duration there is greater opportunity for the mentor to fulfill multiple functions in the adolescents development.

Importance of Adolescent Perceptions

Morrow and Styles (1992) found two different conceptualizations of the definition of success in mentoring. One concept was the adolescent's feelings towards the relationship, while the second was the social, psychosocial and academic outcomes of the adolescent at the present and future time frames. Research has repeatedly shown that mentoring is overall beneficial and impactful on the development of adolescents, however, there currently exists a gap in the mentoring body of knowledge regarding adolescent's perspective on how their mentor fits into their lives and effects their developing schema. One study specifically sought to dissect the nature of mentoring relationships from the perspective of the adolescents (Langhout et al., 2004). This study found that the adolescent perspective was irreplaceable to discovering more about the nature of mentoring relationships formed.

From an intervention perspective, information from the adolescent's perspective has the potential to improve mentoring training and practices. Mentored youth have an invaluable and insightful prospect of knowledge to contribute to the theoretical and practical understanding of mentoring. "Any development intervention or research process which de-contextualizes activities or imposes exogenous frames of meaning on these contexts will be based on an incomplete understanding of human action" (Van der Riet, 2008). In seeking to further understand the nature of the mentoring relationship to the socialization and development of adolescents, research is needed to gather a

comprehensive picture of the phenomenon, which includes the perspectives of adolescents.

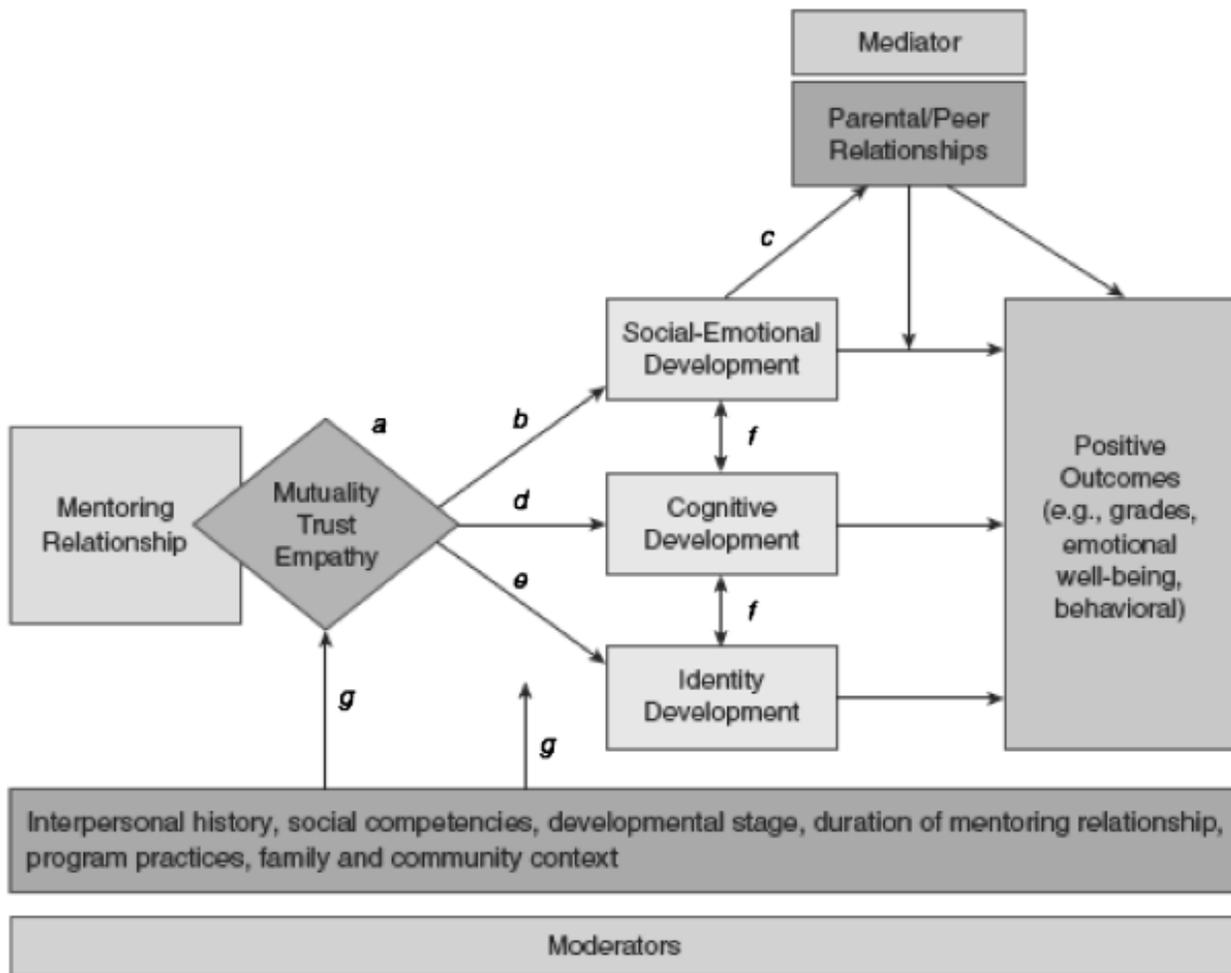


Figure 2-1. Model of Youth Mentoring (Rhodes, 2005).

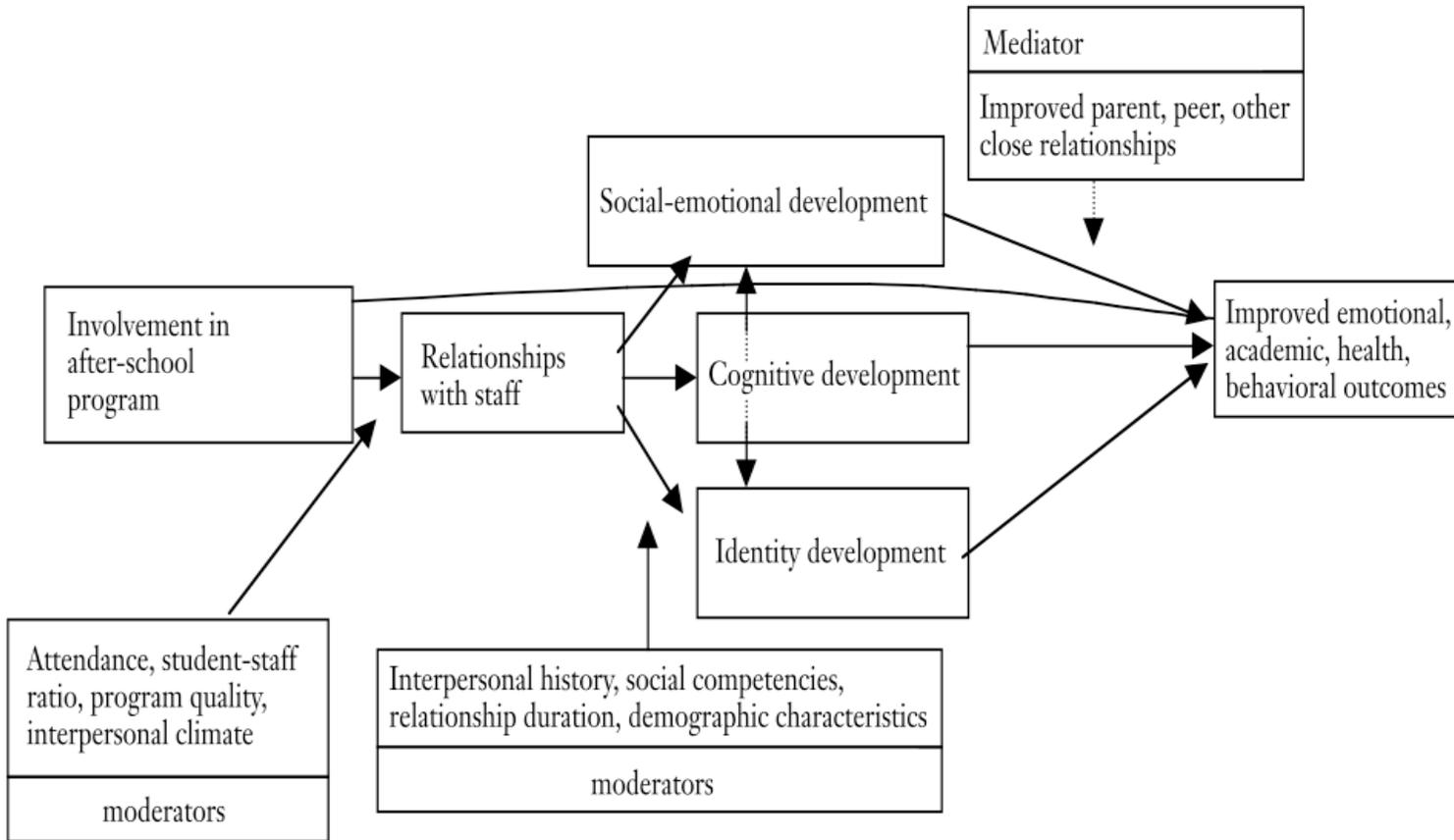


Figure 2-2. Mentoring in After-school Setting (Adapted from Rhodes, 2005).

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The design utilized for this study was a multiple case study design. In accordance to Yin (2009) each “case” represented an individual, and the individual was the primary unit of analysis. Data was collected from 29 individuals. Interviews with multiple individuals were chosen in order to provide more robust evidence and insight into the mentoring relationship and parental relationship (Herriott & Firestone, 1983). In contrast, a single interview would have only provided information from the perception of one individual and would not have shed light onto different perspectives. Neither would a single case provide much generalizability to the theoretical population. Although a multiple case-study design required more time and resources, it was plausible in a timely manner and not beyond the resources available to conduct the study.

The unit of analysis was singular because there were no subunits being explored (Yin, 2009). The different theories used to inform and frame the study were holistic in nature, which justifies the use of a holistic design. It was reasoned that if throughout the investigation the adolescents’ responses guided the study in a different direction then the design would shift to an embedded multiple-case design (Yin, 2009). However, this was not necessary.

The following table (Table 3.1) depicts the correlation between the variables being measured and the constructs of the theories used to inform the study. The table identifies the level of measurement used to assess the independent and dependent variables. The entire study was qualitative, consisting of narrative data.

Population

The theoretical population in this study was at-risk adolescents involved in after-school programs and living in disadvantaged communities in the United States.

Generalizations of this study can theoretically be applied to all at-risk adolescents in this region and living circumstance. However, it is recognized that each at-risk adolescent has a unique situation that may impact and differ from the data discovered in this study.

The accessible population used in this study was adolescent's who attend after school youth programs in two disadvantaged urban communities in Central Florida. The after-school programs were located in two counties in Central Florida. These two communities are composed of primarily minority adolescents who are living in poverty by United States Department of Agriculture guidelines. Based on demographics, this population was representative of and generalizable to the theoretical population. Each state across the nation uses the same definition for at-risk youth, which is summarized by Tidwell & Garrett (1994) as youth who are predisposed to juvenile delinquency, school dropout, teen-pregnancy, drug abuse and personality disorders. Scholars and State governments were less agreed upon the term disadvantaged. However, disadvantaged is often referred to as youth in communities with high poverty and high unemployment rates, as well as from family conflict and unhealthy peer relations at the social level (Harvey & Delfabbro, 2004). Thus, the two populations are synonymous, respectfully, and findings pertaining to the accessible population will be generalizable to the theoretical population.

The accessible population was chosen based on the knowledge of the current formal and informal mentoring relationships integrated into these community after-school programs. In seeking to understand the nature of informal and formal mentoring

relationships in community settings from the perspective of the adolescent, this sample provided an information rich sample to study the phenomena in question (Patton, 2002).

The after-school youth program's were operating in collaboration with the Children, Youth, and Families At-Risk (CYFAR) Grant and incorporated both the CYFAR program model, as well as other components. The mission of the CYFAR Program was to marshal resources of the Land-Grant and Cooperative Extension Systems so that, in collaboration with other organizations, they can develop and deliver educational programs that equip youth who are at risk for not meeting basic human needs with the skills they need to lead positive, productive, contributing lives. The two main objectives of CYFAR is (1) to support community educational programs for at-risk children, youth, and families which are based on locally identified needs, soundly grounded in research, and (2) to integrate CYFAR programming into ongoing Extension programs for children, youth, and families – insuring that at-risk, low income children, youth, and families continue to be part of Extension/4-H programs and have access to resources and educational opportunities. The CYFAR program model focused on the engagement of adolescents in community issues, these included: decision-making skills for responsible citizenship, community action, resolution of community issues and overall conflict resolution skills. This program employed specialized staff that interacted with the adolescents approximately four days per week, which amounted to about 10 hours per week. The after-school program model involved other staff, community volunteers and mentors. The diverse interactions with adults involved in the after-school program provided adolescents with a variety of opportunities to engage in informal mentoring relationships with those adults. It was important that the adolescents being

interviewed were actively involved in the program and regularly attending in order to create consistency of youth-to-staff relationships. This study acknowledged that significant youth-adult relationships could form outside of the after-school setting; therefore, adolescents with informal or formal mentors in the community or in other programs outside of the CYFAR program (research question 2) were also included.

Data Collection

For both counties, prescheduled times were arranged coordinated with the program director to collect the data. All adolescents present on the days of data collection were asked to participate in the interviews. Afterschool program participants were reminded that their participation was voluntary and would remain confidential. They were also reminded that their responses would be given a number for identification rather than their name.

A total of thirty participants participated in the study. Only adolescents whose parents did not return consent forms did not participate. Yet, of the thirty interviews that were completed, twenty-nine were used for data analysis. During one interview the audio recorded shut off and the interview was not retrievable.

Interview Protocol

The interview protocol (Appendix B) used to gather data was created during the literature review process of the study. Due to the unprecedented nature of the research questions, no suitable instrument had been previously established. Thus it was necessary to create a semi-structured interview question format. The purpose of the interview protocol was to explore the independent and dependent variables outlined above. Then, through which, to observe how the variables relate, what patterns emerge, so as to extract a more in depth understanding of the function of a mentor. The

questions were drawn from past research and literature on mentoring, attachment theory, social learning theory and social support theory.

The interview began with an icebreaker exercise to create a relaxed and open environment for the adolescent. Icebreakers have been shown to increase communication (Zwaagstra, 1997), establish rapport (Chlup & Collins, 2010) and serve as an introduction to the topic (Collins, 2010). The type of icebreaker used in this study was drawn from Shmueli-Goetz and colleagues (2007), who conducted interviews with children concerning parent-child attachments. Shmueli-Goetz (2007) began interviews with a set of questions about the child's perception of himself/herself as a person, which fostered the child to get used to talking with a stranger about personal matters and furthermore, sparked the investigation of possible meaningful links between self-descriptions and attachment representations.

The interview questions were initially asked in a logical order to first established the presence of a significant adult and whether the adolescent would term this person a mentor, second to establish the location of the significant adult/mentor (whether it be in the community or in the after-school setting) and the characteristics of that relationships (intensity, duration, quality), and third to compare the role of this significant adult/mentor with the primary attachment figure. After numerous revisions, based on researcher reviews, cognitive interviews and pilot tests (further discussed below), the number of questions were reduced as well as the order of the questions rearranged. The final instrument contained 11 questions and began by inquiring of the primary attachment, followed by questions exploring the significant adult/mentor relationships, with the last question comparing the two figures. The final instrument

included various probing question suggestions in case the adolescents needed assistance or guidance in telling their story (Shmueli-Goetz, et al., 2007).

The interview questions went through a series of cognitive testing and preliminary trials to refine the protocol and establish internal validity (credibility) and trustworthiness of the questions (Creswell, 2003; Collins, 2003; Willis, 1999; Willis, Roysten & Bercini, 1991). The aim in cognitive interviewing process was to improve the appropriateness of the items asked, ensure that participants were interpreting the questions in a consistent way and the extent to which the items are able to assess the function of the mentor role in comparison to the primary-bond figure (DeVellis, 2003). The cognitive interview procedures focused on all four aspects of cognitive theory proposed in Willis (1999), as well as thoroughly covering the four actions of the question-answer model (Tourangeau, 1984). The cognitive interview participants were first simply asked the questions of the instrument. Then the participants were asked probing questions about what they thought the item was asking, what specific words meant to them, if there were any unclear or confusing words, what information was necessary to answer the item, if it was difficult to answer the question, if the flow of the questions was appropriate and easy to follow and if they had any suggestions on adding to the assessment of the function of the mentor role. These probing techniques (Willis, 1999) allowed a better understanding of the thought processes the participants were using to formulate their answer and if their comprehension of the question matched the intended question.

Three cognitive interviews were conducted. The participants were at-risk adolescents as defined in this study. In order for the cognitive interviewing to build a

more valid instrument, it was essential that congruence existed between the sources of validation and the sources of actual interviewing (Adcock & Collier, 2001). Following the cognitive interviews, two pilot tests of the instrument were conducted. The participants of the pilot tests were two at-risk adolescents that had not participated in the cognitive interview or the actual study. These adolescents were chosen based on the foreknowledge of an active mentor present in their lives. The pilot tests were conducted approximately one month before collecting data.

Procedure

The initial stages, preceding the interviews, were to obtain IRB approval, parental and participant's informed consent. This included adding an amendment to the existing CYFAR IRB approval. The IRB approval form is located in Appendix D. The parental consent form is located in Appendix E and the informed consent for participants is located in Appendix F.

Interviews were conducted at both CYFAR sites: two counties in central Florida. Through collaboration between the CYFAR site coordinators and the researchers, times and locations were set up to conduct the interviews. In County B an empty classroom at the CYFAR location, separate from the other adolescents, was used to maintain privacy while conducting the interviews. In County A either a private room or a location outside was used to ensure the interviewer's responses were confidential and not compromised by any external audience.

All the adolescents were asked to participate; however, it was made clear that their participation in the interview was voluntary. The adolescents were informed that the purpose of the interviews was to inquire about their relationships with their mentors and their relationships with their primary caregiver (parents). The adolescents were also

informed that what they said during the interview would remain confidential.

Nevertheless, one student declined participation.

The interviews were conducted in a private location to ensure confidentiality. The interviewer introduced them-self and made small talk for a few minutes to gain rapport with the adolescent. The interviewer asked the adolescent if it was okay to audio-record the interview. Then the interviewer proceeded with the interview protocol (Appendix B). During the interview the interviewer or an observer took field notes in order to document non-verbal cues and characteristics that the audio-recorder could not pick up (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Field notes provide a more in-depth insight into the responses from the individual by highlighting all aspects of their responses (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The field notes included, but were not limited to: facial expressions, body language and my initial reactions to their responses.

To conclude the interviews the adolescents were given the opportunity to add anything, clarify anything or ask any questions. After the first few interviews, at each county, the researchers present debriefed and discussed any suggestions or changes that should be made.

When all the interviews were completed, the researchers transcribed each interview. This was done through a program called Express Scribe. The program enabled the voices of the interview to be slowed in order that one may type the interview word for word. When the transcribing process was complete, the researchers began to analyze the data. This process involves identifying; coding, categorizing, classifying and labeling the patterns that emerge from the original data (Patton, 2002).

Data Analysis

Despite the various methods of analyzing qualitative data, content analysis, a form of typological analysis, was chosen because of its inductive approach to interpret qualitative data and draw conclusions (Weber, 1990). A logical analysis was also used in order to propose flow charts of the process and the relationships between constructs that emerge from the interviews.

First, the researchers established what a “chunk” of data equaled. This was determined by the responses received and how the nature of the interviews unraveled. A “chunk” of data was the adolescent’s response to one question, whether it was a sentence or a paragraph. Next, the data was sorted based on topic – topical coding. This process was descriptive and merely the beginning stages of understanding the youth’s perception of their mentor and primary caregiver (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The topics were the independent and dependent variables mentioned above. Responses were separated to depict whether the adolescent felt the mentoring relationship was complementary to their primary caregiver or compensatory. However, subtopics did emerge (Yin, 2009), and the data was sorted accordingly.

Analytic coding followed: the researchers interpreted the adolescent’s responses and synthesized their responses into key phrases, then determined meanings from the data (Patton, 2002). The approach used to develop themes/categories of the data was a systematic reading of the interview responses. A systematic reading was used to discover the emerging themes as well as the relationship between themes and compare and contrast the themes across sub-groups (Elliot & Gillie, 1998). When key phrases reoccurred throughout the responses they became themes of the data. Themes were judged by internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity and were tested by an

additional analyst for “integratability,” consistency, inclusivity, and possessing qualities of reproducibility (Patton, 2002). Having another analyst review the categorization system validated the dependability of the data analysis process and the trustworthiness of the findings, which increased the internal validity of the overall study (Thomas, 2003).

The next aspect of analyzing data themes was examining divergence. This included surfacing out patterns and investigating the relationship between different cases, themes, topics and specific variables (Patton, 2002). This step also included the examination of deviant cases that produced responses very different than the majority. Exploring these outlying cases helped understand aspects of the phenomena that may have unintentionally been excluded from the study. The outlier responses pointed out extraneous variables and alternative explanations for adolescent’s perspectives on mentoring relationships. Probing and including the deviant cases enhanced the trustworthiness and credibility of the study. During the process of analysis the theoretical framework and the organization of the data was reexamined to ensure that it provided the best possible way of understanding the data, paying special attention to outliers and alternative explanations.

Once the data was reviewed by other analysts and crosschecked, a logical or matrix analysis was developed to illustrate the relationship between the constructs, themes and variables. The first logic analysis produced a chart that organized the data and helped the researchers and readers view the information in an orderly, yet descriptive, way (Lofland, 1971). This logic analysis chart demonstrates what factors contributed to why certain adolescent’s perceived their mentor as complementary while others perceived the relationship as compensatory. The second logic analysis produced

a conceptual model (revised mentor model). This logic model laid out the begging conceptualizations of causality between the constructs of the study (Miles & Huberman, 1999).

For subjectivity statement see Appendix C.

Limitations of the Study

There is the potential for the adolescents in the program to choose not to participate in the interviews via lack of parental consent or personal reasons. The data were collected once; therefore mortality of cases would not be a limitation of the study.

A potential weakness to the dependability and transferability of this study was the bias generated from poor questions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tellis, 1997). Although some of the questions were drawn directly from tested and reliable measurements of adolescent's perception of the quality of their mentoring relationship and the measurement of attachment between adolescents and adults, the questions pertaining to the comparison aspect were derived from the literature on the subject and not from a previously tested measurement source. To address this limitation the interview questions were rigorously tested, in order to establish validity, credibility and trustworthiness of the questions. However, even after the cognitive interviews, pilot tests and review committee, in retrospect, further modifications to the questions would have provided more insightful and robust information.

Additionally, the adolescents may have responded in a way that was not as accurate and truthful as possible, whether caused by partial recollection of the mentoring relationship or reflexivity (Tellis, 1997). At the time the interview was conducted the relationship between each mentor-youth dyad was at different stages. This affected adolescent responses. The nature of the questions helped diffuse

potential “current emotions” to attain a more complete picture of the adolescent’s perspective on their mentor relationship. This was done through asking adolescent’s to discuss past experiences as well as present experiences, and probing for detailed information to develop a more complete, well-rounded understanding of the adolescent’s experiences.

Reflexivity may have occurred, in that the adolescents may have expressed answers they felt the interviewer wanted to hear, or relay information thinking that their responses would get back to their mentor. Although confidentiality was promised and ensured, the adolescents may still have responded “favorably” for the sake of pleasing someone.

Lastly, the theories employed in the study do not incorporate the potential influence of genetic predispositions on adolescent’s socialization, development and life trajectory. Attachment Theory, Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory examine predominately the environmental factors that influence socialization. However, there is a possibility that genetics can influence adolescent development. Yet, this study does not explore the genetic influences on adolescent socialization.

Table 3-1. Outcome/Dependent Measures

Theory	Construct	Variable	Measurement
Mentor-Youth Model	Perception/Assessment	Function of Mentor	Narrative
Social Learning Theory	Modeling	Cognitive Development: Primary source of guidance	Narrative
Social Support Theory	Support	Social-emotional Development: Primary source of support	Narrative
Attachment Theory	Identity	Identity Development: Primary source of identity	Narrative

Table 3-2. Predictor/Independent Measures

Moderators	Construct	Variables	Measurement
Mentor Moderators	Perception/Assessment	Mentor Relationship - Quality, Intensity, Duration of mentoring relationship - Strength of other existing adult relationships	Narrative
Parental Moderators	Perception/Assessment	Primary Caregiver Relationship (Parent-Child Bond)	Narrative

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Demographic Data

Table 4.1 identifies the demographic data of the population used in this study. 24 participants were from County A and 5 participants were from County B. The population of adolescents interviewed in this study was 79% African American, 20% Hispanic/Latino, and 1% White. There were 18 female adolescents (62%) and 11 male adolescents (38%) that participated in the study. With regards to grade level of the participants: 13 of the adolescents were in 6th grade, 8 were in 7th grade, 1 was in 8th grade, 1 was in 9th grade, 2 were in 10th grade, 2 were in 11th grade, and 1 was in 12th grade. The data was collected in the summer months, thus this information was based on the grade level the students would be going into in the upcoming school year. All of the participants were between the ages of 11 and 18 years old, in accordance with the definition used for adolescence (Erikson, 1950).

Organization of Data

The semi-structured interviews were designed to assess the independent and dependant variables outlined in Chapter 3 (Table 3.1). The dependent variables assessed the functioning mentor role, while the independent variables assessed the moderator variables. The independent variables and dependent variables were based on constructs from the theories used to inform this study: Attachment Theory, Social Learning Theory and Social Support Theory. The relationship between the theories, constructs and variables is depicted in Table 4.2. The last column identifies the socialization needs of adolescents as they correlate to each variable. The socialization needs of adolescents are further explained and depicted in Chapter 5 (Figure 5-1).

The dependent and independent variables were measured by narrative means based on one or more associated questions. The relationships between the variables and the questions are depicted in the Logic Chart (Table A-1).

During data analysis, the adolescents' responses to each question were "chunked." The data chunks were first categorized based on variable (multiple questions for each variable), then separated by each question within that variable. Themes were extrapolated for each question. These themes were established by a systematic reading of the all the adolescent's responses. Due to the nature of the questions asked in the semi-structured interview, some themes were similar across variables. However, there were themes that emerged which were unique to a particular question. Sub-themes also emerged. Sub-themes in the Logic Chart (Table A-1) are indicated by bold font.

Some questions were two-fold, containing a descriptive element and an explanatory element. For example, asking adolescents to state the adults that had performed a certain function in their lives. Then, asking a follow up question to explain their response. The two-fold questions were broken up as two separate questions in the Logic Chart. Also, during the interview, probing and clarifying questions were asked of adolescents. These probing questions varied among each interview. The probing questions are depicted in the table in the "Quotes" column with italicized font. The quotes depicted in the "Quotes" column are not a comprehensive list of adolescent responses. Rather, the richest quotes were chosen to illustrate the findings. Yet, all the adolescents responses were included in the analysis and frequency tallies (Table 4.3). The Logic Chart (Table A-1) organizes the variables, questions asked to assess each

variable, theme's that emerged for each variable and example quotes in a logical and structured format.

While analyzing the data, some adolescents identified their primary caregiver as also being their mentor. It became impossible to compare adolescents' responses to the questions inquiring of the mentoring relationship and those inquiring of the primary attachment relationship, because the individuals were one in the same. In the interviewing protocol adolescents were asked to identify non-primary caregiver adults who had made a positive impact in their lives. A few adolescents indicated they did not have any other adults in their life, who they considered as significant, besides their primary caregiver. This void of a mentor or a differentiated mentor confounded the data analysis. Without a mentor or a differentiated mentor a comparison analysis could not be performed. Therefore, the comparative analysis reflects the omitting of adolescents who did not indicate a non-primary caregiver as their mentor (two separate individuals).

The Results Table (Table 4.3) demonstrates the relationship between the findings and the research questions (Chapter 1). The column labeled "Functional Role" is representative of the questions asked to assess the dependant variables: the adolescent's primary source of (1) guidance, (2) support and (3) identity. The responses to those three variables determine the functioning role of the mentor as either compensatory or complementary. The frequency of adolescents attributing particular variables to either their identified primary caregiver or identified mentor is depicted in the second and third columns. When adolescents identified both their mentor and primary caregiver as fulfilling that function the frequency is tallied in the fourth column labeled "both." The adolescents who responded in a way that attributed the function to

neither a primary caregiver or mentor their response was tallied in the column labeled “other”. The frequency calculation for the adolescents who identified their primary caregiver as also being their mentor was tallied in the “Primary Caregiver” column.

This frequency calculation demonstrates the number of youth who perceived their mentor as compensatory or complementary to their primary caregiver. If an adolescent responded that his/her mentor was his/her primary source of guidance, support and identity then the mentor served a compensatory function. If an adolescent responded that his/her primary caregiver was fulfilling those roles, then his/her mentor served a complementary function.

Summary of Findings

Function of a Mentor

The data indicated adolescents perceived the function of a mentor as either a role model and leader, or a counselor. The adolescents who described a mentor as a role model and leader mentioned statements like, “Someone I can look up to,” “Someone that can help lead you to the right path and not lead you to drugs or anything,” or “ Someone whose footsteps I can follow in.” The responses describing a mentor as a counselor made statements such as, “A person you can tell when you don’t want to tell your parents.” However, worth noting, some of the adolescents who described their perception of a mentor stated that they themselves had never had a mentor and were basing their description of an external rather than experiential knowledge. There were also adolescents that indicated no conception of what a mentor was. These adolescents simply stated “I don't know” or “No idea” to the question inquiring of their idea of a mentor.

Primary Source of Guidance

The data indicated that the majority of adolescents perceived their primary source of guidance, support and identity as their primary giver, even those with a mentor. There were fifteen adolescents who indicated that both a non-parental family member, such as a grandma or uncle, and a primary caregiver were their main sources of guidance. Some of these responses were related to gender influences. For example two female adolescents being raised by in single father homes felt more guidance coming from their grandmothers. As one female stated, “she connects with me more with girl stuff.” There was another adolescent who indicated a non-family member as the most influential on their maturation and behaviors. This case was a young male who was raised in a single mother home and had formed a strong relationship with a male in his community. The adolescent stated that the gender of his primary caregiver and his mentor had an impact on each individual’s level of influence. For example, the youth stated, “I connect most with Mr. B (identified mentor), because you know he is male.” Another example was a male youth being raised by single mother who looked primarily for guidance from his uncles. Research states that adolescents tend to establish stronger relationships with same-sex adults during adolescence in order to resolve their own gender identification (Coleman and Hendry, 1990; Hendry, et al., 1992). Overall the majority of male adolescents identified a male mentor and the female adolescents identified a female mentor, which is congruent with previous literature (Hurd, Zimmerman & Reischl, 2010).

Of the youth who differentiated between their primary caregiver and their mentor, twelve adolescent’s responded that their mentor served, in conjunction with their

primary caregiver, as a source of guidance. The majority of the adolescents identified their primary caregiver as their primary source of guidance in all three themes.

The adolescents were asked why they identified a particular individual as their primary source of guidance. In the explanatory responses the following subthemes emerged: Discipline/ Rewards and punishments, which referred to the persons ability to and exercise of discipline over the adolescent; Proximity/Closeness of relationship, which referred to the overall amount of time spent the adolescent spent with the person and the intimacy of the relationship; Main source of support, which referred to the person who had provided the most financial, emotional, and educational support to the adolescent; Main source of verbal guidance, which referred to the person who had provided the most consistent and frequent amount of verbal direction and assistance; Modeling, which referred to the adolescent's observance of behaviors; Gender influences, which is discussed above; and Self-motivation/Higher Power, which referred to the internal motivation within the adolescent.

There was also a unique and deviant case, whose theme was difficult to articulate. The adolescent's response indicated that he perceived his behaviors to be guided by the actions of his father, whom he did not know. His family consistently told him that his behaviors were, "just like his daddy." Therefore the adolescent attributed his behaviors to his father, even though he himself did not have recollection of how his father behaved. It is posited that the adolescent's conception of his primary source of guidance was indoctrinated by family member's consistent verbal remarks. This resulted in the adolescent fervently believing that his behaviors were a result of his father. Yet,

this attribution contradicts Social Learning Theory, which states that behaviors are observed before they are imitated and then learned (Bandura, 1986).

Primary Source of Support

Similar to the primary source of guidance, the data portrays that adolescents perceive predominantly their primary caregiver as their main source of support. Some adolescents stated other family members as a source of support, but almost always in addition to their primary caregiver. This data supports the previous research findings of Hendry and colleagues (1992), in which 79 % of adolescents identified their parent(s) as the most significant adult in their life and 90 % viewing their parents as supportive. The current study supports Benson, Mangen and Williams (1986) findings, in that, parents are adolescents preferred source of support. Eighteen adolescents indicated both their mentor and their primary caregiver as significant adults in their lives. Eleven adolescents responded that their primary caregiver was their only significant adult.

When adolescents were asked to name any adults other than their primary caregiver that had made an important positive difference in their life at any time, the majority of adolescents in County A responded by naming the CYFAR staff, Mr. B. Nearly all the adolescents in County A referenced Mr. B in a highly positive way, even if they did not identify him as their mentor. Although, many of the adolescents in County A indicated that they considered Mr. B their mentor. Mr. B was not part of any mentor program; he was simply a long-time staff member at the CYFAR site.

When adolescents were asked to identify who their mentor was, five stated their primary caregiver. Adolescents made statements such as, "My parents because I want to be like them." The next most common responses were adolescents indicating a non-parental family member as their mentor, such as a grandparent. The adolescents'

responses that their primary caregiver or a non-parental family member was their mentor support the findings of Hendry et al. (1989) that mentoring qualities (mutuality, trust and empathy) rendered significant to adolescents are most often found in the family context. Many adolescents in County A also mentioned Mr. B as a mentor, sometimes in addition to a primary caregiver or other relative. Two adolescents mentioned teachers or counselors they had at school, two adolescents mentioned a coach, two adolescents mentioned mentors who were through the local church, two adolescents mentioned older siblings, and ten mentioned extended family members such as an aunt or grandparent. Four adolescents indicated they had no mentor. These findings match the findings of Rhodes, Ebert and Fisher (1992) in which fewer than 10 % of participants identify non-related community members as their mentor.

Primary Source of Identity

The primary question determining the adolescent's perception of his/her identity source was identifying who his/her role model was. The data generated was separated into the following themes: Parent/Grandparent (Primary Caregiver), other family members, mentor, self, and famous Persons. Seven adolescents indicated that their role model was their primary caregiver. For example, one adolescent stated, "My Mom, because I look like her and she has inspired me a lot." These responses largely coincided with the majority of adolescent responses identifying their primary caregiver as their source of guidance and support. Similarly, previous research has consistently reported that adolescents view their parents as role models (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Hamilton & Darling, 1996). Likewise, numerous research studies have concluded that the family context, particularly the primary attachment, plays the most influential

role in adolescent's ability to successfully negotiate developmental tasks such as identity development (Blustein & Palladino, 1991; Marcia, 1988; Rice, 1990).

Four adolescents stated their mentor was their role-model. Three adolescents identified non-parental, non-mentor family members as being their role model. One adolescent admired a cousin serving in the Air Force and thus wanted to join the Air Force herself. An uncle who became a doctor inspired another adolescent and was stated to be her role model. The accomplishments of some family members seemed to cause adolescents to have a high regard for them. Eight adolescents indicated famous people that they wanted to be most like, such as, Lebron James or Oprah. Similarly, these adolescents admired the accomplishments of the famous people; yet, there was not the element of closeness or a relationship between the role model and the adolescent. Five adolescents stated they wanted to be most like themselves.

Primary Caregiver Relationship

Assessing the primary caregiver relationship was three-fold; the determining questions were both descriptive and explanatory. The descriptive data indicated that 11 adolescents viewed their mother as their primary caregiver, nine adolescents viewed their father as their primary caregiver, five viewed both, six viewed their grandparents as their primary caregivers, one adolescent viewed her aunt and uncle as her primary caregivers and one adolescent viewed her aunt and father as her primary caregivers. One adolescent viewed his mentor and his primary caregiver as most responsible for raising him.

The first explanatory question asked adolescents to describe the characteristics of their primary caregiver. The sub-themes that emerged were separated into positive and negative categories. The positive characteristics of primary caregivers were

diverse. A comprehensive list is depicted in Table 4.2. The most common positive characteristics were: hard-working skills, intelligence, respectful, and humorous. The negative characteristics of primary caregivers were: prevalent anger or meanness, job-related, engagement in bad habits, and “nothing.” The highest frequencies of responses were in the prevalent anger or meanness sub-theme. For example, one adolescent said of his mother, “She does have some anger issues.” Another adolescent said she did not want to be like her mom with, “all the yelling.”

The second explanatory portion of this topic asked student to describe the relationship with their primary caregiver. The sub-themes that emerged were separated into positive and negative categories. The positive sub-themes were: ability to confide in the primary caregiver, the primary caregiver providing for the adolescents physical needs, engaging in activities with their primary caregiver, and the primary caregiver having a good sense of humor. The negative subthemes were: the primary caregiver was physically or emotionally unavailable, and the adolescent was “in trouble” a lot. The “in trouble” sub-theme included various cases, from one adolescent getting punched by her mom to another adolescent who felt she could do nothing right.

Mentor Relationship

The interview question exploring the mentoring relationship was open ended and only included probing questions when necessary. The probing questions can be viewed on the interview protocol (Appendix B). The probing questions sought to uncover the duration, intensity and quality of the mentoring relationship. Various and widespread responses resulted from the adolescents. However, because many adolescents identified their primary caregiver as their mentor, it was impossible to separate

adolescents' responses to the questions inquiring of the mentoring relationship and those inquiring of the primary attachment relationship.

Of the adolescents that did not indicate their primary caregiver as their mentor, the following themes emerged in the describing their mentor relationship: duration, intensity, quality and outliers. The duration and intensity themes were straightforward and consistent across responses. The quality theme generated sub-themes because of the diversity of the adolescents' responses. The sub-themes were: the mentor gives advice and the dyad shares meaningful communication, the dyad engages in recreational and leisurely activities together, the mentor is funny or jokes around, the mentor is caring, the mentor gives verbal affirmation, and the mentor is helpful.

There were four deviant cases. Three adolescents described negative experiences they had with a past mentor. One adolescent stated, "They called me out of class one day to meet her (my mentor) and she never showed up." This adolescent went on to describe how this was a formal mentor through a school-based program. However, her assigned mentor did not pay attention to her or listen to her during their sessions, therefore, she stopped going. This adolescent portrayed a negative connotation towards mentors. One adolescent described a situation in which she was given a mentor, later identified as a counselor, to talk to about her problems. This mentor-youth relationship was short-lived and was found to be "silly" to the adolescent. Another adolescent described a recent situation in which a man in his community posed as a mentor because, "he liked my mom. But he didn't know she was married. And he pretended to be a mentor." This adolescent indicated that he had not had another mentor since that time. The last deviant case was an adolescent who throughout the

interview divulged how his mentor was a negative influence on him. He described how his uncle encouraged him to fight at home, school, and in the neighborhood.

Comparing Mentor to Primary Caregiver

There were various responses among the adolescents when prompted by the question, “If something were bothering you would you tell your (insert identified primary caregiver) or your (insert identified mentor)?” Some of the adolescents were not asked this question because they had identified their primary caregiver as their mentor, thus this question was irrelevant. However, among those who were asked to compare their primary caregiver and mentor in this respect, a mixed spread of responses emerged. Some adolescents noted their primary caregiver and bolstered their response with a brief rationale as to why. These explanations indicated that due to duration and intensity of the primary attachment, adolescents were more prone to discourse with their primary caregiver and look to them for support before their mentor. Three adolescents stated their mentor as the first person they would seek out to divulge information and find support. These adolescents explained reasons why their mentor relationship was stronger, in some regards, than their primary attachment. One adolescent said her mother doesn’t listen to her, whereas another adolescent remarked how his mother doesn’t have much time for him. These factors drew the adolescent to seek solace and support in their mentor-relationship first and foremost.

There were three adolescents that identified both their primary caregiver and their mentor as persons they would discuss problems with and find support in. Lastly, there were eight adolescents who either said they did not talk to either their primary caregiver or mentor, and rather kept to themselves, or did not answer the question.

Conclusion

The findings of this study illuminate the level of influence a mentor has on the socialization and development of adolescents in comparison to the adolescent's primary caregiver. The domains of influence evaluated were: cognitive development, social-emotional development, and identity development. A great deal of research has examined the factors contributing to the positive maturation of each domain, repeatedly demonstrating the immense influence of primary caregivers. The findings of this study further support claims that elevate primary caregivers as the main influence on adolescent development, socialization and life trajectory. Specifications and implications of these findings will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 4-1. Demographics

County	Respondent	Ethnicity	Sex	Grade	Age	Grades (self-reported)
County A	1	African American	Female	6 th	11	Mostly B's
	2	African American	Male	7 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	3	African American	Male	8 th	14-15	Mostly B's
	4	African American	Male	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	5	African American	Female	6 th	11	Mostly A's
	6	White	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	7	African American & Hispanic/Latino	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	8	African American	Female	7 th	12-13	Mostly A's
	9	African American	Male	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	10	African American	Female	7 th	14-15	Mostly B's
	11	African American	Female	7 th	12-13	Mostly A's
	12	African American	Female	7 th	12-13	Mostly A's
	13	African American	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly C's
	14	African American	Male	7 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	15	African American	Male	6 th	12-13	Mostly C's
	16	African American	Female	11 th	16-17	Mostly C's
	17	African American	Male	12 th	18 +	Mostly C's
	18	African American	Female	10 th	16-17	Mostly B's
	19	African American	Male	10 th	18 +	Mostly B's
	20	African American	Female	11 th	16-17	Mostly D's
	21	African American	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	22	African American	Female	6 th	11	Mostly A's
	23	African American	Male	7 th	12-13	Mostly A's
	24	African American	Female	6 th	11	Mostly B's
County B	PAEI	Hispanic/Latino	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	LCGY	Hispanic/Latino	Male	9 th	14-15	Mostly B's
	10QMN	Hispanic/Latino	Female	7 th	12-13	Mostly A's
	MFEF	Hispanic/Latino	Female	6 th	12-13	Mostly B's
	JXLH	Hispanic/Latino	Male	11 th	18+	Mostly B's

Table 4-2. Assessment of Variables

Assessment	Variable	Theory	Construct	Socialization Need
Functioning Mentor Role	Primary source of guidance	Social Learning Theory	Modeling	Cognitive Development
	Primary source of support	Social Support Theory	Support	Social Emotional Development
	Primary source of identity development	Attachment Theory	Identity	Identity Development
Moderator Variables	Primary Caregiver Relationship	Attachment Theory	Perception/ Assessment	N/A
	Mentor Relationship	Mentor-Youth Model	Perception/ Assessment	N/A

Table 4-3. Results Table

		Independent Variables				
Functional Role		Primary Caregiver	Mentor (differentiated)	Both (differentiated)	Other	Total
Dependent Variables	Shapes your behaviors	17	2	4	6	29
	Teaches you right from wrong	24	0	5	0	29
	Most influential on your growth as an individual	22	3	2	2	29
	The significant adults in your life	11	0	18	0	29
	The one person you want to be most like	6	4	1	18	29
	The most responsible person for raising you	26	1	1	1	29
	Relationship characterized by mutuality, trust & empathy	9	7	12	1	29
	The person you would talk to if something were upsetting you	15	3	3	8	29
	Totals	130	20	46	64	-

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Overview

The inquiry fueling this study was to determine whether adolescents perceive their mentors as complementary or compensatory to their primary caregiver in the adolescent's socialization. The findings of this study can inform current mentoring purposes and practices towards more advantageous methods of intervention for at-risk youth. Antisocial and negative behaviors among at-risk adolescents, such as Juvenile delinquency, are on the rise in the United States. Mentoring been posed to have potentially beneficial effects on ameliorating this phenomenon.

This study examined solely at-risk adolescents. Typically this population experiences insecure primary attachments and higher frequency of exposure to negative behaviors (Anderson, 1990; Anderson, 1999; Boyle & Hassett-Walker, 2008; Sampson, Morenoff, Raudenbush, 2005). Mentoring literature tends to indicate that a mentor can bear a significant influence on an adolescent's development, socialization and life trajectory. Some research has even posited that mentoring can serve as a corrective measure for adolescents predisposed to negative attachments, behaviors and environments (Rhodes, 2005). For an at-risk adolescent a mentor can: repair the negative internalizations produced from an insecure primary attachment (Rhodes, 2005); assist in the prosocial maturation and identity development of the adolescent who is living in an antisocial environment (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Comer, 1989; Erickson, 1968; Hurd et al., 2011); provide the adolescent with more frequent exposure to positive behaviors and lead to the adolescent's imitation of those behaviors (Beier et al., 2000; Hurd et al., 2011; Jekielek et al., 2002; Zimmerman et al., 2002); and provide

emotional and physical support for the adolescent who lacks it from other sources(Keating, et al., 2002). All of these functions that the mentor serves are intervention focused. In other words, these functions are aimed at compensating for the adolescent's lack of positive socialization. However, the adolescents in this study indicated that their mentors served a minimal and complementary role in their socialization.

Conceptual Model

A conceptual model (Figure 5-1) was developed in accordance with the findings of this study. The model depicts the process of socialization as it is projected to occur within a mentor-youth relationship, including the moderator variables that impact this process. While historically the adolescent's primary caregiver was the main source of socialization, this study was looking at specifically the role the mentoring relationship plays in the socialization process. Mentoring research projects that mentoring is able to significantly improve developmental outcomes of adolescents such as delinquent behaviors, mental-well being, academic success, and positive life outcomes for adolescents who have a positive mentor (Catalano et al, 2004; Dubios, et al., 2011; Grossman & Rhodes, 2002). This study examines the impact a mentor has on adolescent socialization/ developmental outcomes in comparison to the impact of a primary attachment. Therefore, the conceptual model begins with the mentoring relationship and ends with the socialization outcomes of the adolescent. An adolescent's basic needs for socialization are cognitive development (guidance), social-emotional development (support), and identity development (attachment). Each of these developmental needs correlate with specific theories. This study employed Social

Support Theory to inform social-emotional development, Social Learning Theory to inform cognitive development and Attachment Theory to explain identity development.

The socialization needs were examined through open-ended questions, in which the adolescents attributed the fulfillment of those needs to either their primary caregiver or their mentor and then explained why. This data then determined whether adolescents perceived their mentor as complementary or compensatory to their primary caregiver. The interview questions sought expanded explanations of the factors that influenced adolescent's responses. These explanatory questions identified and described the moderator variables influencing the mentoring relationship.

Mutuality, Trust, Empathy

Research posits that in order for a mentor to be influential in one or more domains of an adolescent's socialization, there must be mutuality, trust and empathy within the mentor-youth relationship (Rhodes, 2005). However, several moderator factors affect the establishment of mutuality, trust and empathy within the mentor-youth relationship: parental moderators and mentor moderators. The adolescents in this study expressed the impact of both parental and mentor moderators.

Parental Moderators

In this study the adolescent's rarely identified their primary attachment as insecure. To the contrary, adolescents were prone to only mention the positive aspects of their primary attachment. Only when adolescents were prompted to note any negative characteristics of their primary attachment did they divulge indications of a more insecure primary attachment. Regardless of these negative characteristics mentioned, according to most adolescents their primary attachment was strong and secure. The accuracy of the adolescent's attribution of their primary attachment as

secure was speculated because of their mention of negative characteristics and because of research pertaining to the at-risk youth population (Tidwell & Garrett, 1994).

The adolescent's lacked comparative standards by which to measure their primary attachment. According to research and literature standards the adolescents included in this study were categorized as disadvantaged and at-risk, meaning they have a greater risk of being predisposed to negative behaviors and living in unstable homes with insecure primary attachments (Tidwell & Garrett, 1994). It became evident throughout the study that the adolescents had little to no knowledge of the determined definition of a secure attachment by which to compare their own. Neither did the adolescents have personal experiences of a secure attachment to evaluate against their own. While a researcher, with a breadth of knowledge, may categorize the adolescent's primary attachment as insecure, the adolescent, limited to the knowledge of his/her own experiences, may categorize his/her primary attachment as secure. This dilemma became evident in the study.

The data revealed that in fact each adolescent perceived their primary attachment as secure, despite the negative factors or lack of positive factors divulged. For example, adolescents indicated that their primary caregiver was: their role model, the strongest influence on their conception of right and wrong, the main determinant of their behaviors, and their primary source of guidance and support. Yet, some adolescents simultaneously indicated that their parents were often not at home, or displayed anger and detachment towards them on a regular basis. Thus the data pertaining to secure and insecure attachments was hard to distinguish due to the differentiation between research standards and the perception of the adolescents. The

adolescents that divulged insecure characteristics about their primary caregiver were deemed insecure attachments for comparative purposes of the study.

This study would have benefited from a more in-depth and thorough examination of specific determinants of the adolescent's primary attachment. This information would have provided more concrete evidence of the quality of the adolescent's primary attachment, rather than sole reliance on the adolescent's perspective. However, it was insightful to recognize the differentiation between adolescent's perspectives pertaining to their primary attachment and the research, comparatively.

All of the adolescents that described a secure primary attachment, from their perspective, also described their mentor relationship as characterized with mutuality, trust and empathy. This supports the concept that a secure attachment forms a relational schema by which adolescents are able to engage in prosocial relationships and improves their social competencies (Hartup & Laursen, 1999; Hesse, 1999). Yet, contrary to the above research, some adolescents that described an insecure primary attachment characterized their mentor relationship as possessing mutuality, trust and empathy. However, these mentors were non-parental family members, whom Bowlby (1969) described as secondary attachments. In accordance with Bowlby's findings, the majority of these mentors/secondary attachments had been strongly involved in the adolescent's life since birth. This supports the findings of Gottlieb & Sylvestre (1996) and Furman & Buhrmester (1985) indicating that often extended family members act as surrogate parents to adolescents with troubled primary attachments.

These mentors/secondary attachments were influential on adolescent's developmental outcomes. This is in part due to the nature of secondary attachments, in

that they closely resemble primary attachments. Secondary attachments can fulfill the functions of primary attachments and can serve, at a very early stage of development, as a buffer for an insecure primary attachment (Bowlby, 1969). Thus the early involvement of a secondary attachment has the ability to influence the adolescent's interpersonal history and the development of social competencies (Hartup & Laursen, 1999; Hesse, 1999). These mentors/secondary attachments also composed the adolescent's family context, which influences the establishment of mutuality, trust and empathy within the mentor-youth relationship. However, the mentors/secondary attachments were not as frequently mentioned as fulfilling the functions of socialization as the adolescent's primary attachment.

There were five adolescents that described their primary attachment as insecure yet characterized their non-familial mentor relationship with mutuality, trust and empathy. All five of these adolescents identified Mr. B as their mentor. It is important to note that these five adolescents defied the influence of parental moderators on the development of strong mentor-youth relationship. However, even in light of expressing an insecure primary attachment and a strong mentor relationship, these adolescents mainly attributed their primary caregiver as fulfilling the functions of cognitive development (guidance), social-emotional development (support), and identity development (attachment). Thus the parental moderators seemed to have a lesser impact on the development of a strong mentor relationship yet had a stronger impact on adolescent socialization.

Mentor Moderators

The mentor moderator variables were duration, quality and intensity of the mentoring relationship. All the adolescents that identified a mentor, differentiated from

the primary caregiver, characterized the mentor relationship as possessing mutuality, trust and empathy. While the majority of the adolescent's mentors were non-parental family members/secondary attachments, even the non-familial mentors were described similarly in reference to duration, quality and intensity of the relationship.

All the adolescents described their identified mentors as being involved in their life for over one year, the majority being more than five years. The adolescents uniquely described the quality of their mentor relationship with traits or experiences that fall under the category of mutuality, trust or empathy. And they described interacting with their mentor frequently and in multiple settings. As previous research delineates, for a strong mentor-youth bond to arise, mentors and youth must spend a significant amount of time together on a consistent basis (Spencer, 2007). Only then will youth derive significant benefits from the relationship. The data generated in this study supports the assertions of Rhodes (2005) that the establishment of a strong mentor-youth bond is fundamentally rooted in the duration, quality and intensity of the mentoring relationship.

Research poses that the influence of the mentor on the socialization of the adolescent (developmental outcomes) is based on these moderators of duration, quality and intensity of the relationship (Rhodes, 2005). However, even with a strong mentor relationship in the life of the adolescent, the primary caregiver was predominantly attributed to having more impact on the socialization of the adolescent. Some of the adolescents reasoned their primary caregiver was most influential on their behaviors and attitudes because of the overall amount of time they spent with their primary caregiver outweighed the time spent with their mentor. Time that was replete with memorable conversations of instruction and guidance, modeling of behaviors, and

disciplinary actions. Thus the factor of time, because of the various variables that occur within that time, appeared most influential on the socialization of the adolescent. The person who shared the majority of the adolescent's time was the most impact on the adolescent's developmental outcomes.

This study found that the strength of a mentoring relationship increased as the duration, intensity and quality of the relationship increased. Yet, despite the presence of a strong mentor relationship, the impact of the mentoring relationship on adolescent socialization and development outcomes were not comparable to the adolescent's primary attachment. In other words, even when an excellent mentor is present, the level of influence that mentor has in the life of the adolescent pales in comparison the level of influence the primary caregiver has. While a mentor can be a strong addition to the protective factors of an adolescent, the amount of influence that mentor is going to have on the life trajectory of the adolescent was found to be minimal.

Needs for Socialization

The needs for adolescent socialization are cognitive development, social-emotional development and identity development. An adolescent's cognitive development is advanced through their primary sources of guidance, as described in Social Learning Theory. Social Learning Theory articulates that the mechanism through which cognitive development occurs is predominately modeling. An adolescent's social-emotional development is largely influenced by and cultivated by their sources of support, as described in Social Support Theory. Lastly, an adolescent's identity development is anchored in the quality of their primary attachment, according to Attachment Theory.

Socialization, including all three domains, is a complex and intricately intertwined process. The constructs and theories employed in this model are inseparably linked and interdependent. For example, according to Social Learning Theory, the imitation of a modeled behavior can result in a learned behavior, which then becomes habitual and contributes to one's identity. Thus Social Learning theory employs the construct on identity formation, yet identity development is also dependent upon the primary attachment, relating to Attachment Theory. Another example is that Attachment Theory explains the characteristics of a secure attachment, leading to an adolescent's positive identity formation. Yet, one of these characteristics is support, which is further elucidated in Social Support Theory. Social Support Theory explains that primary attachments provide necessary supportive functions for adolescents and foster social-emotional development.

The complexity of socialization is important to understand in light of the discussion regarding the results of this study. Because the process of socialization is intricately intertwined, it was difficult to extract a single construct or theory to assess the socialization of adolescents adequately. Similarly, the discussion of results cannot isolate a single finding from the context of the whole phenomenon of adolescent socialization. While this discussion does attempt to explain the findings topically, the findings are to be understood in context of the whole.

Cognitive development

The mentoring relationship is posited to be a medium through which adolescent's can refine their thinking skills and potentially reform negative thought patterns (Rhodes, 2004). This often comes through the form of modeling. According to Social Learning Theory, adolescents learn behaviors primarily by observing and then imitating the

behaviors of others (Bandura, 1969). Especially during adolescence, the behaviors of adults that are most frequently demonstrated to the adolescent determine the adolescent's conception of acceptable and appropriate behaviors and attitudes. (Bandura, 1969; Huesmann, 1988; Anderson, 1990; Bell & Jenkins, 1993; Freedman, 1993; Rhodes, 1994; Greenberger et al., 1998; Zimmerman, Steinman, & Rowe, 1998; Synder et al., 2003; Hurd et al., 2011). The mentoring relationship is a platform through which the adolescent is frequently exposed to the modeling of positive behaviors, thus guiding the adolescent's maturation.

However, the duration of and intensity of a caregiver or mentor relationship directly correlates to the amount of exposure an adolescent has to the different forms of guidance from that individual. In essence time is the most pivotal factor. The majority of adolescent's in this study indicated that their primary source of guidance was their primary caregiver. The adolescent's articulated that this guidance was manifested through verbal instruction, discipline, and modeling. If at all the mentor was mentioned as serving this function it was in conjunction with the primary caregiver. Thus the mentor decidedly served a complementary role to the primary caregiver in reference to cognitive development.

For many of the adolescents their primary caregiver had spent the most time with them, therefore, had provided the most verbal instruction. As one youth stated, "Even when I don't want to listen they sit down and talk to me and it sinks through. You can't block them out." At times, this repetitive verbal instruction (intensity) over a long period of time (duration) established the psychological presence of the primary caregiver, even when physically absent (Hirschi, 1969). For example,

Yea, my grandma because she's always like really nice and she always does the right thing and she's always telling me to do what God would want you to do and also the golden rule: like treat other's how you want to be treated. So, it's always in my head, she's always in my head. I can always imagine her saying it. So, that's why if I ever wanted to – even if like anything got in my mind to like say something back to somebody like mean or anything, I would always remember what she said. So I think she impacts my behavior mostly.

The data indicated that the most impactful verbal instruction was that which was consistent and over a long period of time. For most of the adolescents their mentoring relationship was not the primary source of verbal guidance nor commensurate to the primary attachment, due to the element of time.

Another indication of guidance was discipline. Some youth felt their primary caregiver was their primary source of guidance because of disciplinary actions. Some adolescents stated their primary caregiver's ability to and exercise of discipline on them was the explanation for the caregiver's influence over their behaviors. One adolescent mentioned her mom was the most influential on her behaviors and conception of right vs. wrong, "because she is always disciplining me about doing the right things." Another adolescent remarked that her parents often told her, "you can make bad decisions or you can make good decisions, but there is always consequences."

Modeling was another influencing aspect of guidance mentioned by the adolescents. The influence of modeling, like verbal guidance, was affected by the duration and intensity of a relationship. Many of the adolescents in this study indicated that the majority of their time was spent with their primary caregiver, thus increasing their exposure to their primary caregivers' behaviors. Adolescents were more frequently exposed to the behaviors and attitudes of their primary caregiver or family members, than their non-familial mentor. One adolescent, after disclosing his frequent delinquent

behaviors, stated, “Really, why I’m misbehaving is because of both [home and friends]. Like, I see my people doing it.” Another adolescent was asked if he had learned a particular negative behavior from another individual and he responded “From my real dad.”

Some adolescents indicated their primary caregiver as their role-model. Role models have a significant effect on the behaviors of adolescents. Research explains that role models can serve as a positive influence or a negative influence depending on the behaviors the role model is observed engaging in (Hurd et al., 2011). Coleman and Hendry (1990) found that,

The function of parents as role models during adolescence is a surprisingly significant one. It is undoubtedly a popular assumption that, all things being equal, parents have a more important part to play during childhood than during adolescence. Our brief review indicates that this is far from the truth. At a time when role models are necessary to a far greater extent than ever before, it is upon parents above all the adolescents depend for knowledge and example.

Primary caregivers were not only the main source of guidance but also a strong predictor of adolescent behaviors. This study extends the support of previous research finding that role modeling is a critical component of parental influence on adolescent’s socialization (Bryant & Zimmerman, 2003; Parke & Buriel, 1998).

Social-emotional development

Social emotional development was assessed through constructs of Social Support Theory. The individuals mentioned as being the adolescent’s primary source of support were attributed to being most impactful on the adolescent’s social-emotional development. Mentoring research postulates that the social-emotional development of adolescents can be furthered through mentoring in several ways, such as serving as a sounding board and providing a model of effective adult communication, scaffolding

youth's understanding of social processes, and providing a safe context in which relational skills can be developed (Rhodes, 2004; Rhodes, Grossman, & Resch, 2000). While social-emotional developmental outcomes of adolescents has been shown to improve through mentoring interventions, these results have come through short-term studies that lack assessing the long-term effects of mentoring, if any.

This study demonstrated that adolescents view their primary caregiver as their primary source of support. This was particularly evident in the lack of differentiation between the primary caregiver and mentor. The fact that some adolescents stated their primary caregiver as their mentor supports Darling and Hammond's (1989) conclusions that parents typically assume the mentor role. All of the adolescents mentioned their primary caregiver as a significant adult in their lives and only eighteen mentioned their identified mentor (sometimes a secondary attachment figure) as a significant adult. This supports the findings of Galbo (1986), that regardless of other strong adult bonds, adolescents regard their parents as the most significant adults in their life. When adolescents were asked whom they would talk to if something were upsetting them the majority stated their primary caregiver. This data evidently points to the greater influence primary attachments have on the social-emotional development of adolescents than that of the mentor relationship.

However, the development of social and emotional competencies is a reiterative and cumulative process fueled by the means of social support available to the adolescent (Heller, Swindle & Dusenbury, 1986). Thus the presence of a mentor is not insignificant or un-impactful. The adolescents did discuss the support that they received from their mentors and expressed their appreciation and reliance on that support. While

the social-emotional development of adolescents is largely more affected by their primary caregiver, the mentor still provides “social activity and support functions influence appraisals, which in turn determine the nature of future social interactions and support functions sought by the individual” (Heller, Swindle & Dusenbury, 1986).

Identity development

Identity development was correlated with Attachment Theory, due to the profound and long lasting effects attachment has on an adolescent’s identity (Bretherton, 1985; Schultheiss & Blustein, 1994; Scott, et al., 2011). As research states the main determinant of the personality and identity of a child is his/her primary attachment (Scott, et al., 2011). The construct of identity was determined by whom the adolescent desired to be most like. This measurement of identity, retrospectively, is an inadequate measure. This study would have benefited from more thorough questions assessing the adolescent’s identity and identity development. Nonetheless, the data generated indicated that most adolescents were driven to be like neither their primary attachment nor their mentor, but rather famous or related persons who were talented and successful.

Mentoring research postulates that mentoring relationships may facilitate identity development by helping shift youths’ conceptions of both their current and future identities (Rhodes & Dubois, 2008). Markus and Nurius (1986) referred to “possible selves,” or adolescents ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they fear becoming. Also “More generally, relationships with mentors may open doors to activities, resources, and educational or occupational opportunities on which youth can draw to construct their sense of identity” (Darling, Hamilton, Toyokawa, & Matsuda, 2002). In this regard mentoring has been shown to provide

elements of identity development. However, the adolescents in this study were not probed on particular facets of identity development. Thus, conclusive statements cannot be made to the level of influence the mentor relationship played in the adolescent's identity development in comparison to their primary caregiver. However, research has consistently reported that the family context, particularly the primary attachment, plays the most influential role in adolescent's identity development (Blustein & Palladino, 1991; Marcia, 1988; Rice, 1990). Future research should expand on the influence mentors have on adolescent's identity development in comparison to their primary caregiver.

Youth Outcomes

Overwhelmingly, the individuals bearing the most impact on the adolescent's socialization were those whom they had spent the most time with, which for most adolescents were their primary caregivers. However, the interview questions in Appendix B did not articulate whether the influence of the primary caregiver was moving in a positive or negative direction. Many adolescents articulated that they currently perpetuate the behaviors of their primary caregiver, including negative behaviors such as acting out in anger towards others or having a disrespectful attitude towards others. In this, adolescents seemed to not be fully cognizant of the negativity of such behaviors demonstrated and modeled to them. Perhaps this is because of a lack of comparative experiences and knowledge. Regardless of the involvement of a mentor, even a secondary attachment mentor, the influence of the mentor paled in comparison to that of the primary caregiver.

This finding aligns with the literature on Attachment Theory. The complexity of the primary attachment tends to hold most sway on the developmental outcomes of

children and adolescents. In addition to the complexity of the parent-child bond, the duration and intensity of the parent-child bond was far greater than the mentor-youth relationship, affecting its level of influence. All in all, this study supported that primary attachments are most influential on an adolescent's socialization and life trajectory, whether negatively or positively (Bowlby, 1969; Goldner & Mayseless, 2008; Gualt-Sherman, 2011; Hendry et al., 1989; Hendry et al., 1992; Hirschi, 1969; Larson & Richards, 1994; Laub & Sampson, 1988; Masten, 1994; Parke & Buriel, 1998; Scales & Gibbons, 1996; Youniss & Smollar, 1985).

Despite the characteristics of at-risk and low-income environments, the data overwhelmingly indicated that the adolescents did not perceive their mentor as serving a compensatory function. When a mentor was involved at all, he/she served a complementary role in the life of the adolescent. Yet, it was apparent that the combination of a strong primary attachment and a mentor was the most beneficial for the positive socialization of an adolescent (Garmezy, 1985). This study also appeared to signify that when the mentor and the adolescent's primary caregiver are not only involved in the adolescent's life, but also in relationship with each other, the influence of the mentor was even stronger. This study decidedly supports that mentoring still has the potential to help ameliorate negative and delinquent adolescent behaviors, when done correctly.

Implications for Practice and Recommendations

This study concluded that the primary attachment figure bears most impact on adolescent's behaviors, socialization, development and life trajectory. Research consistently evidences that secure and positive primary attachments are the strongest protective factor against negative socialization and life outcomes (Belsky & Cassidy,

1994; Bretherton, 1985; Cotterell, 1992; Hirschi, 1969; Loeber and Dishion, 1983; Simourd and Andrews, 1994; Parke & Buriel, 1998; Taylor, 1994). Yet, mentoring emerged as an intervention aimed at correcting or circumventing the negative socialization of adolescents. However, the effects of mentoring prove to be limited. While mentoring attempts to serve as corrective measure for at-risk adolescents who lack a secure and/or positive primary attachment, the level of influence a mentor has on an adolescent's life trajectory pales in comparison to primary attachments. Thus the mentor serves a complementary function rather than the posited compensatory function.

The findings of this study deepen the understanding of mentoring as an intervention for at-risk youth and will guide future modifications on mentoring practices. The functioning mentor role, in the life of an adolescent, was (1) more influential when accompanied by both longer duration and greater intensity of relationship; (2) complementary to the primary attachment; (3) less impactful than the primary attachment figure in multiple domains; and (4) greater when mentor and primary attachment were in relationship with each other.

These findings project that mentor intervention efforts should focus on establishing long-term and intense mentor-youth dyads. The amount of influence an individual had on an adolescent's life trajectory was directly related to the amount of time the individual spent with the adolescent. Thus in light of this finding, which is also supported by mentoring and child development literature, the most impactful mentors will be those that are spending the most time with the adolescent, hence: duration and intensity. Emphasizing intensity and duration in mentor-youth dyads involves averting

volunteer drop-out and preventing other causations of mentor-youth relationship dissolution.

The old adage “quality over quantity” applies here. When mentoring efforts are placed into a factory model of producing positive youth outcomes at mass quantity, the results will be minimal. While the need for positive adolescent socialization is high and increasing, the most advantageous and effective solution is not through mass production concepts. This study begins to uncover the root cause of negative adolescent socialization: lack of secure and positive primary attachments (attachment theory) and lack of frequent/consistent exposure to prosocial behaviors (social learning theory). In essence, socialization occurs through a secure relationship. Efforts that bypass the necessity of a strong and secure relationship, which is the medium for which corrective socialization/development can take place, will produce little to no long-term effects on adolescents. Intervention methods are constrained by both money and manpower. Thus, many intervention strategies aim at utilizing financial and human capital available to mass produce results that will be deemed as statistically significant. However, statistical significance in the short-term does not always equate to significant developmental outcomes in the long-term. Furthermore, resources are spread thin in trying to reach as many adolescents as possible and in delivering poor-quality interventions often serve minimal benefits to at-risk adolescents. While the most effective interventions for at-risk youth come through a quality, long-term and intense relationship (mentoring), the limited volunteer force, lacking financial support, and complexity of attachments hinder the ability to mass produce. Even so, in order for mentoring interventions to be most beneficial and effective in producing long-term,

positive developmental outcomes, efforts should focus on the establishment and support of enduring and intense mentor-youth dyads.

The findings of this study also recommend that mentoring interventions intentionally cultivate relationships between the mentor and the adolescent's primary caregiver. This study demonstrated that when adolescent's mentors had a relationship with their primary caregiver the influence of the mentor was even stronger. This practice would also help facilitate a third recommendation, which is that more interventions be aimed at holistic family intervention. In light of the overwhelming influence primary attachments have on the socialization of adolescents, inclusively targeting the primary caregiver, the parent-child bond, and adolescent development may prove more beneficial in the long-term. However, it is recognized that this intervention method poses challenges and complications of its own. Perhaps parents may be unwilling to be involved or unavailable to participate, due to single parent homes, etc. or once in the program, parents may be unwilling to modify certain habits and behaviors already ingrained in their identity and lifestyle. Methods of holistic family interventions are often contingent upon parental compliance and commitment to change, yet this is often a great barrier to family interventions. Mentors that attempt to forge a lasting relationship with their adolescent's primary caregiver can potentially bridge this barrier and informally engage in a more holistic family intervention. Mentoring programs should direct their volunteers to be intentional about building these relationships with their adolescent's primary caregiver.

Future Directions for Research

Mentoring research has investigated the developmental outcomes of mentoring and the factors that influence the development outcomes of the mentoring relationships

(Dubois, 2011). Some studies even compared mentor interventions to other youth programs to examine and differentiate the level of affect mentoring had on youth outcomes. While many studies have concluded that mentoring is a strong and influential intervention method for at-risk youth, these findings were reliant upon short-term results. Previous research has primarily examined short-term developmental outcomes of adolescents, and not examined how a particular mentor impacted the adolescent's life in the long-term. Yet, interestingly, when long-term results of mentoring were examined "in comparison to other prevention programs for children and adolescents, the effectiveness of mentoring programs was found to be relatively small" (Durlak & Wells, 1997). Of the few studies that have collected follow-up assessments of mentoring programs revealed even weaker effects, and pointed out an eroding of benefits after youth left programs and relationships with mentors ended (Rhodes and Dubois, 2008).

In response, this study was a preliminary study, leading the way for a more systematic method of assessing the functioning role of a mentor and his/her level of influence. Qualitative studies, like this one, provide insight and direction for future studies, such as revealing pertinent variables that impact the level of influence a mentor may have and why. The findings of the study highlight future research agendas as well as implications on the theory and techniques in current mentoring practices. This study laid the ground work for future research to (1) examine the long-term impacts of mentoring, (2) examine projected modifications for mentoring programs and practices, and (3) examine how a mentor's influence compares to other influences upon adolescents pertaining to long-term developmental outcomes.

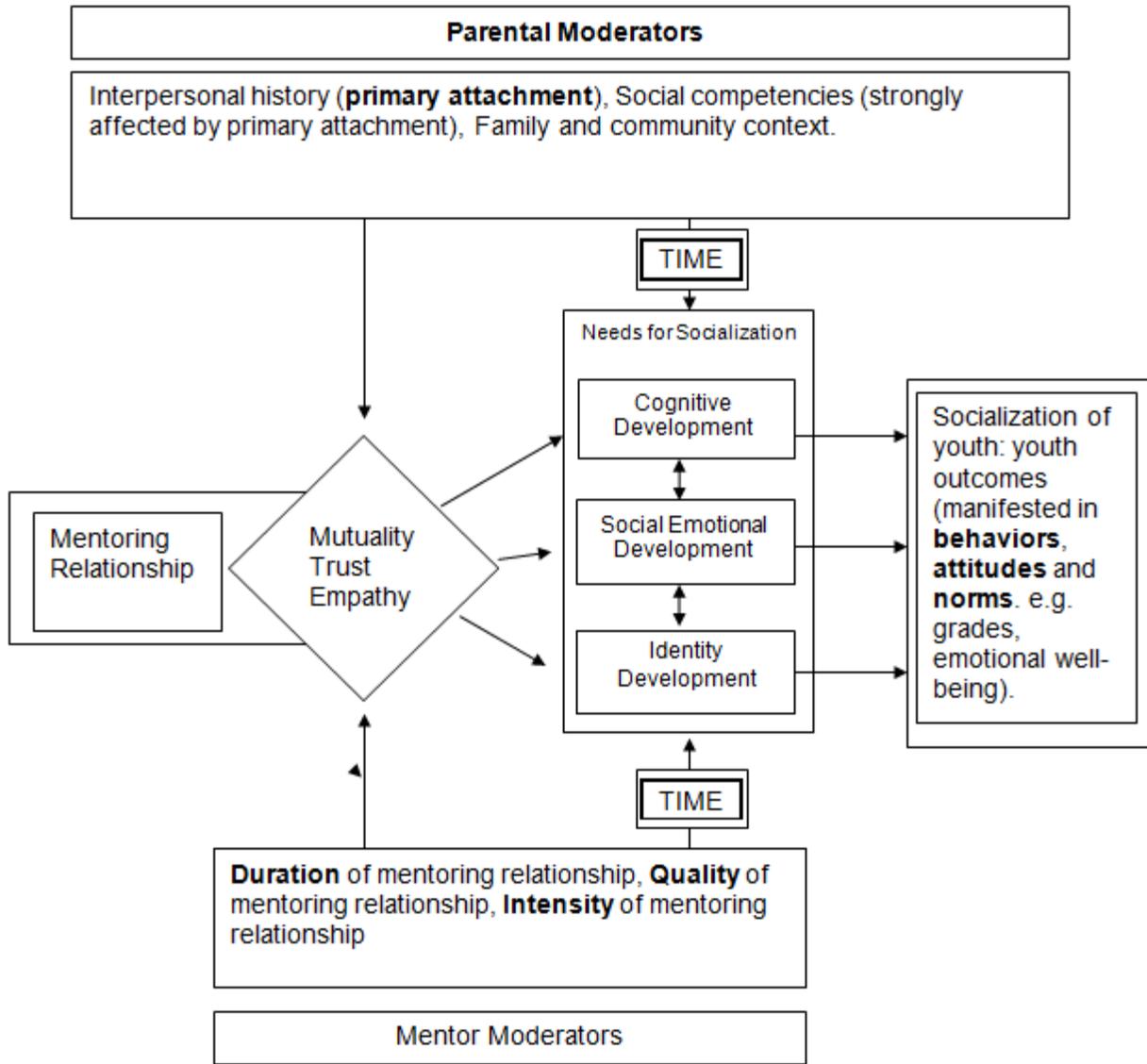


Figure 5-1. Adolescent Mentoring. Adapted from Model of Youth Mentoring (Rhodes, 2005).

APPENDIX A
LOGIC CHART

Table A-1. Logic Chart

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
Function of a Mentor	What is a Mentor?	Role Model & Leader	1. "Someone that I can look up to...Someone who is a role model." 2. "Someone to help lead me." 3. "Someone that can help lead you to the right path and not lead you to drugs or anything." 4. "Someone that is always there pushing you to do better." 5. "Someone whose footsteps I can follow in, someone who teaches me what is good not wrong."
		Counselor	1. "Somebody that helps you, like you can go to them and kind of like a guidance counselor." 2. "A person you can tell when you don't want to tell your parents." 3. "Kind of like a counselor, but I have never had one, so I am not really sure." 4. "Someone who is there for me when I am down."
		No Conception	1. "What is that?"
Primary source of guidance	1. Who do you feel has the most impact on shaping your behaviors? (descriptive)	Parent/Grandparents (Primary Caregiver)	Quotes are listed in the below cell: with the "And Why?" explanatory question.
	2. Who teaches you right from wrong? (descriptive)	Other Family Members	
	3. Who do you feel is most influential on your growth as an individual? (descriptive)	Mentor: CYFAR/Community	

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
	<p>And Why? (Explanatory – linked to the above 3 descriptive questions)</p>	<p>Self</p> <p>Discipline, Rewards & Punishment</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “My Dad because when I do wrong, he tells me ‘don’t do that’ or when I do something like he says ‘sit down’.” 2. “It would have to be my grandpa and my mom because like since they are the most challenging ones, like if I ever did something bad, they would do something to me where they will both deal with me.” 3. “Really it would have to be my whole entire family because like they would give me some challenges. Like if you act bad, your going to get this; if you act good, I’ll see what I can give you.” 4. “My mom because she is always disciplining me about doing the right things.” 5. “My mom and if I do wrong my dad because I have consequences from my dad.” 6. “He (Grandpa) taught me if I do something wrong he knows to get out and jump all over me and so he talks to me about it and tells why it was wrong and why I shouldn’t do it anymore and if I’m right he rewards me. So that makes me want to do, to be right a lot. To do a lot of good stuff because he’s there for me when I do right.”
		<p>Proximity & Closeness of Relationship</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Well, for me, I would have to choose my mom because ever since I was a baby she kept telling me things like ‘one day you’re going to be more of a man than a boy’.” 2. “My uncles. They were there before he [mentor] was.” 3. “Because she [mom] has been in my life longer and I see her more often.” 4. “Because I live with him [Dad] and am not living with my mom. And he [dad] he’ll mostly teach me... before Mr. B started teaching.” 5. “My mom because she taught me like things that I shouldn’t do and I should do since I was one.” 7. “Because she’s my mom and she raised me.” 8. “My dad and my uncle because I see them everyday. They have been with me since I was little.”
		<p>Main Source of Support</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “I guess Mr. B, because he is the one that has straightened me up... He is the only one that will follow up with me and see how I am doing.” 2. “My grandma. Like other than taking care of me, she gave me that unconditional love. Just showed me how life really is when I get older

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			<p>and get out.”</p> <p>3. “Mr. B, because I used to have a bad attitude and used to get mad at people all the time and then he just says don’t let them get to you. Ignore them and come talk to me when you have a problem.”</p> <p>4. “He [mentor] taught me just to work hard and believe in myself basically.”</p>
		<p>Main Source of Verbal Guidance</p>	<p>1. “He talked to me and what not: to tell me to stay out of trouble and stuff like that.”</p> <p>2. “My mom. Like when I get in trouble she talks to me telling me that I can do better than that and to stay away from the boys getting me in trouble. She really pushes me to do the right thing.”</p> <p>3. “My mom, my Grandma, my auntie and my cousin. Even when I don’t want to listen they sit down and talk to me and it sinks through. You can’t block them out.”</p> <p>4. “My mom and my grandma. Sometimes my mama talks to me every night. Or like three times a week she talks to me about stuff.”</p> <p>5. “My mom, like every time I do something that is not mature she tells me to do it and how to be mature and how to grow up for when I get older.”</p> <p>6. “Cuz my dad and uncle would sit me down and talk to me. Like one day I remember he came to my school in third grade and talked to me about smoking. Now he asks me about that little talk we had about smoking to remind me that I shouldn’t do it. Now I remember about what my dad told me when I was little and he would remind me like every few years. They talk to me one on one.”</p> <p>7. “Yea, my grandma because she’s always like really nice and she always does the right thing and she’s always telling me to do what God would want you to do and also the golden rule: like treat others how you want to be treated. So, it’s always in my head, she’s always in my head. I can always imagine her saying it. So, that’s why if I ever wanted to – even if like anything got in my mind to like say something back to somebody like mean or anything, I would always remember what she said. So I think she impacts my behavior mostly.”</p> <p>8. “Because he [dad] basically, I mean, he has done some of the stuff we have. So, I mean, he can relate to what we’re going through and what’s going on. So I mean when something does wrong, say in school I’m failing or</p>

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			<p>something, he always tells me, 'don't give up and keep on going'."</p> <p>9. "My Grandma because I can talk to her about more things that I want to do in life and she tells me do you want to do that, right from wrong. And so she could just help me by like guiding me."</p>
		Modeling	<p>1. "My cousin (older). The one that gets me into trouble. She is the one that made me bad."</p> <p>2. "My mom. She makes me mature by just being her, like what I said in the beginning, she pay her bills. And yea, just physically watching her and what she's doing."</p> <p>3. "My cousin. She went to college. She is 24 and is married and has a nice house. She has a good life and I want a life like that."</p> <p>4. "Really why I'm misbehaving is because like technically it's because of both (home & friends). Like, I see my people doing it and like, technically, really, my mom doesn't get into trouble that much. But, yeah, it's mostly my friends getting into trouble."</p> <p>5. <i>Have you learned that behavior?</i> (referring to anger problems) "From my real dad."</p> <p>6. "Sometimes, like, yeah I choose the wrong decisions to do stuff, but mostly I sometimes think about and go like, 'okay if I do this, maybe I'll become more like my mom and if I do this I'll become more of myself'."</p> <p>7. "(Name of sister/mentor). I follow her example"</p>
		Gender Influence	<p>1. "My grandma because she connects with me more with girl stuff."</p> <p>2. "I connect most with Mr. B, cuz you know he is male."</p> <p>3. "I connect more with males. They help me mature into a man."</p> <p>4. "I feel more comfortable talking with a guy than a girl."</p> <p>5. "Because she's a girl and we can connect to more stuff."</p>
		Self-Motivation/ Higher Power	<p>1. "I did it on my own. I was just thinking real hard about something. I was suspended from school for my third fight and was going to get kicked out and during that 10-day suspension I was thinking about everything. And made up my mind to get my grades up. I am in summer school right now to make up for stuff.... I learned there was a certain time and place to do something. Like I'm going to school to get my education... I had to set goals in my life." <i>Did anyone spark these thoughts?</i> "Jesus."</p> <p>2. "I try to be my own person. I just sit in the</p>

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			room and think about stuff, I write stuff down.”
		Deviant Case	1. “My dad because like, I don’t know, it’s like some things that I do, they say you know, ‘that his daddy right there.’ They say I get that from my dad.” <i>Do you know your dad and how often do you see him?</i> “Well, ever since I was six years old. I don’t see him like that no more. I stay with my grandma.” <i>When was the last time you saw your dad?</i> “When I was six. I don’t know how my dad acted when he was young.”
Primary source of support	Who are the significant adults in your life?	Parent/Grandparents (Primary Caregiver)	1. “My mom, dad, and grandma.” 2. “My daddy and my grandparents.” 3. “My granddad” 4. “My mom and my step-dad, and sometimes my grandma” <i>Why do you say sometimes your grandma?</i> “Because she lives in Alabama and is far away.” 5. “Just my mom and dad”
		Other Family Members	1. “Obviously my mom and dad, and my uncle, my aunts, my older cousins.” 2. “I have to say my uncle. He’s a role model – I mean he is my dad’s brother, so basically it’s like having another dad. So, I mean – they think the same, by my uncle is more laid back. So we do a little more things than my dad.” 3. “My aunts, they all encourage me. My local family, I think.” 4. “My aunt, she took us in when we were in foster care and she took us because no one else wanted us. And my uncle because every-time I have a question about my dad he knows the answers. And if I am upset because of what happened or if I have a nightmare I can go to him or my auntie.”
		CYFAR/Community	1. “One of the track coaches and my football coach.” 2. “My mom, my dad, my grandma, CYFAR and program staff, Mr. B.”
	Has an adult other than your primary caregiver made an important positive difference in your life at any time?	Older Siblings	1. “My sister and brother.” 2. “My Brothers.”
		CYFAR/Community	1. “My pastor’s wife.” 2. “My guidance counselor helps me a lot” 3. “My fourth grade teachers. They were the ones there for me. Like they are the ones that gave me that positive attitude you know.” 4. “Mr. B, because whenever I get into trouble he will be there and talk to me and tell me why I shouldn’t do that. He tells me that he looks to me like family because he had it hard when he was little... I have been here (CYFAR site) a long time (5-years), so I have known him for a while and he calls me family.” 5. “Mr. B, he comes to me when I am mad

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			because he knows I have anger issues. He calms me down. He talk to me, tells me not to worry about them or what they are saying.” 6. “Yeah, Mr. B. He’s told me how to follow my dreams and stuff.” 7. I mean, like they (CYFAR staff) do conduct lectures and stuff about how to be a good leader. So when they’ve said that I am a good leader and stuff, it made me think about it. Mr. B was telling the class how I was a good leader. He used me as an example. And so, like, then I told my mom and was like, ‘he thinks I’m a leader!’ Made me feel like I’m worth it.”
		No-one	1. “No, my mom and dad have always been there for me, I really had no problems.”
	Who is your mentor?	Parent/Grandparents (Primary Caregiver)	1. “My mom!” 2. “My parents because I want to be like them.” 3. “My mom, my grandma – like kind of more like family members.”
		Other Family Members	1. “My uncle.”
		CYFAR/Community	1. “I look up to Mr. B as my mentor. I have been here for a long time (6-7 years) and he has been here since I have been here. I know he won’t do anything or saying anything to hurt me.” 2. “This one lady. She is this lady at my school, she is like my mentor kind of. She is a counselor. She talks to you about everything. She was there for me when my mom passed.” 3. “(Mentor’s name). The first time I met her was when we was coming here (CYFAR site) and then she started – I called her mom because she kept acting like a mom to me. And then when she left, I felt really sad. But that is when she and my mom was hanging out together and they went out to like some dinner together and she invites us to her church and we do a lot of things.”
		None	1. “No”
Primary source of identity	Who is the one person you want to be most like?	Parent/Grandparents (Primary Caregiver)	1. “My Mom, because I look like her and she has inspired me a lot.” 2. “I want to be like; I guess kind of want to be like my mom. But in the [other] hand I want to come up as a different person – a unique person. I don’t want to be like nobody but my mom, not all of her, but just a little bit.” 3. “My mommy, because she is an independent person. She’s a strong person.” 4. “My grandfather, because he does bowling and he’s good!”
		Other Family Members	1. “My auntie. She works at school and whenever I need help she helps me with my

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			homework and stuff.” 2. “My cousin, because he is in the Air force. I want to be in the Air force too. It’s something for me to look forward to when I get older. I want to know I am doing something for my country.” 3. “My uncle. He’s a doctor.”
		Mentor: CYFAR/Community	1. “My mentor.” (this was a woman from church)
		Multiple Persons	1. “There isn’t really one person because there are three people that I really admire. My first one is my dad, the second is my uncle and the third is my basketball coach. It’s a combination of them three.”
		Self	1. “I don’t know. Be me! I just want to be me!” 2. “I can’t put myself in other people’s shoes. I just have to be myself basically.”
		Famous Person	1. “Oh! That’s Lebron James!” 2. “Tirell Owens. He’s a football player for the NFL – wide receiver.” 3. “I want to be most like Oprah.”
Primary Caregiver Relationship	Who do you view as the most responsible person for raising you? (Descriptive)	Mom	1. “My mom, because my mom take me wherever I want. But my dad just stays home.” 2. “My mom, because he’s (dad) always at work and my mom stays with us.”
		Dad	1. “My dad.”
		Grandparent	1. “My grandma started off, then my mom would like come in and help.” 2. “Well, my mom and my grandma.” 3. “My grandma.” Do you live with her? “No, cuz my mom has two jobs. But I am mostly with my grandma and she works at my school. She picks me up from the boys and girls club and everything. I go to her house in the mornings. Like whenever my grades are down she gets to know my teachers so that I pull up my grades.”
		Other Family Members	1. “My dad and my auntie.”
	Describe the characteristics of this person. (Explanatory)	Positive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hard working skills 1. “I have respect for my dad and we have fun; he is hard working.” 2. “She is hard working and gives good advice.” - Money 1. “She brought that money in.” 2. “My mom gets lots of money, like she knows how to work things. It’s hard to explain.” 3. “They have lots of money.” - Cooking 1. “She is a good cook.” - Intelligence 1. “He is intelligent and knows how to fix things when they are broken.”

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			<p>2. "My mom is also really smart." - Musical talents 1. "My dad is on the music side. So I love music and I like learning like that too." - Respectful 1. "She has never said nothing bad about anyone. She likes to respect people and she doesn't like to be judgmental." 2. "They are calm and patient and respectful." - Job 1. "I want to build things. Like construction work." (father was a construction worker) - Humor 1. "He is a funny dude." 2. "She is really funny." - Good advice 1. "She is hard working and gives good advice." - Communication skills 1. "I want to be like the way my mom and dad is now, the way they communicate with each other. We could always communicate." - Strength 1. "He tries to get me tough like him because he doesn't want nobody pushing me around and stuff." 2. "My dad is built." - Social 1. "My mom is social and hanging out."</p>
		<p>Negative:</p>	<p>- Anger/Meanness 1. "Well, all the yelling." 2. "When she gets mad sometimes. But wait I already do that. I would say some things that are not good and then I would blow everybody off who tries to help me. I will try to fight them." Is your mom like that too? "Yeah!" 3. "She can be mean sometimes. So I don't want to be mean." 4. "I don't want to be like my aunt because she has a big attitude towards everyone, like she just wakes up in a bad mood. I don't want to be like my uncle when he is mad." 5. "She does have some anger issues sometimes." - Job 1. "He works too hard sometimes. I would spend more time with my kids and family." 2. "Probably how she works. She doesn't like her job." - Bad Habits 1. "She smoked. But she stop smoking because of us." 2. "He used to drink and smoke, but he</p>

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
	Describe your relationship with this person. (Explanatory)		stopped.”
		Positive: Ability to confide	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “She is there for me. She’s like a friend too. Not just a mom, she is also a friend and I can tell her anything.” 2. “She is always there for me and asking me how I am. She is always teaching me what to do.” 3. “We have confidence in each other and if we have problems, we go to each other and help each other out.”
		Positive: Providing for physical needs.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “They do stuff for me if I do good and they’ll take me somewhere and buy me something.” 2. “Well, if I am good they take me places and they provide for me.” 3. “He adopted me when I was 30 days old. So, I get all his benefits.” 4. “She does everything for us. Like she’ll drop everything just to do something for us.” 5. “Every time I’m sick she like, gives me some medicine, soup.”
		Positive: Engaging in activities together	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “We have parties at our house and we go places together.” 2. “We go to parties, we go to stores together... we watch movies. We cook together and we sit at dinner and have a family talk.” 3. “We hang out and watch TV” 4. “She is one of my best friends, we do a lot of stuff together... to theme parks and all of that and we go shopping together.”
		Positive: Good sense of humor.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “They are funny. I spend a lot of time with them.” 2. “She is funny like me. She’s like happy and stuff.” 3. “Because like some moms are always serious and so I like a mom that’s like funny too.”
		Negative: Physically or emotionally unavailable	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.” We get along, but I don’t really talk to her that much... because she has five other kids.” 2. “My dad is in a working facility so I have to wait until he gets out [prison].” 3. “We don’t talk that much. Like we talk but most of the time she is on the phone.”
		Negative: Hostility	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “We would argue, then we would be laughing, she would hit me out of no where and tell me to shut up.” 2. “My relationship with my grandma and grandpa are like okay because like most of the times I get in trouble and sometimes I get blamed for something I didn’t do.” 3. “My relationship with my auntie went down because when I was like 7 she would yell at me for everything that I did so I felt like I could nothing right. And from there on I haven’t

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			talked to her.”
Mentor Relationship	Tell me about your relationship with this person.	Duration	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “[He has been in my life] ever since I can remember.” 2. “Because I was living with her first and that is why I feel comfortable talking to her.” 3. <i>How long have you known Mr. B?</i> “Since the building was built, I think in 2005.” (7 years) 4. Have you known her your whole life? “Yes, because when I was born in Orlando she used to come up there and help my mom take care of me.” 5. “She is always there.” <i>How long have you known her?</i> “A year or two.” 6. “I have known his for 6-7 years.”
		Intensity	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>How often to do you see your mentor?</i> “Like a lot! I see her since I go to church too. Basically the whole week. But we changed our schedule so I see her Sunday, sometimes Monday, Tuesday, sometimes Wednesday. I don’t see her on Thursdays no more. Friday’s sometimes. Saturday’s and definitely on Sunday.” 2. “I see a lot of her... I can just go to her house.” 3. <i>You said you see him everyday. Do you only interact with him at basketball practice?</i> “He invites me over to his house and picks me up from my uncles work. He calls me to see how I am doing too. We watch tapes of old basketball games at his house and talk about them.” 4. “I see her, she lives really close to us... Like last summer, I spent almost the whole summer with her.” 5. “I mostly chill with him at the club [CYFAR site]. I don’t really see him outside of the club.” 6. <i>Do you interact with him outside of the club [CYFAR site]?</i> “He used to be at my elementary school and held the P.E. coach.”
		Quality	<p style="text-align: center;">- Advice/Communication</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. “Well sometimes when I have problems, she helps me out. Or when I’m just not feeling right and I can go talk to her. I could call her. I can go to her house. My parents will be willing to drive me there”

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			<p>2. "He talks to us, the way he is always with us and always giving me advice; even though sometimes I do want to hear it, sometimes I don't."</p> <p>3. "When I have a problem she gives me advice on how to fix it."</p> <p>4. "When I am upset I tell him why and what happened. When I just need to talk to somebody I know I can go to him and I trust that what I share with him he isn't going to tell anyone... When I say things to him he looks me in the eye. He will actually sit there and listen to my problem and if there is a problem he can take care of, he will take care of it. Some of the other staff don't do that. Most adults won't look at you in your face when you're talking."</p> <p>5. "I am around her when she is alone and I ask her questions a lot. I talk to her about stuff."</p> <p>6. "When things are bothering me I talk to her about it."</p> <p>7. "My uncle, we talk about things... when I get mad at my dad, it's usually because I can only see my point of view. My uncle helps me see my dad's point of view, then I can see that I am wrong. He tells me when I get angry at my dad not to talk back but to just listen. When I need something, or have a problem I go to them and they are there for me everyday!"</p> <p>8. "I can tell her everything and she mostly taught me about God and Jesus."</p> <p>- Recreational and leisure activities</p> <p>1. "We do fun stuff like play basketball, play on the playground, we play foursquare and we cook."</p> <p>2. "She teaches me how to cook."</p> <p>3. "Like sports and field days over here [CYFAR site] and that's all."</p> <p>4. "We spend the night, see movies, we go to the beach."</p> <p>5. "She takes me a lot of places."</p> <p>6. "We play basketball."</p> <p>- Fun/joking</p> <p>1. "[We] talk, joke around, hang out."</p> <p>2. "We say jokes to each other."</p> <p>3. "He will joke with us and make us laugh to change our mood from sad to happy."</p> <p>- Caring</p> <p>1. "She takes care of us."</p> <p>2. "She is very caring."</p> <p>- Encouragement</p> <p>1. "She would always call me about how much she loves me and when I see her she's like</p>

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
			<p>giving me a zillion kisses on the forehead and stuff and I know she loves me because she is there for me.”</p> <p>2. “He’ll like push me up.”</p> <p>3. “He said to me yesterday that he sees a lot of potential in me.”</p> <p>- Helpful</p> <p>1. “We help other people. We have group therapy session. We do activities for helping the mind. It helps me a lot. I changed a lot. I used to be different but I am not rude and disrespectful to people any more... I used to get into a lot of fights at school. But I don’t do that anymore.”</p> <p>2. “She helps me with projects.”</p> <p>3. “If I am mad or sick she will try to help me or cheer me up.”</p> <p>4. “We will do nice stuff for other people... like going to pick up trash or giving can-goods to homeless people.”</p>
		Deviant Cases	<p>1. “They called me out of class one day to meet her (my mentor) and she never showed up. So I had to go to her classroom and basically I was supposed to be talking about my schoolwork and stuff but she was sitting on the computer. She didn’t listen, so I don’t go see her.”</p> <p>2. “I had one once before, but then, well they would have me talking to her and then that was it.” <i>Was this person a counselor?</i> “Yea.” <i>Was it helpful?</i> “I thought it was kind of silly.”</p> <p>3. “My uncle, I’m not going to say his nickname, but he shows me how to hunt, how to fight and its cool. I like it, but my mom and them, they don’t like it. They say I fight too much. I fight at school, home, neighborhood – anywhere.” <i>What does your uncle do when you get into these fights?</i> “He just asks me if I won and asks me what I did in the fight. And then my mom will get mad.”</p> <p>4. “I had a mentor, but he wasn’t really a mentor. He was faking. He liked my mom. Be he didn’t know she was married. And he pretended to be a mentor and then my mom talked to a lady who told her what the man was doing and we had caught him. Then he moved to a whole different state.”</p>
Comparing Mentor to Primary Caregiver	If something were upsetting you, would you talk to your	Primary Caregiver	<p>1. “My mom because I see her more often.”</p> <p>2. “Actually I go to my dad because he is always with me. So I always go to my dad.”</p> <p>3. I actually go to my mom and daddy for their opinion and when I have problems I just go to them first. Then I go to my pastor’s wife.”</p>

Table A-1. Continued

Variable	Question(s)	Themes	Quotes
	(identified primary caregiver) or (identified mentor)?		4. "Well, because I live with my mom, so if anything happened I would just go like, 'oh mom, this is what happened'... Once in a while if something is really bothering me I tell my grandma and my mom."
		Mentor	<p>1. "I would tell my grandma because my mom, she doesn't like to listen... like if I tell her something, she'll get mad and just start yelling at me and then I get in trouble... My grandma just takes it slow and says okay baby you can do this."</p> <p>2. "Because when my mom needs her to watch me she does it. Even if she has stuff to do. And she takes me places since my mom doesn't have that much time to spend with me."</p> <p>3. How strong is your relationship with your mom on a scale from one to five? "Technically, like a three." <i>How strong would you say it is with Mr. B?</i> "A five!"</p> <p>4. "I mean I know that is my mom but I guess I talk to my grandma about everything. I told my mom some things."</p>
		Both	<p>1. "Well my mom and (mentors name), they have a little bond going on. So if I talk to my mentor, my mom is going to be there too. So, I talk to both of them at the same time."</p> <p>2. "Kind of both. But my mom is almost gone for the whole day."</p>
		Neither	<p>1. "I don't talk to nobody. I just go skateboard. I just sit in my room."</p> <p>2. I don't talk to people a lot. I don't tell my personal business."</p>

APPENDIX B INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Interviewers Guide

Instructions

Hi, my name is I am going to record this session to make sure that I capture everything during the interview. Anything you say will be confidential. The purpose of this interview is for me to understand your experiences with (Midway) staff and how that relates to your relationship with other adults. There are no right or wrong answers! I value what you have to say and want to hear all your thoughts and stories! Feel free to ask me any questions during the interview.

Icebreaker

- Tell me three words that describe you, that is, what sort of person you are. (I can start....)
- Tell me three words that describe the type of person you want to be.
- Who is the one person you want to be most like?

Interview Questions

1. Who are the significant adults in your life?
 - a. Defined as “persons you count on and that are there for you, believe in and care deeply about you, inspire you to do your best, and influence what you do and the choices you make” (Dubois, Neville, Parra, and Pugh-Lilly, 2002).
 - b. Prompting examples: Mother, Father, Grandmother, or Coach.
2. Who do you view as the most responsible person for raising you?
3. Tell me three or more words to describe your relationship with your [parent figure], i.e.: mom/dad?
4. In what ways would you like to be like your [parent figure], i.e.: mom/dad?
5. In what ways would you not like to be like your [parent figure], i.e.: mom/dad?
6. Has an adult, other than your parents or stepparents, made an important positive difference in your life at any time (Erickson, McDonald & Elder, 2009)?
 - a. Explain to me how?
7. When I say the word mentor what does that mean to you?
8. Would you call this person a mentor? / Who is your mentor?
 - a. My definition of mentor, if they are unsure: A mentor is as any non-parental adult that has taken a special interest in your life and stepped outside their normal social roles to serve as a role model (Erickson, McDonald, & Elder, 2009).
9. Tell me a little about your relationship with this person? (Describe relationship).
 - a. Probing Questions:
 - i. How strong is your relationship with this adult?
 - ii. How long has this person been actively involved in your life?

- iii. How often do you interact with this person? Are they involved in other aspects of your life besides the after-school program? What types of things do you do with this person? Do you tell this person when something is bothering you?
 - iv. Are you confident this person cares about you? What makes you certain?
 - v. Does this person work at the (CYFAR site)?
 - vi. Is this adult a source of support still?
10. Who do you feel has the most impact on shaping your behaviors?
- a. Probing Questions:
 - i. Who teaches you right from wrong?
 - ii. Who shapes your attitudes?
 - iii. Who do you feel is more influential on your growth as an individual?
11. If something were upsetting you, would you talk to your (identified primary caregiver) or (identified mentor)?

Do you have anything else you want to add?

Do you have any questions or concerns at this time?

Thank you for your time. This concludes our interview.

NOTES-

**The interview needs to be consistent enough to reveal structural variations in response and flexible enough to help children with its demands without compromising validity. A further important difference was that the CAI focused on recent attachment-related events and current attachment relationships rather than the memory of relationships in earlier childhood.

***The interviewer will also provide scaffolding to assist the child in telling the story; typically, this means giving nonspecific, interested comments such as, "Is that what usually happens?" "Did you?" "Is there anything else you remember?" "That is a good example; can you tell me more about it?" "Was it after school?" and "Who was there?"

(Shmueli-Goetz, Target, Fonagy, & Datta, 2007).

APPENDIX C SUBJECTIVITY STATEMENT

This subjectivity statement is included in order to establish transparency and transferability of the findings. The subjectivities of the researcher may bias and limit the findings of this qualitative inquiry (Preissle, 2008).

I am a 24-year-old white female who was raised in a middle-class family and now works as a full-time graduate student. I lived in a third world-country (Belize) during and after undergraduate study, then lived in an urban low-income area of Lansing, Michigan and currently reside in a low-income area in Gainesville, FL. I have been involved with youth programs serving at-risk youth and informally mentored at-risk youth since I was 17 years old. A wide variety of experiences have accompanied my years of mentoring. My experiences with mentoring do impact my overall conception of mentoring, however the data gathered in this study pertains to experiences unknown to me and independent of me. My relationship with the participants of this study was non-existent before the interview. The data was analyzed with sole emphasis on the participant's perspectives and experiences. Multiple analyst's and peer reviews were employed to help establish impartiality and avoid bias. Furthermore the theoretical frameworks served as a guide for interpretation.

Despite demographic and experiential influences, the most prominent influence upon data analysis is my epistemological stance. One's epistemological stance governs the way they view everything, including research. What an individual views as knowable in the universe determines how one will interpret and essentially analyze information (Swisher, 2011). I hold a realist epistemological view, which relays that reality and knowledge are knowable and exist independently of personal beliefs; however, human

perceptions about knowledge and existence do impact reality (Swisher, 2011). As this study pertains to youth perceptions, my interpretation of the data values and assesses human perceptions of reality.

I am a research assistant employed through the CYFAR grant. The specific CYFAR grant through which I am employed is examining youth outcomes as a result of a particular youth connectedness curriculum that is unrelated to mentoring. The reports of the research to the national office does not include information pertaining to mentoring, thus the data is not comprised by any personal or organizational agenda.

The goal of this statement is to ensure the study's credibility, authenticity, and overall quality (Preissle, 2008). I believe that the specific experiences I have had with mentoring fuel the study, and enhance the personal drive to better understand the mentoring relationship. However, measures were taken to appropriately avoid any bias that may constrain the results of the study.

APPENDIX D
IRB APPROVAL

UFIRB 02 – Social & Behavioral Research			
Protocol Submission Form			
<i>This form must be typed. Send this form and the supporting documents to IRB02, PO Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611. Should you have questions about completing this form, call 352-392-0433.</i>			
Title of Protocol:	Involving Teens in Community Issues: Sustainable Community Projects		
Principal Investigator:	Dr. Gerald Culen	UFID #:	
Degree / Title:	State Program Director and Associate Professor	Mailing Address: (If on campus include PO Box address): 3041 McCarty Hall D PO Box 110310 Gainesville, FL 32611	Email: grculen@ufl.edu
Department:	Family, Youth and Community Sciences		Telephone #: 352-273-3525
Co-Investigator(s):	Dr. Rosemary V. Barnett	UFID#:	Email: rbarnet@ufl.edu
Supervisor (If PI is student):		UFID#:	
Degree / Title:	State Program Evaluator and Associate Professor	Mailing Address: (If on campus include PO Box address): 3082 McCarty Hall D PO Box 110310 Gainesville, FL 32611	Email :
Department:	Family, Youth and Community Sciences		Telephone #: 352-273-3519
Date of Proposed Research:	March 30, 2010- May 30, 2011		
Source of Funding (A copy of the grant proposal must be submitted with this protocol if funding is involved):	USDA, CYFAR Program Sustainable Community Projects Grant		
Scientific Purpose of the Study:			
<p>The purpose of this investigation is to conduct research based impact evaluation of the two after school programs. Programming will focus on community related issues and the importance of youth involvement in their community. Curriculum and programmatic impacts on youth's academic, social and life skills will be assessed by examining differences in pre- and post-test data for each unit. The program will be available to all students on a voluntary basis enrolled in the afterschool program. Evaluations will be used to determine the influence that the discussion of community related issues and the importance of community involves has on the students. Other data will be collected related to attendance, participation, time using computers, completing homework, and participating in recreational activities for a complete profile of their overall after school experience. Data will also be collected on youth developmental assets by administration of the Developmental Assets Profile (DAP) to determine existing and needed assets of participating youth as well as the level of program and community</p>			

support for overall youth well-being. In addition, youth may be asked to participate in a brief interview or focus group with researchers. This longitudinal data will help researchers assess changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors due to participation in the program. Parental consent as well as student consent will be obtained in order to conduct the pre-and post-tests, as well as any other data collected.

Describe the Research Methodology in Non-Technical Language: *(Explain what will be done with or to the research participant.)*

Together, the State Evaluator, Project Manager, State Evaluation Assistant and Community Coordinators will develop a mixed-method approach that combines quantitative (e.g., surveys, pre/post tests) and qualitative (e.g., observations, interviews, focus groups) data gathering techniques to monitor program process and impact, as well as assess short and long-term outcomes. The State Evaluator will work with Community Coordinators and staff to establish appropriate record keeping methods and protocols that ensure consistent and accurate documentation of program impacts. Statistical analysis of data will be conducted. Findings will be reported to Community Coordinators and staff in a timely manner to allow for program improvements. These findings will also be used to inform collaborators of program outcomes.

Describe Potential Benefits:

Once program unit impacts are measured, implications for curriculum and life skill development will be apparent for consideration of future programming efforts. Identification of existing and needed developmental assets will assist community leaders, Extension agents, local stakeholders and parents determine where support is needed for underprivileged youth. State and national dissemination of findings will enable other after school program managers and stakeholders to make decisions regarding curriculum selection for maximum impact on building assets and life skills of underprivileged youth.

Describe Potential Risks: *(If risk of physical, psychological or economic harm may be involved, describe the steps taken to protect participant.)*

No risks are anticipated for youth since this program promotes positive youth development and assessments are asset and curriculum based and developmentally appropriate.

Describe How Participant(s) Will Be Recruited:

Participants are recruited to the after school program by County Extension agents on location through local schools and various community contacts. Each after school program serves between 20 and 25 participants. Both county programs will serve students 12-19 years of age. No compensation is provided to participants. After school program services are provided at no charge.

Maximum Number of Participants (to be approached with consent)	50	Age Range of Participants:	12-19	Amount of Compensation/ course credit:	none
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PROTOCOL REVISION FORM FOR ALREADY APPROVED STUDIES			
Institutional Review Board Office 02 (Social and Behavioral Research)			
UFIRB NUMBER:	UFIRB # 2009-U1254		
PROTOCOL TITLE:	Involving Teens in Community Issues Afterschool Program		
PI'S NAME:	Dr. Rose Barnett & Dr. Jerry Culen	PHONE:	273-3519
		EMAIL:	rbarnet@ufl.edu
REVISION / AMENDMENT TO PROTOCOL			
<p><i>State the revision(s) you are making to the study:</i> The addition of 11 semi-structured interview questions. All interview questions are open-ended responses.</p>			
JUSTIFICATION FOR REVISION			
<p><i>Provide reason / justification for this change:</i> The additional interview questions will add a qualitative aspect to the current ongoing CYFAR grant evaluation. This will allow researchers to explore for a more in-depth understanding of the practice and effects of mentoring within after-school programs. The data collected will inform the general body of knowledge and expand on the function of mentor relationship to youth. Furthermore, this data will enhance the practices of the CYFAR after-school program by providing information on the mentoring process to program managers and staff.</p>			
DOES THIS CHANGE AFFECT THE FOLLOWING? PLEASE ATTACH REVISED COPY.			
<u>Informed Consent</u>	<u>Questionnaire</u>	<u>Flyer</u>	<u>Number of Participants</u>
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes # _____ of participants
No	No	No	No
SIGNATURE SECTION			
Principal Investigator:	<i>Gerald Culen</i>		(Date) 4-30-12
Supervisor's Signature (If PI is student):	<i>Rose Barnett</i>		(Date) 4-30-12
*****THIS SECTION IS FOR IRB02 USE ONLY*****			
Reviewer Comments:			
Signature: IRB Chair		Approval Date:	

PROTOCOL REVISION FORM FOR ALREADY APPROVED STUDIES
 Institutional Review Board Office 02 (Social and Behavioral Research)

UFIRB NUMBER:	11253910
PROTOCOL TITLE:	Involving Teens in Community Issues Afterschool Program UFIRB # 2009-U1254
PI'S NAME:	Dr. Jerry Culen
PHONE:	273-3519
EMAIL:	gruculen@ufl.edu

REVISION / AMENDMENT TO PROTOCOL

State the revision(s) you are making to the study:

The addition of undergraduate volunteer research assistants to transcribe IRB approval semi-structured interviews.

JUSTIFICATION FOR REVISION

Provide reason / justification for this change:

The addition of undergraduate research assistants will provide research experience to undergraduate individuals interested in pursuing a graduate degree involving research. All undergraduate research assistants will have access to audio files of the semi-structured interviews conducted during the Summer 2012. All transcriptions will take place on encrypted computers within the Family, Youth, and Community Sciences department. Research assistants will use Express Script to transcribe the data. All research assistants will be informed of IRB confidentiality and protocols.

DOES THIS CHANGE AFFECT THE FOLLOWING? PLEASE ATTACH REVISED COPY.

<u>Informed Consent</u>	<u>Questionnaire</u>	<u>Flyer</u>	<u>Number of Participants</u>
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes # _____ of participants
No	No	No	No

SIGNATURE SECTION

Principal Investigator:		(Date) 7-27-12
Supervisor's Signature (if PI is student):		(Date)

*****THIS SECTION IS FOR IRB02 USE ONLY*****

Reviewer Comments:

Signature: IRB Chair		Approval Date:	
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APPENDIX E
PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

Department of Family Youth and Community Sciences
PO Box 110310
University of Florida
Gainesville, FL 32611-0310

Parental Consent

Dear Parent/Guardian,

We are professors in the Department of Family, Youth and Community Sciences at the University of Florida conducting research on after school programs. The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of the after school program on youth. The after school program will be managed by the local County Extension Agents as well as staff at the University of Florida. The program is open for all youth in the community to attend at no cost. The after school program will work to educate the youth on the importance of community involvement and how youth can work to improve their community. The results of the study will help us look at changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors as a result of the program. These results may not directly help your child today, but may benefit them in the future. With your permission, we would like to ask your child to volunteer for this research on the program effects and how the program affected them.

We will give students a survey before and after each session is taught at the after school program. Other data will be collected related to developmental assets (influences within your child's life), attendance, participation, time spent using computers, completing homework, and participating in recreational activities for a complete profile of the children's overall after school experience. This will help researchers understand changes due to participation in the program. We will look for changes in the youth's academic, social skills, community involvement and life skills development. Data will also be collected on your youth's developmental assets by having your teen complete the Developmental Assets Profile (DAP). Developmental Assets focus on how youth are being influenced by others surrounding them as well as the importance of school in their lives. Your youth will also be given surveys that study their involvement in their community, their social behaviors, and their use of media (computers, tv). In addition, your child may be asked to participate in a brief interview or focus group with researchers. Your child will miss 30 minutes of recreation and/or free play time in order to participate in an interview and/or focus group. Although the children will be asked to write their names on the questionnaires for matching purposes, their identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. We will replace their names with code numbers. There will be no way for others to connect your child's responses to their names, therefore keeping your child's answers completely confidential. Results will only be reported in the form of group data. Participation or

non- participation in this study will not affect the children's grades or placement in any programs.

You and your child have the right to withdraw consent for your child's participation at any time without consequence. There are no known risks or immediate benefits to the participants. No compensation is offered for participation. Group results of this study will be available in December upon request. If you have any questions about this research protocol, please contact me at (352)-273-3525. Questions or concerns about your child's rights as research participant may be directed to the UFIRB office, University of Florida, Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611, (352) 392-0433.

Jerry Culen, Ph.D., & Rose V. Barnett, Ph.D.

I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily give my consent for my child, _____, to participate in Jerry Culen & Rose Barnett's study of the Florida After School Enrichment Project. I have received a copy of this description.

Parent / Guardian Date

2nd Parent / Witness Date

APPENDIX F
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Informed Consent Script for
Florida After-School Enrichment Project
Seminole and Volusia County Sites

The purpose of this after-school program is to provide support for you to grow in positive ways. This means not just as a student, but as a whole person. We try to help you and your family by giving you a safe place to stay after school. We also try to teach you things that may help you learn certain life skills that will stay with you as you grow up. We hope to teach you about the importance of being involved in your community and that you are able to help influence your community in a positive way. We have computers for you to use, volunteers to help you with your homework, and some fun activities and recreation time so that you also build a strong mind and healthy body.

The reason we want to give you this (survey/interview/focus group) is to discover what is helping you and what you are learning. Your role is to help us understand what you may have benefited most from the program as well as what support you feel is available to help you learn and grow as a whole person. We may also ask you questions in an (interview/survey/focus group) so that you can tell us what has helped you develop into a responsible young person.

In a few minutes, I will begin asking you a series of questions on these topics. There are no known risks to you as a participant in this information collecting (interview/survey/focus group). This will last approximately 10-15 minutes. Your participation is voluntary. If there is a question that you do not wish to answer, you are not required to do so.

With your permission, I would like to take notes during the (interview/focus group) to help create a more complete record of the discussion. Your name will not be written next to your comments and we will not identify individuals who participate in these interviews in any reports. Anything that you say during this interview will remain confidential and will be repeated with your name. [This paragraph is for interview/focus group only.]

If you have any questions about the (survey/interview/focus group) later, please contact Dr. Rose Barnett. I will give you her business card before you leave today. Any questions you may have about the project and participants' rights may be directed to the University of Florida Institutional Review Board Office, PO Box 112250, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250

Thank you for your participation in this after-school program. If you agree that you are willing to participate in this (interview/survey/focus group) and there are no further questions, I will begin the (interview/survey/focus group) now.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Tiffany Jo Morrow is daughter to Don Morrow and Melissa Morrow. Born in Lansing, Michigan, Tiffany was raised by her mother and father in a close-knit, extended family environment. Tiffany's childhood was very family-centered and Jesus-centered. Ever since she was a young girl, Tiffany looked up to her father as her role model. Tiffany learned the practices of reflective observation, critical thinking, problem-solving, logic and rhetoric from her father. Yet, more importantly, Tiffany learned the practices of empathy, effective communication, self-sacrifice and loving servant-hood from observing her father. The combination of these all practices established a foundation for Tiffany's developing life mission.

As an outgrowth of Christian principles, Tiffany's family emphasized the values of hard-work and excellence in every area of life. Tiffany graduated from Haslett High School with 4 college credits and a cumulative G.P.A of 3.8. Tiffany attended Lansing Community College for one year following her High School graduation. During this time Tiffany became involved in mentoring five seventh grade girls residing in inner-city Lansing, Michigan. Two of these girls were raped by their older brother while Tiffany was mentoring them, which catapulted her into a serious of efforts to ameliorate the distress and disadvantages these two girls faced. Tiffany became involved with numerous youth organizations in Lansing as her awareness and desire to assist disadvantaged youth grew. Tiffany worked for the Boys and Girls Club of Lansing as well as a children's respite home. Through these venues Tiffany began mentoring a number of other youth, forging endearing relationships with the youth's families and school networks. Tiffany was becoming more and more entrenched in helping youth maneuver successfully though their hardships and realize a positive life trajectory.

Tiffany was awarded the Presidential Academic Scholarship at Grace College in Winona Lake, Indiana in 2007, for her academic excellence. She attended Grace College and completed her Bachelor of Science in Psychology, graduating a semester early with magna cum laude honors and boasting a 3.85 G.P.A. While attending Grace College Tiffany took the opportunity to study and volunteer abroad in Belize, Central America. Tiffany spent 4 months in Belize studying at Galen University, volunteering at Mary Open Doors, a women's domestic violence shelter, and assistant teaching at Faith Nazarene, a local primary school. Tiffany became very connected with the community and youth in Belize and returned upon undergraduate graduation to work for an NGO. Through these experiences Tiffany began to investigate the best methods and strategies of intervention for at-risk youth.

As her investigation and vision to help disadvantaged youth expanded, Tiffany decided to study at-risk youth interventions in a formal setting. Tiffany was accepted to The University of Florida to work towards a Master of Science in Family, Youth and Community Sciences, along with a full assistantship appointment. Tiffany immediately began building a research thesis study to assess the developmental outcomes and level of influence mentoring has on at-risk youth. In all of Tiffany's investigations concerning effective at-risk youth interventions she found that the premise of successful development outcomes always flowed from a strong, positive and consistent relationship. Thus Tiffany directed her focus of study on mentoring. Her completed thesis was titled, Adolescent Perspectives on the Functioning Mentor Role.

While working on her thesis research, Tiffany became very involved in contributing to the development and positive socialization of youth in East Gainesville,

an area predominately characterized by low-income, low-achieving, at-risk and unstable neighborhoods. Tiffany designed and carried out an art program for girls focusing on individual, family and community development at the Boys and Girls Club. This program won a national award in 2012. In the spring of 2012 Tiffany connected with the Boys and Girls Club, as well as the Gainesville Police Department, The Mentoring Center, and Big Brothers Big Sisters to assemble a partnership towards improved mentoring programs in the community. Tiffany began a youth boxing program in partnership with The Gainesville Dojo. She also became part of a team from a local church that focused concentrated efforts on improving a single low-income housing complex. These efforts included: mentoring, tutoring, building intergenerational relationships, building up indigenous leaders from within the community, initiating a committee of community members to organize local events and improvements, a women's support group, and a children's church program.

As the necessary elements of consistent, enduring and intense mentor relationships emerged not only in her research but also in personal experiences, Tiffany decided to commit herself to the positive socialization of specifically the youth in East Gainesville. She became increasingly involved in personally fighting to ameliorate the destructive mindsets and lifestyles of youth particularly in East Gainesville. As this revelation was forming Tiffany was assisting Dr. Victor Harris in teaching his undergraduate courses at the University of Florida and his research on best-practices in teaching. Tiffany was encouraged through friends and colleagues that she had a "gift" for teaching and should pursue it further. With further consideration Tiffany decided that a teaching career could provide a platform to form strong, positive relationships with

multiple youth and convey powerful knowledge and inspiration to the youth. While continuing to teach at the University of Florida and complete her thesis research, Tiffany took additional courses in teaching methods, classroom management, and teaching in high poverty schools. Furthermore, she sought out a student-teaching opportunity at Eastside High School.

Tiffany received her Master of Science from The University of Florida in the spring of 2013. She graduated with a 3.9 G.P.A. and is pursuing a career in teaching. Tiffany's life mission continues to be: To inspire, challenge, raise up, train, model, support, and catalyze the transformation of minds and hearts (attitudes, beliefs, ideas, & values -which in turn transforms behaviors) towards Christ.